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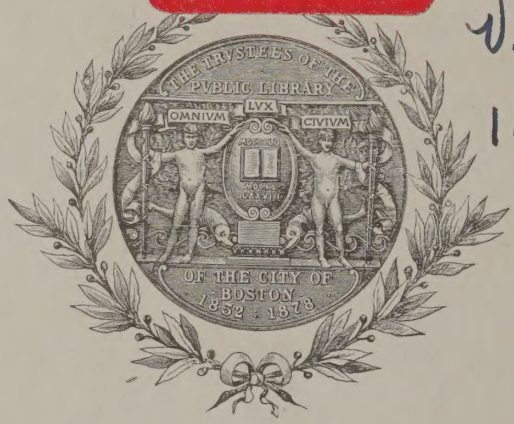

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ERRATA.

Page 34, col. iii, line 38. For "avonched" read "avouched," and dele period before Also. Line 39, change comma after (428) to period.

Page 151, col. ii, line 34 from bottom. For "Monday" read "Sunday."

Page 288, col. iii, line 11 from bottom, and page 289, col. 1, line 40. For "Milwaukee" read "Minneapolis."

Page 297, col. i, line 39. For "Richard" read "Philip."

Page 405, col. ii, line 43. For "Bauer" read "Baur."

Page 410, col. ii, last line. For "Miss" read "Mrs."

Page 411, col. iii, lines 23, 24. For "left New York a few days since" read "leaves New York this week."

Page 431, col. i, line 18. For "brighter" read "briefer."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 4, 1895.

The Week.

THE revenue of the United States Government for June has been, it seems, considerably in excess of its expenditure, and as this is the first month since the new tariff went into operation in which there has been a surplus, the Treasury officers are naturally encouraged as to the future. The deficit at the end of the fiscal year proves to be less than $43,000,000. The receipts from customs duties have been $21,000,000 larger than last year. The receipts from internal revenue are three and a half millions below last year's; but this is explained by the large withdrawals of spirits from bond which took place just before the tariff went into effect, and the disbursements this year will be enough smaller to make up for this loss. The New York *Tribune* offers a large assortment of reasons why the existence of a surplus should be regarded as a matter of no consequence. Marry, sir, the surplus is only a momentary one, and relates only to the past month. Secondarily, it is a very small surplus, while the previous deficiencies have been large. Moreover, it would take several hundred such surpluses as this to wipe out the former deficiencies. Sixthly and lastly, June is always a month of large receipts and small disbursements. Thirdly, expenditures have been kept down to an absurdly small figure to bring about this momentary appearance of a surplus. And, to conclude, the deficiency would have been twice as large as it is had a sum equal to the amount of the deficiency been applied as a contribution to the sinking fund. These reasons ought to be sufficient to dispel any cheerful anticipations that may have been aroused by the appearance of the surplus, and the *Tribune* assures its readers that no phenomenon of this kind will appear again for many months. But would it not be safer to guard this statement by the assurance that if a surplus should by any possibility recur this fall, it will be due to the anticipation of a restoration of the McKinley tariff?

The effect of the victory for sound money in the Kentucky Democratic State convention last week is already visible throughout the South in the increased confidence which it has given the opponents of free coinage. Hitherto many of them have been inclined to credit the claims of the silverites, that the masses were for "sixteen to one" by a great majority, but now they see that it is only necessary to set forth the truth in order to overthrow the delusion. The next Democratic convention to occur is in Mississippi, and the free-coinage men have counted upon a practically unanimous sentiment on their side among the delegates. The probabilities still are that they will control the body, but the sound-money men have instituted a "campaign of education" which only needed to have been started three months earlier to have transformed the situation. The truth is, that the sentiment for free coinage is almost always based upon ignorance and misrepresentation of the facts. The editor of the Natchez *Democrat* remarks that he has "observed in private conversations with reasonable men that some of them labor under the most egregiously mistaken ideas as to the free-silver theory, and as soon as their minds are disabused they admit their delusion, say that is not the way they understood it, and repudiate at once the idea of free and unlimited coinage." It was Secretary Carlisle's wonderful success in exposing such misrepresentations that caused so many thousands of Kentucky Democrats to change their minds, and the same thing will always happen where similar methods are pursued.

This year's election for Governor in Kentucky will be the first in which that office has been filled under the Australian system of voting. The ancient practice of *viva-voce* voting, by which the elector must publicly announce his choice, was maintained in Kentucky longer than in any other State, but a radical change was instituted when the new constitution was adopted. The Republicans think that the change will prove to their advantage, and this seems not unlikely. In a State where one party has long held sway, it often requires no little moral courage for a man to make public proclamation before his neighbors that he has concluded to support the opposition. The Australian ballot, on the other hand, enables him to give effect to his convictions without anybody's knowing how he stands. Vermont is a State which has been as overwhelmingly Republican as Kentucky has been Democratic, and the adoption of the secret ballot there, by the confession of the Republican managers, deprived the dominant party of some thousands of votes that they had been sure of so long as voters could be watched and the bolter could be "spotted."

These are dark days for the free-silver people. Michigan has been one of the States where they claimed to be especially strong, but when it comes to an actual count, their numbers take on an evanescent character. A few days ago, arrangements were made at Grand Rapids for a silver conference, but when the time came, the conference seemed to be "lost, strayed, or stolen." At noon only one man could be found who said he came as a delegate, and he had no credentials. In the afternoon that eminent apostle of free silver, Mr. Sibley of Pennsylvania, appeared, but his arrival, according to the despatches, "was a surprise." A "conference," indeed, consisting of one delegate without any credentials has many elements of surprise about it, and it is probable that Mr. Sibley was as much surprised as the conference. In view of this conference and of the 24½ votes in favor of free coinage which were obtained from nearly 900 delegates to the Democratic convention in Kentucky, the call for a convention at Washington issued by Senators Harris, Jones, and Turpie may have interesting results. These statesmen ought to be bound over, to one another and to silver in general, to attend the proposed meeting. It would never do to have only one delegate without any credentials constitute this national gathering. But Washington is not very attractive in the middle of August, and there is no inducement in the shape of mileage to draw our Congressmen thither. Unless some of the rich owners of silver mines can arrange for very low excursion rates, the rank and file of the "debtor class" may not find themselves pecuniarily able to respond to the senatorial call. As to the politicians, it looks as though they were pretty generally making up their minds that free coinage is a sinking ship, and before the middle of August they may have deserted it altogether.

Assured of non-interference by the federal courts, the Tillmanites in South Carolina are carrying things with a high hand in their attempts to suppress all opposition to the success of their faction in controlling the approaching Constitutional Convention. Tillman has repudiated an explicit agreement with the conservatives to divide the delegates equally between the two wings. His followers are now suppressing free speech. Col. John J. Dargan, the courageous editor of the Sumter *Freeman*, who has insisted strenuously upon giving the negroes a fair show, was announced to deliver a speech in Edgefield on Wednesday of last week, but was compelled by a mob of Tillmanites not only to abandon his purpose, but to leave town in order to escape personal violence. Such tactics are probably the best for bringing matters to a head. The rule of the Tillman oligarchy has been almost intolerable from the start, and, now that it breaks its pledges of fair play and suppresses free speech, an effective revolt can hardly be long postponed.

The *Bulletin* of the Iron and Steel Association sees the gloomy prospect that if

prices of rails go much higher, "consumers, especially if there is delay in meeting their wants, will do as was done in 1879—place liberal orders abroad. Then the market abroad would undoubtedly weaken." To prove the imminence of this danger, the *Bulletin* publishes a table which shows the present prices of thirteen articles abroad, and the foreign prices with duties and freight to New York added, and the present prices of corresponding domestic products at home. Thus it appears that foreign steel rails can be laid down in New York at $26.37 per ton, after paying $7.84 for duties and $1.50 for freight, while the price at mills in Pennsylvania is $24. Thus we see how near we are to ruin in consequence of the Wilson tariff. An advance of $2.37 in the domestic price opens the floodgates, and we are inundated. Would it not be wise for the railmakers to hold a convention and sign a paper, or take an oath, not to charge more than a dollar or a dollar and a half above the present price? Perhaps after reading the *Bulletin's* article they would be able to keep their agreements, and perhaps not.

The presentment of the grand jury in regard to the condition of the Tombs prison and House of Detention reads as if it were a description of the penal institutions of the Ottoman Empire rather than those of the first city of a Christian republic. Yet there is nothing especially new in the revelations. The crowded and filthy condition of the Tombs, its barbaric unfitness as a modern prison, has been exposed many times, but to no purpose. Our Tammany rulers, while always eager to come to the aid of political criminals, were always callously indifferent to the welfare and comfort of those who were not able to protect themselves with "pulls." They cared no more about giving these humane treatment than they did for giving it to the paupers and insane on Blackwell's Island. So in regard to the brutal practice of treating detained witnesses as criminals, depriving them of their liberty in defiance of law for long periods of time. The grand jury say that the Police Justices have ignored the provisions of the criminal code on this subject, and have treated innocent persons as if they had committed crimes. This shocking condition of affairs ought to be remedied at once, and the new City Magistrates can be depended upon to heed the request of the grand jury to put an end to it.

Doubtless judges rejoice in opportunities to escape from the severe requirements of conformity to statutes and precedents, and to indulge themselves in visions of things as they ought to be and not as they are. Such recreations also afford opportunities to the rest of the world to criticise the views professed by the judiciary without fear of discipline for contempt of court, or of encouraging disrespect for law. We do not hesitate to say, therefore, that the address of Justice Brown of the United States Supreme Court at the Yale Law School commencement, according to the reports we have of it, does not seem to be characterized by sound judgment. Justice Brown warned his hearers that the great powers of Europe were about to look for new fields of conquest in the extreme East, stating that "the process of absorption will go on with the usual indifference to the wishes of the native population, and another hundred years may see the entire eastern hemisphere under their control." He added that "the lust of conquest, like that of acquisition, knows no bounds," and that it would be the duty of his audience to see that the rapacity of the European powers did not extend to the western hemisphere. We incline to think that these observations may need some revision in view of the recent disclosure of the military capacity of the Japanese, and we fancy that the European powers are for the most part quite as anxious concerning Asiatic "lust of conquest" as Justice Brown is concerning the European variety of that revolting passion. But, however that may be, we think that it would have been better counsel for young men had Justice Brown turned their attention from the mote in the European eye to the beam in our own. There has been much "lust of conquest" manifested here concerning the Sandwich Islands, "with the usual indifference to the wishes of the native population." There was a certain affair with Chili not long since; and there is a constant menace on the part of many of our journalists toward Canada and toward Cuba. If Justice Brown could persuade our young men to insist on fair and honorable dealing with our neighbors in this hemisphere, he might safely assure them that European rapacity would need no other check.

It is difficult, also, to follow Justice Brown's reasoning in favor of Government control of "natural monopolies." The only reason which he assigns is, that a tendency in this direction exists in nearly every highly civilized state except our own, "where great corporate interests, by parading the dangers of paternalism and socialism, have succeeded in securing franchises which properly belong to the public." The natural inference from such statements is, that there are no dangers in paternalism and socialism which we need apprehend. This is certainly not a judicial view to take of the case. Paternalism and socialism flourish most vigorously in France, and certainly the condition of that country is not to be envied. Every business conducted upon a large scale is by judicial determination "affected with a public interest," but the logical gap between this premise and the conclusion that the Government ought to carry on every such business is wide, and, in our view, impassable. There is a premise lacking, to the effect that the Government is competent to carry on business with as much economy and with as good results, on the whole, as private enterprise. This premise can be established only by referring to experience, and those who "parade the dangers of paternalism and socialism" have no anxiety concerning the results of such an appeal. Whenever Government shall have proved itself a good business manager, it will very likely take control of natural monopolies; but it is important to insist that substantial evidence of this competency shall be furnished before private enterprise is driven out of the great field which it is now so splendidly exploiting.

Mr. H. D. Macleod has replied in the *Nineteenth Century Magazine* to the attacks on his former article on bimetallism. He addresses himself now to the subject of a particular ratio between gold and silver, and the deadlock in which an international conference would find itself if it should ever get so far along as to consider one. France would naturally insist on the ratio of 15½ to 1. That is what her bimetallists always insist upon. What would this signify to England? It would mean that every existing debt, including all deposits in banks, should be paid at the rate of ten shillings in the pound. In other words, repudiation of one-half of all existing obligations would be legalized. Now no English conferees and no English Parliament would ever agree to that. England would at all events insist on taking the market ratio of, say, 35 to 1 as a starting-point. What would that mean to France? The Bank of France holds 1,250,000,000 francs of silver, which is kept at par by the fact that the coinage is limited. If the coinage were unlimited, all the existing five-franc pieces would fall to their bullion value, and the bank would lose 625,000,000 francs at one blow. But that is not all. The five-franc pieces in circulation among the people are a much larger amount than the bank's holdings. These would fall in like manner. So the international conference would begin with a deadlock between England and France which would be absolutely insoluble. It is needless to pursue the inquiry in order to see in what manner Germany, the United States, Russia, Holland, and Austria would harmonize their coinages with each other and with those of France and England.

The fiscal condition of the French republic is becoming positively alarming. It appears from official figures that the yield of the indirect taxes for the first five months of the present year is nearly 12,500,000 francs less than was

anticipated, and 55,000,000 francs less than for the corresponding period in 1894. Something must be done to lessen the deficit, and there seems to be a growing disposition to follow the example of Russia in establishing a Government monopoly of the traffic in alcoholic liquors. As was to be expected, the protectionists are not averse to the experiment, and one agricultural society has already pronounced in favor of it, provided the Government shall purchase only alcohol made in France out of the products of French soil. M. Aglave, a professor of finance, thinks that the support of the agriculturists may be secured by having the Government agree to pay them such a price as will in effect give them a bounty upon their production sufficient to enable them to export the surplus. This plan ought to satisfy the most incorrigible grumbler that can be found among the farmers, and it is hard to find any fault with it, except for the hint that there may be an exportable surplus. In order to have universal satisfaction, as we have learned from our Populists, it is necessary that the Government should not be allowed to limit its purchases, but that it should be required to purchase all the grain that the French farmers offer to sell to it at prices sufficient to enable them to live in comfort. As to the net revenue to arise from a business of this character, Prof. Aglave is somewhat vague; but in the interests of financial science it might be desirable to make the experiment. The French Chamber has, it is true, postponed the discussion of this monopoly, but the majority was a small one, and it is probable that a determined attempt will be made to establish it.

One of the significant features of the recent International Miners' Congress at Paris, and one of the things that mark the general decadence of quack internationalism, was the failure to pass a resolution advocating a restricted production of coal the world over. The Belgian and French delegates were hot for the proposition, and painted charming impressionist pictures of the blessings that would crown both masters and men through a general agreement to be idle a certain number of months each year. But the unimaginative Englishmen would not hear of it. They pointed out that it was a difficult thing to take a vote in Paris that would be binding round the globe, especially when so large a part of the coal-mining globe was not represented. While the French and Belgian and English miners were eating their heads off waiting for the limited production to raise prices and wages, what would their American and Russian and Australian fellows be doing? Working night and day, beyond a doubt, and glutting themselves at the same time with the market. Such prosaic reasoning carried the day, and the proposal was defeated by the negative vote of delegates representing 756,000 miners against an affirmative standing for but 212,000. The case is typical, and shows how much there is of dream, and how little of actuality, in the idea that production can be regulated internationally. Any given country or combination of countries is perfectly willing that others should stop work, or even stop eating, but for itself will continue to hug the old superstition that nations, like men, get rich by industry and making the most of their natural abilities and opportunities. The thing reminds one of the old test question in theology that used to be put to candidates for the ministry, whether they were willing to be eternally damned for the glory of God; and of one badgered candidate who finally told his examiners that he was not, but was entirely willing they should be.

The social programme of the English Unionists is entirely of Mr. Chamberlain's making. In season and out of season he has been hammering at it since 1892, when he took up the question of old-age pensions. Later on, when the country was disturbed by the controversy on the employers'-liability act, and the proposals of the Radicals for the amendment of that measure, he put forward his plan for compulsory insurance to cover cases of accidents to workmen; and still later he hit upon that for using the credit of the Imperial Treasury to enable workingmen to buy their homes. These were the proposals which were in the minds of Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour when, in their recent speeches, they dwelt upon the importance of the cessation of the movement for organic reform, in favor of a movement in Parliament in behalf of social reform. The two prominent men in the Unionist party who have not endorsed Mr. Chamberlain's social-reform schemes are Mr. Goschen and Mr. Courtney. All three measures are strongly tinged with socialism. It will, therefore, be interesting to see the attitude which economists like Mr. Goschen and Mr. Courtney now take towards them. From Mr. Goschen's past utterances on the poor-laws, especially those of 1884 and 1885, when the last franchise act was under discussion, and those in 1893, when an inroad was made on the poor-law system as established in 1835, it appears hardly likely that he can have much sympathy with any of the proposals.

Now that the British have got Chitral, the question arises what they shall do with it. A vigorous controversy between the advocates of the "forward" policy and the "scuttlers" generally follows a "native" war, and the expedition to Chitral is no exception to the rule. The "forward" party points to the fact that the British troops quickly and easily overcame the difficulties of supplies, of transport, of high snowy passes and deep defiles, and asks triumphantly why the Russians cannot do the same thing from the other side of the Hindu-Kush. It is true that no large army could be moved through such a country, but a small force would constitute an effective flanking party. It is true that the tribes might combine to resist the Russian advance; but on the other hand they might all turn around and, intoxicated with the prospect of plundering the rich plains of India, pour down like a flood upon the British line of communications. On the other hand it is argued that the day for such marches as Xenophon's Anabasis are past, and that a Russian army would be utterly cut off from its base of supplies before it could get down into India. Moreover, if the policy of disregarding the independence of the tribes of Chitral is to be followed, and British troops are to occupy the region, it will be made permanently hostile, and will involve an expenditure which would produce far better results if applied to strengthening the Indian army or even to relieving the Indian budget. It is evident that no reconciliation is possible between the representatives of these conflicting theories, but it is safe to say that the British will not withdraw, or that they will do so only after providing a subsidy, as in the case of the Ameer of Afghanistan, that shall make it for the interest of the ruler or rulers of Chitral not to engage in intrigues with the Russians.

The groans of the ruling authorities of British India over the difficulties of obtaining revenue suggest the inquiry whether the expenses of government cannot be reduced. No answer, so far as we have observed, is ever vouchsafed to this question, except the bald statement that it is impossible to make any reduction. But some light was thrown upon the matter by a question recently asked in the House of Commons concerning the payment of the travelling expenses of the Shahzadah of Afghanistan upon his visit to England. It was disclosed that these expenses, estimated to amount, together with the expenses of entertainment, to about a million dollars, were to be charged to India, which was never consulted in the matter and had no voice in the invitation. No doubt it will be claimed that these disbursements are all made in the interest of India, but it cannot be denied that Great Britain is quite as much interested as her Indian subjects. Considering the financial difficulties under which the Indian Government is laboring, and the numerous expressions of sympathy which these difficulties have elicited from the British authorities, it might have been supposed that these authorities would be glad to assume a charge which in justice belongs to them. As it is, we have the unedifying spectacle of the British Government squeezing a million dollars out of the poor people of India and spending the whole of this sum in junketing in England.

THE VICTORY IN KENTUCKY.

ONCE in a while it happens in American politics that an election in a single State, even in an "off year," involves national questions of the first importance and decides the attitude of the country towards the burning issue of the day. Such was the case in Ohio twenty years ago. The panic of 1873 had been followed by two years of hard times. As always happens in periods of financial depression, demagogues came forward with all sorts of wild schemes for the alleged relief of the people. A movement for an inflation of the currency, "to meet the wants of trade," was started, which for a time threatened to carry everything before it. Outside of a few States on or near the North Atlantic seaboard, nearly all of the Republican leaders—Cameron of Pennsylvania, Morton of Indiana, Logan of Illinois, Carpenter of Wisconsin, Windom of Minnesota, Ferry of Michigan, Ingalls of Kansas—yielded to the craze. Inflation was declared to be peculiarly "the Ohio idea." Old "Rise-up" William Allen had been elected Governor of the State by the Democrats in 1873 on the wildest sort of a platform, and was to stand for reëlection as the representative of inflation in 1875. Faint-hearted Republican managers feared to make the issue sharply, and favored an attempt at a "straddle." But better counsels prevailed, and the canvass for Hayes as Allen's opponent led to a fair and square fight for honest money. The attention of the whole country was centred upon the contest, and the victory for Hayes was universally recognized as the death-knell of inflation, which never afterward was a threatening danger.

The panic of 1893 and the two following years of hard times raised a fresh crop of demagogues, who started a movement for the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. The Democratic President was sound, as the Republican President had been twenty years before, but Senators and Representatives of the dominant party were wrong by as large a majority as that among the Republicans of Grant's second term. The silverites were as confident and overbearing as the inflationists had been in 1875, and some of their opponents were quite as much inclined to compromise with the demagogues. Under these circumstances a State convention was called by the Democrats of Kentucky for the nomination of a ticket and the decision of the party's attitude towards the overshadowing issue. Joe Blackburn, a worthy successor of Bill Allen, took the field as the champion of the financial heresy, full of brag over the easy victory that he was going to have. The sound-money men saw that they must fight or suffer the most ignominious defeat. Kentucky is a State with fine traditions as to the way in which great leaders discuss public questions on the stump before interested audiences. The traditions were well maintained. The ablest Democrats took sides on the question. Secretary Carlisle, the clearest and most forcible speaker on financial questians in the country, assumed the lead of the sound-money men, and the Louisville *Courier-Journal* threw the weight of its great influence on the same side. For weeks the question was canvassed before the people. Before the delegates to the convention were chosen, everybody in the party knew what the controversy was about, and had made up his mind how he stood.

The convention met at Louisville on Tuesday week, and it soon became apparent that the sound-money men had won. The delegates from each congressional district met to choose its member of the most important committee—that on resolutions—and the silver-men could claim only three of the eleven, the others being ranked either as gold-men or as conservatives opposed to free coinage. Blackburn himself was beaten for a place on the committee from his own district. The permanent chairman of the convention named a gold-man and a silver-man as members of the committee at large, giving the silver-men four of the thirteen places. But only two of these four favored the report of a platform declaring for free coinage at 16 to 1, the other two being willing to go no further than to endorse the silver plank in the platform adopted by the Democratic national convention of 1892. The defeat of the silverites was thus rendered most unmistakable and emphatic. The convention itself adopted the report of the great majority of its committee endorsing the sound-money stand of the Administration.

When the last Democratic Congress adjourned on the 4th of March, after flouting and insulting President Cleveland in every possible way, if any prophet had said that within four months a convention of his party in Kentucky, chosen with a view to ratifying or rejecting his financial policy, would give him the most enthusiastic approval by more than a two-thirds majority, such a seer would have been called mad. That is the wonderful thing which has happened. It is not the only event of the kind in Mr. Cleveland's career. On the contrary, it is the recurrence of such events that makes his present triumph more impressive, showing, as it does, that the people are faithful to leaders who have once gained their confidence by an uncompromising adherence to the truth through evil as well as through good report. This victory in Kentucky smashes the silverites *in both parties*, and they know it. Mr. Cleveland more than any other man has done this. By his courage and fortitude he has not merely snuffed out a lot of pestilent demagogues in his own party, such as Blackburn, Bland, Voorhees, Morgan, and Altgeld, but he has dwarfed into relative insignificance a lot of weak-kneed trimmers and traders in the Republican party whose names will readily suggest themselves to the general reader. Furthermore, he has done what to most people, three months ago, was incredible—he has made a Democratic victory next year possible. He has done this by turning the party "about face," preventing it from walking over a precipice for which it was plainly headed. Nothing seemed more likely, prior to the holding of the Memphis convention, than that the whole South would go with a mad rush for silver at 16 to 1, in which case the party would have lost every Northern State east of the Missouri River, together with Delaware, Maryland, and West Virginia, and very likely Kentucky also. Indeed, there is no saying what States they could be sure of.

In ascribing to Mr. Cleveland the foremost place, we do not overlook the services of Mr. Carlisle, Mr. Patterson, and other able and zealous workers. They have fought a glorious battle, and are entitled to second place, but the battle would not have been fought at all but for Mr. Cleveland. We should have gone to silver monometallism two years ago but for him, and we should have wallowed in that mire until we had learned, by dear-bought experience, that a depreciated and fluctuating currency is never anything but a curse, and most of all a curse to the poor. It was Mr. Cleveland's initiative in calling Congress together in 1893 that made it possible to repeal the Sherman act. It was his determination that brought the Democratic Senators "up to the scratch." It was his rejection of compromises that compelled the taking of a vote on the naked question of repeal, without which we should be in a condition very different from the one we are now in, and far less satisfactory. Convalescence will now proceed rapidly, and it will not be restricted to the Democratic party. The Republicans will get some of the benefit. We shall soon discover an improved tone among their leaders. Harrison, Reed, and McKinley will all find it much easier to talk than they did a little while ago, and such newspapers as the *Tribune* will be much bolder than they were. These things, too, will be trophies in Mr. Cleveland's wigwam—scalps in his belt, so to speak. That he may live long to wear them is the earnest wish of the sober-minded American people.

ENGLISH ELECTION PROBABILITIES.

THE interest in this country in the outcome of the general election soon to be held in England is very much less than in either 1886 or 1892. In those years it seemed possible that upon the result of the polling depended a great and permanent change in the political relation of Ireland to Great Britain. Now no one either fears or hopes that a home-rule bill can become a law during the lifetime of the new Parliament. Three years ago there was something very stirring in the part which Mr. Gladstone was taking. The spectacle of an old man of fourscore,

personally conducting with eloquence and fire a desperate contest to right what he and millions of other men in all civilized countries believed to have been a great and continuous national blunder and crime, drew the attention of most English-speaking people to every phase of the struggle. Mr. Gladstone is now out of public life, and has left no successor behind him. Some of the Liberal party look to Lord Rosebery for guidance, others to Sir William Vernon Harcourt, others to Mr. Morley, or to Mr. Asquith, a few, perhaps, to Mr. Labouchere, while a great many, and very possibly the majority, feel themselves to be without any head. Under such circumstances, there is every reason to expect that the Salisbury ministry will win a handsome victory. Indeed, in the light of the results of the by-elections of the last three years, the reported claim of the Unionists that, in the new House of Commons, they will have a majority of eighty, does not seem at all extravagant. It is true that the movement of public opinion since 1892 in their favor does not appear to have been either as uniform or as strong as, during the period from 1886 to 1892, was the current against them. When, however, the results of the by-elections are analyzed in more detail, it becomes plain that if the constituencies in which these elections have been held are fair samples of the others in which no contest has occurred, the Liberals will lose heavily. This is particularly true of the sometime Liberal stronghold of Scotland.

Since 1892 there have been ten contested by-elections in Scottish constituencies. At the general election these places returned nine Liberals and one Unionist. They are now represented by six Liberals and four Unionists. Moreover, the total Unionist poll was about thirty-four hundred greater at the by-elections than in 1892, while the Liberal vote was nine hundred less—an average net Liberal loss of about four hundred and thirty to a constituency. Ten of the sitting Scottish Liberal members of the House were returned in 1892 by majorities of less than four hundred and thirty each. If their seats shall be lost at the approaching election, the Scottish delegation in the next Parliament will be almost equally divided between Liberals and Unionists. Such a result, if it shall come about, will vividly demonstrate the extent of the political revolution which has taken place in Scotland within the last ten years.

In England the Liberal losses have not been relatively so great. Exclusive of the by-elections resulting from the acceptance of office in August, 1892, by the members of the Gladstonian Government, there have been forty-two English seats filled since the general election. These constituencies in 1892 returned twenty-two Liberals and twenty Conservatives. Since then the Unionists have gained six seats, the Gladstonians four, leaving the net Unionist gain two. This ratio of net gain—two seats out of forty-two—if maintained at the general election, will result in the Unionists winning twenty-two seats carried by the Gladstonians in 1894. The division of the total vote polled indicates a more extensive Liberal loss. In the thirty constituencies contested at the by-elections and at the general election of 1892, the net Unionist gain was 6,742, or at the rate of 224 to a constituency. In 1892 there were 38 English constituencies other than these in which by-elections have since been held, each of which returned Liberal members by majorities of less than 224. The Unionist gain in votes polled, therefore, indicates that, in addition to the two seats already gained, 38 more will be won at the coming election. At present the 465 English seats are filled by 193 Liberals, 1 anti-Parnellite, and 271 Unionists. A loss of 38 Liberal seats will make the next English representation stand 155 Liberals, 1 anti-Parnellite, and 309 Unionists.

By-elections have been held in three Welsh constituencies. All of these returned Liberals in 1892, and all of them are still represented by members of that party. Only one of them has been contested, and in it, Montgomeryshire, the Liberal majority has been cut down 590 votes. It is unsafe to rest any conclusion on so narrow a basis. It is probable, however, that the Liberals will lose at least two or three Welsh seats.

The by-elections which have been held have made no change in the strength of the various Irish parties or factions. The Parnellites have made some slight gains in the total vote polled, but these have been very small. It is quite possible that, what with the serious internal dissensions within the ranks of the anti-Parnellites, and the bitter opposition of the followers of Mr. Parnell, the Nationalist strength may in some constituencies be so divided as to give two or three more Irish seats to the Unionists.

If the Liberal and home-rule voters throughout the United Kingdom can be brought to the polls in as relatively large numbers as in the by-elections of the last three years, they will still in all probability lose nearly forty English, a half-score Scottish, two or three Welsh, and a like number of Irish seats, and the Salisbury Government will have in the new Parliament about 375 supporters, as against a total Opposition strength of 295. If the first group of elections shall go heavily against the Liberals, it is probable that, in their present divided and disheartened condition, their demoralization may become great. In such event, the Unionist majority may rise to a much larger figure than the outcome of the by-elections now seems to foreshadow.

HUXLEY'S GREATEST SERVICE.

The services rendered to the cause of natural science by the great man whose death has just occurred, were sufficient to secure him a permanent place in the esteem of posterity. But the nature of these services can be properly appreciated only by men of science, and the world at large must content itself with accepting their verdict. Far better known is Huxley's work in diffusing knowledge of the facts as well as the theories of science among the public. He was one of the first to illustrate what was possible by means of "university extension," as it is now called, and, with the exception of Herbert Spencer, no man of this century —perhaps of any century—did so much to "popularize science" and to set people thinking upon the great principles that lie at the root of all genuine scientific investigation. By his work in this direction he built himself a monument more enduring than bronze.

Splendid as these achievements are, we incline to think that Huxley's greatest work was in the promotion of intellectual honesty. It is impossible for any one not of middle age to understand the feeling toward scientific inquiry which prevailed when Huxley began his public career. It is enough to say that hardly any one, either in England or in America, dared to express freely the conclusions which he reached, after honest and conscientious study, concerning the age of the world or the history of animal life. Not only the clergy, but the great mass of the laity, were suspicious of scientific men as a class, regarding them as prone to infidelity and materialism; and in order to secure a favorable hearing it was necessary for the man of science to begin by announcing that his conclusions would be found to be quite in harmony with the truths of revealed religion. Agassiz was nearly canonized for declaring that men were the children of God, and not the children of apes, and we could mention instances of professors keeping their chairs only by following the example of Galileo.

Now what this meant, as Huxley pointed out, was, according to all recognized standards of truth, nothing short of blasphemy. The common notion, one might almost say the universal notion, about creation, was that of Milton. At the command of the Almighty to bring forth living creatures—

> . . . The earth obeyed, and, straight
> Opening her fertile womb, teemed at a birth
> Innumerous living creatures, perfect forms,
> Limbed and full-grown. . . .
>
> The grassy clods now calved; now half appears
> The tawny lion, pawing to get free
> His hinder parts, then springs as broke from bonds,
> And rampant shakes his brindled mane; the ounce,
> The libbard, and the tiger, as the mole
> Rising, the crumbled earth above them threw
> In hillocks.

These conceptions seem grotesque enough now, but when Huxley began his fighting career they were not grotesque, but sacred. It was sinful to laugh at them, it was infidelity and materialism to question them, and it was flat atheism to reject them. Against the preaching of this doctrine, in the name of religion and morality, Huxley flung himself with his whole

strength. He boldly declared that animals never were created and never could have been created in any such manner as Milton described. He intimated his doubt as to whether a profound acquaintance with the views of the fathers might not disclose the fact that the Miltonic theory was not the orthodox one; but he cared little whether it was orthodox or not, because it was false. His position was stated with admirable clearness by himself:

"The question whether the earth and the immediate progenitors of its present living population were made in six natural days or not, is no longer one upon which two opinions can be held. The fact that it did not so come into being stands upon as sound a basis as any fact of history whatever. It is not true that existing plants and animals came into being within three days of the creation of the earth out of nothing, for it is certain that innumerable generations of other plants and animals lived upon the earth before its present population. And when, Sunday after Sunday, men who profess to be our instructors in righteousness read out the statement, 'In six days the Lord made heaven and earth, the sea, and all that in them is,' in innumerable churches, they are either propagating what they may easily know, and, therefore, are bound to know, to be falsities, or, if they use the words in some non-natural sense, they fall below the moral standard of the much-abused Jesuit."

Needless to say, such plain speaking as this caused much fluttering in theological dove-cotes. Every variety of attempt was made to confuse and obscure the issue, to meet it by general denial or confession and avoidance, and to overwhelm the author of the disturbance with that copiousness of imprecatory eloquence for which theological controversy has been distinguished. It cannot be denied that Huxley revelled in all this. He was not so earnestly devoted to truth in the abstract as not heartily to enjoy rolling a dishonest adversary in the dirt. But he was undeniably sincere, and the issue seemed to him to be of fundamental importance. He declared that the choice between reason and authority, offered to every one as he came to manhood, was like the great question of Elijah, "Will you serve God or Baal?" To choose the service of the Baal of authority was to disqualify one's self for the service of science. And if any one had the courage "to stand alone, face to face with the abyss of the Eternal and Unknowable, let him be content . . . to follow reason and fact in singleness and honesty of purpose, wherever they may lead, in the sure faith that a hell of honest men will, to him, be more endurable than a paradise full of angelic shams."

Again and again Huxley brought back the controversy between "religion and science" to this simple issue of truth and honesty. He was not an atheist nor a materialist. He held that a rational theology might exist. But, he insisted,

"The present antagonism between theology and science does not at all arise from any assumption by the men of science that all theology must necessarily be excluded from science, but simply because they are unable to allow that reason and morality have two weights and two measures, and that the belief in a proposition because authority tells you it is true, or because you wish to believe it, which is a high crime and misdemeanor when the subject-matter of reasoning is of one kind, becomes, under the *alias* of 'faith,' the greatest of all virtues when the subject-matter of reasoning is of another kind."

Such a warfare as this, of course, enlisted many followers, and the noise of the chariots and the horsemen has not yet died away. It can hardly be said that Huxley succeeded in bringing the clergy to admit that the Miltonic account of creation was false, or that they were guilty of immoral conduct in not publicly repudiating it when they had become satisfied that it was mythical. But what he did succeed in doing was to clear the atmosphere from the superstition and bigotry with which it was loaded. He leaves a world in which men of science are free to prosecute their investigations in accordance with reason and in every direction, without being hampered by the necessity of making their results conform to the obsolete dogmas of pharisaical conservatism. To have done much to secure the freedom of thought and freedom of speech now enjoyed by teachers and students is Huxley's permanent claim to the gratitude of the world. But he would have reckoned it a higher glory to be remembered as having accomplished this by bringing men to recognize that unflinching regard for truth is the highest righteousness and the purest religion.

ALASKA REVISITED.—I.

JUNE, 1895.

ABOUT a century ago Baranoff brought some three hundred Aleuts with their little skin boats from the Kadiak region to hunt in the channels of the Alexander archipelago, where sea-otters abounded. The trial proving satisfactory, he established a small colony on the strait extending northward from Sitka Sound to Salisbury Sound. This post or settlement was dedicated to the Archangel Gabriel and committed to his protection. A few years later the savage Tlinkit Indians determined to drive out the intruders upon their hunting-grounds, attacked and plundered the post, killed all the inhabitants except a few who took refuge in the forest, and destroyed the buildings. A Boston trader, Capt. O'Kane, reached the Sound shortly afterward and rescued some of the fugitives. Enticing some of the principal Tlinkit chiefs on board his vessel, under pretence of trading, he made them prisoners and held them for ransom, getting in exchange all the Aleut prisoners and most of the furs which had been taken from the Russian post. Meanwhile, a few Aleuts in their kayaks made their way along the coast to Kadiak, where Baranoff was informed of the massacre. A naval brig, the *Neva*, had just arrived there, and with her help Baranoff determined to punish the Indians and reëstablish the trading-post. The Tlinkits had fortified themselves at a well-chosen point on the Sound, and, as long as their ammunition held out, made a brave defence, finally withdrawing under cover of night, when their powder was exhausted. A new post was established on a small peninsula capable of being better defended, and, since the Archangel Gabriel had not fulfilled the anticipations of his admirers by warding off the native attack, the new post was dedicated to the Archangel Michael in the hope of better results. From this fact, and not (as commonly supposed) from Archangel in Russia, the settlement was colloquially spoken of as New Archangel. Since then it has become better known as Sitka, an Indian name for the bay and the tribe which inhabited its shores.

In 1865 Sitka had become a stockaded town of 2,000 inhabitants, with a village of more than 1,500 Indians outside the walls. It contained a Greek church, a Lutheran chapel, shipyards, warehouses, a foundry where copper and iron castings of moderate size were made, besides barracks, a sawmill, an officers' club-house, and, high above the rest on the original rock, a large structure in which the Governor of the Russian colony had his residence. This, known as the "castle," was defended by a battery and built of squared logs in two stories, with a cupola. The massive timbers of which all the buildings were made gave an air of solidity to the little town. All outer walls were washed with yellow ochre; the roofs, chiefly of metal, were painted red, and among them rose the spire and pale-green bulbous domes of the Greek church. Against a background of steep, snow-tipped mountains, densely clothed with sombre forests of spruce, the effect was very picturesque, and, compared with any other American settlement, quite unique. Outside the walls along the beach was a long row of large Indian houses, low and wide, without windows, built of immense planks painfully hewn out of single logs with stone adzes whose marks could still be distinctly seen. They were entered by small low doors rounded above, so that he who entered must bend to an attitude ill suited to defence. The smoke escaped through a large square hole in the roof; the front of each house was painted with totemic emblems in red ochre; within, the bare earth served as hearth, with raised platforms on either side, while (above) sinew, fish, or meat hung in the smoke to dry. A single house sometimes sheltered 100 persons, for the most part haughty and independent savages, the only touch of visible civilization appearing in the material of their clothing, still cut after aboriginal patterns, and in the gay kerchiefs of the women. Within the stockade, society was a bit of old Russia, with the manners, vices, and sturdy qualities of sailor, peasant, and courtier exemplified within its narrow limits. The needs of the business of the Company made Sitka a busy manufacturing town, in which military discipline was maintained, sentries paced the walks at night, and the sullen Indians beyond the walls were systematically watched.

At present the traveller of those earlier days finds a new Sitka very different from the old. The stockade has gone, though one or two of the old blockhouses are retained as curiosities, more or less decayed. Nearly all the old log buildings are gone, the few that remain being in the last stages of decrepitude, or so covered by weather-boarding as to differ little from the frame buildings which surround them. Castle Rock is no longer surmounted by a building; the old castle, repaired to serve as offices for the Territorial officials, was burned by an incendiary fire not long ago. The town has spread, especially to the southward, and the new buildings are frame structures, some of them neat cottages, but all of the American type. A new building has replaced the old sawmill of the Russians, and a second mill has been set up at the north end of the town; these two represent the present industrial activity of the white inhabitants, and are idle much of the time. Owing to the difficulty in

getting logs out of the forest, it is at present cheaper to buy lumber in Puget Sound and pay the freight on it than to utilize the growing timber of the vicinity of Sitka. The greatest change is in the Indian village. Not a single one of the old aboriginal houses remains as formerly. If the frame is there, it is covered by weather-boarding, pierced by two or even three ranges of glazed windows, with a panelled door of American make, and sometimes a small porch. Much of the wood is bare, but many of the houses are painted, nearly all have chimneys, and several of them have the owner's name on a small signboard. The head chief of the Kla-quan-tan clan has lace curtains in his windows, and the "princess" Thorn, a remarkably shrewd Indian woman, is reported to be worth twenty thousand dollars. The labret has disappeared from the lower lip of the Indian woman, though still she will often turn to the wall as one passes by. Clothing is wholly of civilized manufacture, but the Russian kerchief still holds its own against the bonnet. Even the coyote-like curs which still infest the Indian town show in their coats an occasional mixture of a more civilized breed. The neatest houses are usually those of converted Indians connected with the Presbyterian mission. The graceful canoes cut from a single log are still manufactured, but the modern ones have very generally substituted the oar for the paddle. Many Indians from distant settlements have come to Sitka, and much of their prosperity is due to the demand by tourists for basket-work and carvings of Alaska cedar. These articles are naturally less conscientiously made than those intended for the maker's own use in years gone by, but they are pretty, if less artistic than when the indigenous pigments had not been supplanted by aniline dyes. The manufacture of curios has grown to be an important business, and new carvings may frequently be seen hanging in the smoke of the chimney to give them the tint of age. The characteristic work in silver seems less common than formerly.

Much of the increase of the town is due to the numerous buildings connected with the Presbyterian mission, which maintains schools, a chapel, hospital, and many little cottages for married graduates who desire to keep themselves away from the influences of "Indian town." Those interested in this mission have shown a praiseworthy activity, and have doubtless done much good, though it could hardly be questioned that more effective and more permanent improvement might have been secured by adopting Mr. Duncan's methods, and removing the mission to a distance which would entirely isolate it from the influences of the town.

The existence of Sitka at present seems to depend upon its function as chief port and capital of southeastern Alaska, the tourists, and the mission. There is no business activity, though much is hoped for by those interested in mining property in the vicinity. Operations projected for the present summer will probably show whether these hopes are well founded. Meanwhile, the soft yet stimulating air, the lovely situation of the town behind its miniature archipelago of wooded islets, the serene cone of Edgecumbe (its cup-like crater filled with snow above the radiating lava ridges) in the distance—all combine to give the place a charm which custom does not stale nor memory willingly relinquish.

W. H. D.

BARRAS'S MEMOIRS.—III.*

PARIS, June 19, 1895.

BARRAS is at great pains to prove that the part taken by Bonaparte on the two days of the royalist rising of Vendémiaire was only subordinate; Brune was, under Barras, the commander-in-chief. Still, he is condescending enough to acknowledge that Bonaparte showed, on this occasion, "un coup d'œil militaire assez prompt." He himself presented Bonaparte to the Convention as his successor in the command of the army of Paris.

Bonaparte was at that time introduced by Barras to Mme. Tallien, Mme. de Staël, and others; but "in relations which might have seemed inspired by the love of pleasure, he saw only combinations which might lead up to something: his amiability had always a political and personal object." Bonaparte was a Corsican, and the Corsicans have very clannish feelings; his family was large, and, having been forced to leave Corsica, was in very straitened circumstances. Barras takes a mean pleasure in entering into all sorts of details concerning the humble condition of Bonaparte's brothers and sisters, at the time when Bonaparte was beginning to be known, and was making great efforts to obtain a high command.

"Bonaparte," he says, "spoke to me of the miserable position of his mother and sister at Marseilles. . . . I wrote to the Commissaire of the Department of the Bouches du Rhône to give Bonaparte's mother the most necessary articles of furniture, which might be taken for a time from the Government magazines. The mother and the young ladies, fed by the *commandant de place*—that is to say, by the Republic—received, therefore, more decent furniture from the Republic; but their conduct was not reformed, and continued to deserve the just criticisms of the scrupulous Marseillaises. The daughters of the Bonaparte family were considered to have so little morality that they were several times excepted from invitations to balls, notwithstanding the endeavors of their friends."

This idle gossip ought not to have a place in historical memoirs. What does it matter if Lucien had to make a living as a *garde-magasin* at Saint-Maximin; if, living in the house of the innkeeper Boyer, he married his daughter; if his uncle Fesch was employed in the subsistence department at Albenga; if Lucien and Fesch became, the one *commissaire des guerres*, the other army contractor; if Joseph married the daughter of a soap-manufacturer, etc., etc.?

The Directory, composed of five members, among whom was Barras, and the two legislative Councils, the Cinq-Cents and the Anciens, replaced the Convention. Rewbell was the first President of the Directory. "The Directory, on arriving at the Luxembourg," says Barras, who confirms on this point the Memoirs of Larevellière-Lépeaux, "had not a guard, nor a domestic, nor a table, nor a chair." Barras compares it to young Hercules, and indulges in interesting details about the daily work of the five men who had in their hands all the executive power of a country engaged in great wars, and proceeding to an entire reorganization of its own administration. Bonaparte was military governor of Paris, and, as such, he could enter the Directory at every hour of the day or night. He did not conceal his desire to have the command of an army. "I am very young," said he, "but Gen. Hoche is not much older than I am." He had become acquainted at the Luxembourg with the widow Beauharnais, of whom Barras says, "She was thought to have some influence with me; some people thought she had been my mistress, others that she was still so. What was certain was that she had been, to everybody's knowledge, the mistress of Gen. Hoche *e di tutti quanti*." If we can believe Barras, Mme. Beauharnais tried to induce Hoche to divorce his own wife; but he refused, and became in the end disgusted with her, to the point of saying, "As for Rose [the name he gave her], I leave her to Vanaker [an Alsatian soldier who kept the horses of the General]." Hoche was so ashamed of Mme. Beauharnais that he excused himself by saying, "It is necessary to have been in prison with her, before the 9th Thermidor, to know her so intimately; it would not be pardonable for a man at liberty."

Barras speaks somewhere of "French chivalry." I leave the reader of his memoirs to judge what sort of a knight he was. M. Frédéric Masson, who wrote an interesting volume on the 'Femmes de Napoléon,' is just now engaged in writing articles in the *Revue de Paris* on Josephine and her family; he gives cruel but authentic particulars regarding the La Pageries, Gen. Beauharnais, and Josephine. Barras had not the same rights as the modern historian, and, having received what are called the favors of Josephine, he was bound to give her at least the benefit of his silence. Far from doing so, he takes a fiendish pleasure in abusing her; he spares no details, and some of them are loathsome. With all the faults which he describes, Mme. Beauharnais inspired a great passion in Gen. Bonaparte. Barras would have it that there was nothing but ambition in his sentiments; that Bonaparte saw in Josephine merely an instrument for his designs; that he hoped to obtain by her influence the command of an army. There is much complexity in any human being; surely, Bonaparte was ambitious, but his correspondence, published under the Second Empire, showed that he felt for Josephine, when he married, an almost wild passion. The "petit général," as she called him, had, for a moment at least, fallen under the sway of the little god of whom a poet has justly said:

"Qui que tu sois, voici ton maître;
Il l'est, le fut, ou le doit être."

The pages in the second volume of the memoirs of Barras which relate to the marriage of Bonaparte and Josephine read more like a libertine novel of the end of the eighteenth century than like a chapter of history, and some parts of the manuscript have been replaced by dots. The editor writes, in a footnote: "The coarseness of the terms used in this passage is such that, although I have allowed Barras to express clearly enough his thought, I have been obliged, out of respect for the reader, to suppress some lines." The writer of the pages I refer to was evidently devoid of moral sense and of all delicacy of feeling. The only excuse which Barras finds is this: "If the account of the particular facts which I have just revealed appears a little indiscreet, in accordance with our French manners with regard to women, I might justify myself by saying that I have revealed nothing which was not already known to all the contemporary historians."

The Revolution found Bonaparte sub-lieutenant of artillery. Barras considers him as his creation, since he obtained for him the command of the army of Italy. Bonaparte was appointed general-in-chief of that army on the 14th Ventôse, year iv. The 19th of the same month (corresponding to the 9th of March, 1796), he was married to Mme. de Beauharnais

*'Memoirs of Barras, Member of the Directorate,' Volumes I. and II. Harper & Brothers. 1895.

at the mairie of the second arrondissement of Paris.

"During the twelve days Bonaparte had still to spend in the capital, I do him the justice to say that his honeymoon did not seem to absorb his time. He was occupied in tormenting the Directory, the ministers, in order to get more men, money, clothes. They gave him all that it is possible to imagine, and much more than the feeble means of the Republic allowed. After he had obtained everything, he still asked for more and continually complained, and went away saying with ill-humor: 'Since they refuse me everything, I must do without. I will now ask the enemy; I will find means to make him more generous.'"

Bonaparte was not long in proving that he was worthy of the command given to him. Barras's notes on the subject are uncommonly short and dry: "Victory of the army of Italy. Great defeat for the Austrian and Piedmontese army at Millesimo. They lost ten thousand five hundred men, their guns, flags, baggage, General Colli, the commander-in-chief of the Piedmontese army, Provera, commander of the Austrians. The latter general is prisoner of war with his troops."

About this time Mme. de Staël presented to Barras Benjamin Constant, as the author of a pamphlet entitled 'Of the strength of the present Government of France and of the necessity of rallying to it.' "I will not decide," says Barras, "which of the two brought the other—which was the man and which was the woman; for, whatever calumny may have said, I protest here, to the honor of Mme. de Staël, that I never knew really to what sex Mme. de Staël belonged. The virility of her figure, her face, her countenance, her manner of dressing, the strength of her intellectual conceptions, her vigor and exuberant energy, would rather have led me to think she belonged to our sex, if she had not given undoubted proofs of her own by various acts of maternity." As for Benjamin Constant: "the protégé of Mme. de Staël was a large young man of awkward, almost silly appearance—I think not purposely so in order to make a contrast with his *esprit* when it shone. Hair nearly red, small eyes which would have seemed red also if they had not been covered with spectacles, a thin, ironical mouth, which seemed to laugh at everything, and which tried to look even more ironical—such was Benjamin Constant at the age of twenty-five."

As soon as Bonaparte had arrived in Italy, he organized a political police. He called the attention of the Directory to the presence of Louis XVIII. in the Venetian states. Here are some of the details which were, by his care, transmitted to the Directory concerning the private life of Louis XVIII. at Verona:

"At eight o'clock in the morning he was dressed, with the insignia of his orders, and his sword at his side. He spent the greater part of the morning in writing, and was then visible only to his Chancellor. His repasts were frugal. After dinner, he gave a limited number of audiences, then shut himself up. One heard him sometimes walking in great agitation. Towards evening he was calmer, and, with some of his courtiers, listened to reading. He never went out, made no visits, either at Verona or in the neighborhood. He read carefully the *Moniteur* and the most important French papers. He always bore the name of Count de Lille, and when an *émigré* gave him the title of Majesty he heaved a profound sigh."

The presence of the French troops in Northern Italy obliged Louis XVIII. to leave Verona. He started alone, with Count d'Avaray and two servants, on the road to Switzerland, and afterwards joined the little army of Condé. This army had become merely nominal. "However, in order to do honor to the King, the remaining soldiers dressed in the uniforms of their regiments. One saw regiments of fifteen, of ten, even of four men. Louis XVIII. reviewed them with his solemn gravity. 'Sire, there is your regiment of Auvergne,' said as seriously the Prince of Condé. 'There is your regiment of Champagne, your Crown regiment, your regiment of Languedoc.'"

Bonaparte's great victories in Italy gave to the Government of the Directory a prestige which it could not have obtained otherwise. The Directors were divided among themselves; their ministers were almost unknown men, taken from the political residuum of the Revolutionary period. The enemies of the Revolution conspired incessantly, and the intrigues of the parties in the two chambers rendered the task of the Directory very arduous. There were still two princes of the royal family in France, namely, the young brothers of Louis-Philippe of Orleans; they had been kept in prison at Marseilles. The Directory decided to send these two princes to America. The Directory was as much alarmed as it was pleased by the triumphs of Bonaparte in Italy. The young general had by degrees assumed an almost regal dignity in upper Italy, and it seemed as if the fate of two countries was in his hands. The Directory had to defend itself against the anarchists on one side and the royalists on the other. During these inglorious struggles, Bonaparte was gaining victory after victory, and his successes more than counterbalanced the reverses which were suffered by the armies of Sambre-et-Meuse and of the Rhine.

Correspondence.

BICYCLE VERSUS HORSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your suggestion in No. 1564 that the bicycle may become of service in scouting is best answered by the following incidents which happened to the writer. Lost one summer in the mountains of West Virginia, a mountaineer's hut was sought and the demand made that I be taken as directly as possible to the railway. The only horse was brought, a farm-horse, and the writer was placed upon him together with several yards of heavy chain, this latter for a certain purpose en route. The owner walked beside, but as my holding of the reins was not very satisfactory, he got on too. It was then learned that the proper way was to throw the reins on the horse's neck and let him take his own course. At a rapid walk he went directly down the mountain-side with only a forest trail to direct him. It had been storming, and the slippery moss, rocks, and mud on the steep decline terrified one rider, but not the other, to whom this was the most natural, in fact the only, means of travel. Wet trunks of fallen trees across the way offered no hindrance to the beast, who clambered over them; neither did the tops of those trees, for he walked right through them, the two riders lying down to escape being scraped off. A wide and swollen ford was reached, and here lying down was again necessary to keep out of the water, which was belly-deep, while the horse floundered around (successfully) over the angular and moss-covered rocks of the bed, some of them the size of tables. The farther shore was thickly strewn with wet saw-logs, which were "shinned over" in the same manner by the overloaded beast. At the end of my journey the same affection was felt for the beast that is felt for one's ship which has weathered the storm, but in higher degree, for the inanimate object can never excite the same warmth of feeling as the living. Where would a detachment of military wheelmen with their "swiftness" have been when no bicycle could have been carried, much less ridden, one step of the way? Certainly worse than "nowhere." And it is important to add that every foot of our route was under the fire of neighboring batteries during the last war.

That the horse "as an instrument of pleasure" has been laid aside, is wholly incorrect; few people who have tried it will exchange the feel of moving muscles under them, the independent will, the companionship of a live and intelligent animal, for a dull machine of steel and rubber. It is as a cheap *convenience* (on city and suburban streets) that the bicycle succeeds. As a pleasure and luxury the horse is in no manner approached by the bicycle, and, like all luxuries, it is costly and troublesome. The incomparable superiority of the wheel claimed by its devotees must receive a strain sometimes when they are engaged in laboriously wading and pushing their machines through merely moderate mud or gravel, and the horseman, high in the air, lightly passes them at a lope willingly taken by the mount and kept up for miles. Indeed, hard roads with but an inch of dust on them, called fine for riding or driving, have been pointed out by wheelmen as difficult.

In saying that the horse has been laid aside, you show further that you share the general assumption that all wheelmen formerly have been horsemen. Nothing could be further from the truth, for their ranks are filled largely by people who have been acquainted with no exercise, and who, in finding wheeling agreeable, in their ignorance assume that wheeling must then be the acme of bodily pleasure. It is in this line, indeed, that the wheel has shown its chief merit, in introducing thousands to the pleasures and benefits of exercise and fresh air who otherwise would remain in complete ignorance of these. The cyclist's aggravating ignorance of the "road," studied or real, is to be explained in the same manner—that he is practically never a person who has had previous contact with horses.

The æsthetics of the question must not be forgotten. One with any appreciation of physical beauty must turn his face away at the sight of even a fine man on a bicycle; the position, with knees near the chest and shoulders and neck forward, is essentially effeminate in the best riders, whereas an ugly man looks his best or even better astride even an ordinary horse. The city or country teamster and his horses (as he rides them to their lodging) often make a charming picture of unconscious grace and vigor all unaided by clothing, trappings, or schooling, and in what contrast to the costliest wheel and rider! The correspondent of the *Evening Post* must have a "virulent" heart indeed to find the animal which all literatures for many centuries have lavishly praised as willing and patient, "stupid, vicious, silly, obstinate, tricky," and worse. Surely he has lacked that saving factor in a liberal education, the above-mentioned contact with horses.

But horsemanship, as you say, will remain, as the violin and piano remain, in spite of many cheap and easy mechanical substitutes; and the figures which writhe around our streets can no more acquire nor comprehend the art than a lackey can a concerto. J. C. R., jr.

Dayton, O.

MAN AND BEAST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondents who find many blemishes in the horse and the dog might, if they would turn their powers of observation on the genus homo, discern as many reasons for disliking their own kind. To point out human faults, too, would serve a more useful purpose surely, for while the poor brutes cannot very well change their natures, and are, all things considered, more in need of kind words from humane against heartless masters of creation, offensive mankind are generally so from choice, and are all the better for as much correction as their fellows can bestow upon them. The man, for instance, who deliberately makes a beast of himself with liquor, is at least as loathsome as the nastiest animal of the lower order he makes himself resemble; the creature with a soul who never touches water, renders himself more obnoxious than the irresponsible creature that is a nuisance in obedience to instinct. Is the dog which returns to its vomit, and clears away the disgusting object, as detrimental to our comfort as the man who expectorates along our thoroughfares; or at least would it be so if the former spectacle were as common as the latter? Is the disagreeable canine habit on which your defamer of the dog lays stress so careless of public decency as the orgies which, before the police were reformed, were to be seen at almost every street corner in New York among men and women? And what do we do with dogs that are guilty of improprieties as gross as that of scattering tobacco-juice wherever they happen to be? We keep them out of conveyances and other places that might be soiled by their acts. Yelping dogs, too, are bad; are they worse or more numerous than shouting human beings? We bipeds should need to be a good deal more nearly perfect ourselves to be qualified as critics of our four-legged slaves.—Yours truly,

G. F. Johnson.

New York, June 27, 1895.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer stood and watched the burning of a livery stable, some months ago, in which more than one hundred horses were consumed, thanks to the fact that they were all kept up stairs. The only loss of human life was in the case of one faithful groom who made a desperate effort to save a horse of which he and its owner were especially fond. This is only one instance of a peculiar friendship which often grows up between individual horses and human beings—a friendship which is generally in proportion to the development of what we recognize as the better qualities of the horse and certain, also, of the better qualities of the man.

On the other hand, in many of the callings into which the horse has been pressed, he has been "found out," or perhaps it would be fairer to say that, after stumbling around for many ages, we have at last hit upon better agents for many operations into which the horse did not thrust himself of his own motion, but was dragged through our own failure to perceive any better arrangement. In the same way we have "found out" almost everything else during these generations of modern experiment. My neighbor's back lot is full of little chickens, hundreds of them, but I hear nothing of the motherly clucking which would have greeted my ears a few years ago. *The old hen has been found out.* In numberless cases man has found *himself* out, as witness the many operations of machinery which were performed by the human hand within the memory of us all.

We can only say of the horse, then, that the sphere of his participation in human affairs is for ever narrowed, but his capacity for nobleness and usefulness, within fitting limits, is too evident ever to admit of his absolute dismissal from our service or our affections.

> "No, children, he shall not be sold;
> Go, lead him home and dry your tears,"

may still be included in our school readers, with certainty that the time will not come when it will fail to strike an answering chord—and a chord which it is well to have struck—in the breast of a goodly share of American school-children.

And now as to the dog: If your recent correspondent had drawn a faithful picture of the Digger Indian, and, on this basis, condemned the human race, his logic would have been scarcely more at fault than in his condemnation of the dog as such upon the basis of such dogs as seem to have fallen exclusively within his acquaintance. It would be safe to do this with herring, buzzards, polecats, and many other living creatures, but not with the dog, which has manifested in widely differing countries and periods, under favorable conditions, a capacity for a high degree of civilization. Many of us have seen him rise above all the grosser faults which Mr. Arnold has laid to his charge, and acquire a positive politeness, a deference to authority, and a modest reticence from which many a man or woman who moves unchallenged in the circles of good society, might well take lessons. I am not informed that the professional watch-dog has ever deteriorated under political influences to such a degree as the Tammany policeman, and the many well-authenticated cases of his self-sacrificing and effective efforts for the safety of his master or his master's children in time of peril need no recounting here. Then, too, many of the more highly civilized dogs are great lovers of fun, and capable of affording a great deal of amusement. True, their fun may cost you a pair of overshoes, or something else of the kind, once in a while, but, on the whole, it is cheaper than the "practical joke" nuisance of the smart boy.

Let us not be in too great haste, then, to condemn our old friends among the domestic animals, but let us give them due credit for the progress which they have made since coming into contact with human civilization, remembering that the most of them have been condemned to associate with the less cultured among us, and remembering, too, that we ourselves have not lost all traces of the mire of the pit whence we were digged.

W. H. Johnson.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Now that the dog and the horse have been touched up in the columns of your veracious journal, it seems no more than fair to animadvert on another pest to human kind—one that has caused more misery and rendered less service than either of the above-mentioned animals—I refer to the young child. Unlike either the horse or dog, he subserves no useful purpose; his manners in the natural state are execrable, and he is not even a safe ornament. He revels in dirt, and is subject to many and unreasoning fears. Even when treated most indulgently, he is most disagreeable; he is no respecter of persons or of the rights of others; his approach is a source of well-merited apprehension to strangers and friends. Ages of familiarity with mankind have not taught him, any more than the horse, not to accept hot biscuits and slabs of plum-cake offered him by foolish masters and mistresses. The fact, too, that he is extraordinarily difficult to use and to manage, far from causing complaint, has simply developed an art which, in some parts of this country, is held in great honor, but thus far has not brought much profit to its possessors: I refer to that much-to-be-commiserated class of laborers known as pedagogues. Unlike the horse, whose size and peculiarities of digestion have made his close association with mankind impossible, the child's peculiarities of digestion are well known and much deplored by the more cultivated portion of the human species. It is, perhaps, in the fact of his close contact with the rest of the human race that his particular obnoxiousness lies, for, unlike the horse or dog, he will not keep a civil distance, but persists in crawling over one with clammy, dirty hands and feet, often covered with perspiration and cockle-burrs. In the small hours he outdoes the dog in untimely vocal exercises. Now there is something refreshingly primitive in the dog's crunching a bone in his secure retreat, and to watch one's favorite horse nibble grass with his ears cocked for possible danger and his eyes on every leaf that stirs, is a sight at once restful and inspiring; but to listen to a young child sucking in his soup, slobbering over a bone, or champing at his bread, gurgling wind, and audibly grunting—this is enough to drive one to strong drink. The singular and banal inappositeness of his remarks at table has been often lamented.

The progress of the useful arts may finally relieve us of the horse, and the dog may be eliminated from refined society in generations to come; but it is high time that a correct diagnosis be made of the evils that mankind has to suffer from the apparently inevitable youthful savage. And it is a painful fact that the brutality, greed, ingratitude, cruelty, peevishness, and lack of self-respect that characterize mankind in its earlier stages, do not wholly disappear in later stages of development. The young child has almost all the dirty habits of the dog, only we take care not to let him exercise them, and, like a horse, he certainly is unreasoning in a panic in his early years. Any one who has watched the heedless cruelty with which a child will twist a kitten's leg, the serene imperturbability with which it inflicts torment on weaker animals, will hardly find a parallel in the horse or dog. The horse is often overloaded, beaten, kicked in the belly, his ears filled with sand, even his eyes gouged out in a frenzy of rage by his vastly less civilized master—what blame if his offspring have faults? Confessedly among the Arabs these faults do not exist in either master or horse; is it too much to say that the faults of these lower animals are but the reflection and survivals of our own brutish instincts?

E. L. Morse.

Chicago, June 28, 1895.

"RESPECTABLE."

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: To attempt treatment of this word after the exhaustive manner of Dr. Murray would be an undertaking attended with certainty of failure. At the same time, on looking over materials lying before me, I find that a much more satisfactory account can be given of it than any hitherto offered.

In the Low Latin of the thirteenth century occurs *respectabilis*, explained by "cui reverentia debetur."

As to *respectable* in French, on the credit of M. Lorédan Larchey, in his *Les Excentricités du Langage*, it was noted, in 1693, as an innovation. More definitely, the assertion has been ventured that it first appeared in Racine's *Ester*, 1689. Yet the lexicographer Cotgrave, in 1611, records the word as French and also as English.

Mainly as a curiosity, I transcribe part of a passage from Richard Verstegan, in which *respectable* has the very rare signification of "observable," "noticeable."

"And it is also *respectable* that the most ancient Germans, beeing pagans, and hauing apropriated their first day of the week to the peculier adoration of the Sun, . . . ordayned the next day to thease two most imminent heauenly planets," etc. *A Restitution of Decayed Intelligence* (ed. 1605), p. 10.

It was not till his *Dictionary* had gone through several editions that Dr. Johnson recognized *respectable*, which, though he does not illustrate it, he defines by "venerable; meriting respect." Retaining these definitions, Archdeacon Todd appends to them a single quotation, taken from a pamphlet by Burke, one of the latest of his writings, dated in 1796. Dr. Latham, revising and professedly amplifying Johnson and Todd, still has only the quotation from Burke, prefixing to it the definitions, "deserving, commanding respect; decorous." Dr. Richardson knows, for *respectable*, no authority but a work by Dr. Thomas Cogan published in 1802.

In advance on their forerunners, recent lexicographers do little further, as regards *respectable*, than give a string of its present and former acceptations, with quotations exemplifying one or two of the most usual among the latter. Nor do these lexicographers, any more than those who preceded them, furnish the least information about the approximate period when the term began to be current in literature, or about the uses of it which have become obsolete. On these points new light will be seen to be thrown by the subjoined citations, selected from fewer than half of what I have collected:

"A very candid and *respectable* author, speaking of the ancient restraints on free-thinking, says," etc. Bp. W. Warburton (1738), *Works* (ed. 1811), vol. i., p. 160. "His lordship, . . . in his *respectable* character of a Nobleman, a Statesman, and a Philosopher," etc. *Id.* (1755), *ibid.*, vol. xii., p. 85. And in vol. xii., pp. 191, 197 (1755).

"We can never make ourselves too *respectable* in the eyes of those we love." Anon., *Memoirs of Lady Harriot Butler* (1741), vol. i., p. 123.

"A Suit is commenced, in the spiritual Court, against a certain Lord. It will be insolent, though, to meddle with such *respectable* Characters." Arthur Murphy, *Gray's-Inn Journal* (1752), No. xi.

"Henry the Second . . . became a slave to the *respectable* attractions of Diana de Poitiers." Horace Walpole (1753), in *The World*, No. xxviii.

"I shall always be solicitous to procure the esteem of so *respectable* a body as the Connoisseurs." Coleman and Thornton (1754), *The Connoisseur*, No. ii.

"His private Character is not less *respectable* than his public." Bp. R. Hurd (1755), in *Tracts by Warburton*, etc. (1789), p. 217. "The ancient writers . . . how *respectable* soever, are no decisive Authority, indeed no Authority at all, in the present Case." *Id.* (1764), *ibid.*, p. 262.

"Wisdom, gravity, experience . . . we expect to find in fulness of years; and these make its wrinkles not only *respectable*, but even lovely." Mrs. Charlotte Lennox, *Henrietta* (1758), vol. i., p. 124 (ed. 1761). And in vol. ii., p. 260.

"He was all on fire for the honour of representing so *respectable* a place in parliament." George Colman, *The Genius* (1761), No. ix. "The Auditor is by far the most *respectable* character . . . of the two." *Id.* (1763), *Prose on Several Occasions* (1787), vol. ii., p. 35. "I represent the inhabitants of a most *respectable* city in the West of England." *Id.* (1764), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 45.

"Thus as he [Henry VII.] grew just in his own dominions, he became *respectable* abroad." Goldsmith, *Hist. of England in Letters* (1764), vol. i., p. 214 (ed. 1772).

"My accursed head . . . should have been laid low, and not this of the most *respectable* of women." Mrs. Frances Sheridan (before 1766), *Memoirs of Miss Sidney Bidulph* (ed. 1767), vol. v., p. 296.

"My ever *respectable* Aunt." Anon., *The Woman of Honor* (1768), vol. i., p. 205. "In short, she is a very worthy *respectable* woman." *Ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 218.

"It moves me to indignation, that two *respectable* nations [England and Spain], naturally made for friends," etc. James Harris (1770), in *Letters of the First Earl of Malmesbury*, etc. (1870), vol. i., p. 208. "Their address . . . was signed by all the *respectable* names of the county." *Id.* (1775), *ibid.*, vol. i., p. 330. "We were never in so *respectable* a state, in such a situation, I mean at the beginning of a war." *Id.* (1778), *ibid.*, vol. i., p. 382. "The works he has sent me . . . will be a very *respectable* addition to my library." *Id.* (1780), *ibid.*, vol. i., p. 454. "Bede, called 'the venerable,' from his *respectable* character, was an Englishman." *Id.* (1780), *Works* (ed. 1841), p. 497.

"The Apostles . . . we are expressly told in Scripture . . . had no such *respectable* appearance." Sir Joshua Reynolds, *Fourth Discourse* (1771). "In direct defiance of the most *respectable* opinions received amongst mankind." *Id.*, *Seventh Discourse* (1776). "The strongest proof of his [Majesty's] desire to make the [Royal] Academy *respectable*." *Id.*, *Ninth Discourse* (1780).

"Your conduct was always irreproachable, and, when called to the exercise of more extensive duties, must be *respectable*." *Test of Filial Duty* (1772), vol. ii., p. 226.

"I believe I have a pair of *respectable* metal buckles in the house, too." S. J. Pratt, *Liberal Opinions* (1775, etc.), vol. ii., p. 154 (ed. 1783). "It will not . . . inspire them with any *respectable* ideas of my understanding." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. iii., p. 126. "This will render the veteran *respectable* amongst his domestics." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. iv., p. 280.

"A *respectable* quantity of the aforesaid difficulty." *Id.*, *Emma Corbett* (1781), vol. i., p. 135. "A *respectable* contusion." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 44.

"The hospitable and *respectable* Lady Howard." Miss Frances Burney, *Evelina* (1778), ch. xxxix.

"As a moralist, Dr. Johnson was *respectable*, splendid, sublime." Miss Anna Seward (1785), in Dr. R. Anderson's *Life of Samuel Johnson* (1795), p. 301.

"A most *respectable* list it is, I assure you." Dr. John Trusler, *Modern Times* (1785), vol. i., p. 143. "A virtuous soldier is the most *respectable* character in life." "A *respectable* majority was to be carried upon every motion." *Id.*, *ibid.*, vol. iii., pp. 162, 226.

"My Cousin, Obadiah Project, Esq., formerly a *respectable* Deputy of Farringdon Ward Within." Rev. Henry Kett, in *Olla Podrida*, No. xlii. (1787).

"Her mother, the effigy of goodness, sat in our cheerful circle, and rendered it, by her presence, not a little *respectable*." *Generous Attachment* (1787), vol. iv., p. 219.

"If more *respectable* opinions than mine are still to prevail, they will not be the less *respectable* for being consistent." Jeremy Bentham, *Defence of Usury* (1787), p. 86 (ed. 1816). And in p. 183.

"Cast me not off, disclaim me not, oh, my *respectable* parent!" Lady Hawke, *Julia de Gramont* (1788), vol. ii., p. 8.

"He sent us to the most *respectable* schools he could select." *The Trifler* (1788), p. 140. And in pp. 143, 269.

"A far more powerful and far more *respectable* Writer." Rev. Dr. Samuel Parr (1788) in *Tracts by Warburton*, etc. (1789), p. 182. "I yesterday came to the parsonage of my most *respectable* friend, Mr. Maltby, at Buckden." *Id.* (1802), in Field's *Memoirs of Parr* (1828), vol. i., p. 431.

"I bade a mournful adieu to my charming Honoria and her *respectable* father." Anon., *Norman and Bertha* (1790), vol. ii., p. 188.

"His character, high in arms, and *respectable* for virtues, was thought an additional honour to the party." "He . . . painted her in the most amiable as well as the most *respectable* colours." Anon., *The Minstrel* (1792), vol. i., p. 64; vol. ii., p. 204 (1793).

"His father was a bishop of *respectable* character." Mrs. Eliza Parsons, *Woman as she should be* (1793), vol. i., p. 154.

"Oh, most *respectable* of women!" *The Devil in Love* (1793), p. 126. And in p. 167.

"A young man of two-and-twenty . . . who owes all his knowledge to himself, is, so far, a *respectable* character." "Send us whole essays, hints, good things, etc., etc., and they shall cut a most *respectable* figure." Robert Southey (1793 and 1795), in *Life and Correspondence* (1849), vol. i., pp. 195, 231.

"In 1761, by the interest of his near relation and very *respectable* friend, the late Edward Hooper, esq., of Hurn Court in Hampshire, my father was chosen one of the representatives in parliament for the borough of Christ Church." First Earl of Malmesbury (1801), in *Works of James Harris* (ed. 1841), p. vii.

"Clementina will hasten to pay funeral honours to the most *respectable* of fathers." *Victor* (1802), vol. iv., p. 344.

"In the portrait which you have drawn of the *respectable* Madame Valbona I behold the resemblance of her interesting daughter." *Zoflora* (1804), vol. i., p. 199.

"Nor would the painter fail to give a conspicuous place to the *respectable* sister Bignan, the present superior of those devoted females." *Paris Chit-chat* (1815), vol. ii., p. 174 (ed. 1816).

Several conclusions may, with some degree of confidence, be drawn from these premisses.

In the first place, down to 1750, *respectable* seldom figured in the vocabulary of any author. From shortly after that time, however, it rapidly grew into favour.

Secondly, some of its senses, including the higher, which were once very prevalent, have been laid aside since the early years of this century, or still sooner; and it would now seem to be Gallicizing to make it synonymous with, for instance, "venerable," "honourable," "dignified," "eminent," or "estimable."

Thirdly, all the various meanings and shades of meaning which it bears at present were acquired within a generation after its permanent establishment in our language.

To turn to its historical derivation, no less legitimately is it developable from our verb *respect* than from the French verb *respecter;* and the writers who originally brought it forward evince no consciousness that they consider it as an importation from abroad. No ground is there, consequently, for the view that it began, in English, as a Gallicism.

Respectableness and *respectably* were first registered by Archdeacon Todd, and not, as Dr. Worcester states, by Dr. Johnson. For the adverb I have quotations dated in 1775, 1785, 1801, 1802, 1807, and 1808. *Respectability* I have traced to 1785 and 1788; but a contributor to *Notes and Queries* for February 3, 1894, points out that the handsel of it was as good as claimed by R. Lewis in 1778. Like Shakespeare's *of respect* is Robert Gentilis's *respectful;* the two being comparable with *of worship* and *worshipful:* "Alcibiades . . . strives to become great, and make himselfe *respectfull*, by contending with great ones." *Considerations*, etc. (1650), p. 64. Following *unrespectable* has come up *disrespectable*, used by Sir Walter Scott, De Quincey, Carlyle, and others; and Sir Walter Scott and Thackeray have *disrespectability*.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, May 10, 1895.

Notes.

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT will shortly issue 'Game Birds at Home,' by Theodore S. Van Dyke.

Ginn & Co. will have ready during the summer 'The Philosophy of School Management,' by Arnold Tompkins.

Mr. Edward Arnold, publisher to the India Office, London, will open in the autumn a branch house at 70 Fifth Avenue, New York. He is about to publish 'The Land of the Nile Springs,' by Col. Colvile, with many illustrations, and Prof. Walter Raleigh's recent address at the Royal Institution on Robert Louis Stevenson.

'A Holiday in Spain and Norway,' by Mrs. Caroline Earle White, is in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

Prof. Preston's 'Theory of Light' (Macmillan) has just passed into a second edition, thoroughly revised and decidedly augmented, and to our previous hearty praise of it we can now add that the defect we pointed out in the author's original neglect of Prof. Newcomb's experiments to determine the velocity of light has been conspicuously repaired.

Dr. and Mrs. Percy Frankland are joint authors of 'Micro-Organisms in Water' (Longmans), and their scientific reputation is a guarantee of the excellence of their work. It is a complete treatise on bacteriological investigation with reference to water, and is full of interesting and instructive information. The bacteriological chemist will find it a reservoir of knowledge direct and indirect, and its style and matter will attract intelligence that is not specialized. The chapter on the action of light on micro-organisms is the latest announcement in that branch of knowledge, and the conclusion is reached that while there has been a tendency to magnify the bactericidal influence of light, direct but not diffused sunlight does have a marked deleterious effect upon many forms. But unfortunately not all pathogenic bacteria are readily responsive, and the evidence is contradictory as to the defensive power of moderate layers of water against the sun's action upon these lower varieties. Probably the sunlight of the north is less powerful than that of the lower latitudes. The authors have fallen into an unimportant and once current error (p. 154) in supposing that in the Hamburg cholera epidemic of 1892 there was a hard-and-fast line along a particular street, separating two distinct water-supplies brought from the Elbe, over which the disease did not pass. That particular statement cannot be substantiated, but the vital fact remains that Hamburg, drinking untreated but comparatively pure water, suffered fearfully from cholera, while Altona, taking water polluted with the sewage of the great city of Hamburg, but filtered again and again through sand, was very lightly smitten. The experiments of the Massachusetts Board of Health are fully quoted as "a classical piece of work"; but were it not for the context one might not recognize in the city of St. Lawrence (p. 161) the manufacturing town on the lower Merrimack.

Dr. Anna M. Galbraith's 'Hygiene and Physical Culture for Woman' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a copiously illustrated, non-indexed book designed to assist "in the emancipation of her sex from the bondage of invalidism." The motive is laudable and the method is sometimes amusing. The statement (p. 95) that "during the month of August the temperature of the ocean reaches its maximum of 66.65 degrees F.;" is not of universal application. The Jersey coast, to say nothing of lower latitudes, dissents. "On no account must one enter the water when in a perspiration; let her first take a moderate walk along the shore until the perspiration has abated" (p. 97). If she does, she will almost certainly catch cold; whereas if she goes perspiring never so freely into water of reasonable temperature and *swims*, she will be safe. The distinction between bathing and swimming it is important constantly to bear in mind. Dr. Galbraith commends bicycling for women, and quotes the general rule for either sex that to open the mouth to breathe is a sign that the heart or the lungs are taxed. Within that limit bicycling is not only safe but serviceable. She clearly explains the apparent inconsistency of condemning the sewing-machine and approving the wheel.

In a note of transmittal, the publishers (William Wood & Co.) of 'Health Notes for Young Wives,' by Aimée Raymond Schroeder, M.D., naïvely suggest that "it might hardly be considered as suitable for a wedding present." That is eminently true, unless we keep the brutal coarseness of the English Church's marriage service too constantly in mind. This little book, by a very competent physician of their own sex, appears to us to introduce much that may uselessly alarm the timid, and to confuse the functions of the nurse with those of the patient. As a matter of taste, we do not think it would occur to a male physician of refinement to quote the incident noted on p. 134, which is certainly out of place, if it is not to be regarded as indelicate. Chapter ix. should be omitted outright, and about one-fourth of the remainder might judiciously be pruned.

Dr. Huidekoper's little volume entitled 'The Cat: A Guide to the Classification and Varieties of Cats, and a Short Treatise upon their Care, Diseases, and Treatment' (D. Appleton & Co.) was prepared somewhat hastily, as stated in the preface, in view of a demand likely to be created by the recent "Cat Show" in New York city. The author is a well-known veterinary surgeon, and also, as appears in many paragraphs, a personal admirer of the domestic cat. It is to be hoped that a new edition may be called for, and that pains may be taken to correct somewhat frequent typographic errors, improve the style of some sentences, and supply important omissions, *e. g.*, catnip and an index. The objections urged against the administration of anæsthetics for operations upon cats (p. 134) would disappear if, instead of attempting to hold the animal, it were put in a box with a glass cover. For killing cats humanely, chloroform is wisely recommended, but in our judgment the quantity recommended (two to four ounces) is excessive and distressing in its effect. There should also be enjoined the precaution not to let the liquid as such reach the eyes of the animal. The book is appropriately dedicated to the President of the American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and in the appendix is reprinted the State law under which that beneficent organization now accomplishes in New York city the protection of pets and the merciful destruction of waifs.

The "cat-house" at one of our universities bears the legend: "Snugly housed and fully fed; happy living and useful dead." So the volume just noticed has in one sense a fitting counterpart in 'A Laboratory Guide for the Dissection of the Cat: An Introduction to the Study of Anatomy,' by F. P. Gorham and R. W. Tower, Instructors in Biology in Brown University (Charles Scribner's Sons). It is, as announced in the introduction, more convenient in size than either Mivart's 'The Cat,' or the 'Anatomical Technology' of Wilder and Gage; but while the descriptions and the plates are fairly accurate, the latter are rather faint, and the directions so meagre that the unaided student would often be at a loss or commit serious errors. There is no figure of the eye or of the heart or other thoracic or abdominal viscera. Nevertheless, the book will certainly facilitate the instruction of its authors, and of others who are able and willing to supply its omissions by personal direction and information.

'Mathematics the Science of Algorithms,' by James Byrnie Shaw (Jacksonville, Ill.: Henderson & Dewpew), is a thesis for a doctor's degree far beyond the ordinary strength of such works, and will interest all students of the fundamentals of algebra. The word algorithm in the title does not in the least suggest the writer's meaning. We might notice that in a part of the brochure Dr. Shaw has been anticipated by others; but we cannot enter into special questions.

Sigmund Gundelfinger's 'Vorlesungen aus der analytischen Geometrie der Kegelschnitte' (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner) is a treatise characterized by its solutions of many complicated problems not in other text-books. It is almost altogether metrical, only one brief chapter being devoted to projective properties. It will serve as a convenient supplement to Salmon and Clebsch's works.

Those of our readers who believe in chirography as an indication of character, will be interested in a 'Lehrbuch der Graphologie' (Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlagsgesellschaft), by "L. Meyer," a pseudonym of Laura von Albertini, of Ragatz, Switzerland. The book begins with an historical and critical survey of the subject, and is amply illustrated with specimens of handwriting, which the author attempts to classify, and in which she discovers a distinct revelation of mental and moral qualities.

'Auf Missionspfaden in Japan,' by Hermann Dalton (Bremen: Müller), is devoted chiefly to an account of Protestant, Roman Catholic, and Russian missionary efforts in Japan, with a cursory survey and, on the whole, just appreciation of the religions which these three forms of Christianity are competing with each other to supplant. The author states that before Japan had been opened to European influences, Shinto and Buddhism had ceased to exert any influence upon the most cultivated Japanese, who, after having outgrown and discarded the faiths of their fathers, are naturally indisposed to bow their necks under the yoke of a foreign creed. The dogmas which they are urged to accept have in their eyes no superiority to those which they have repudiated, and if they want ceremonial observances, they see no reason for preferring the Roman or Greek ritual to the laws and prescriptions contained in the 'Yengishiki,' which their ancestors compiled nearly a thousand years ago. Herr Dalton thinks the Congress of Religions held at Chicago during the World's Fair had an exceedingly depressing effect upon missionary enterprise, from which the latter will not soon recover. The presence of Buddhists and the representatives of other Oriental religions as delegates, and the views they expressed, excited general surprise and awakened no little sympathy, while tending to refute the popular conception of the dense ignorance and moral degradation of non-Christian nations, and thus greatly weaken the plea

of an urgent necessity for rescuing them from their lost condition.

Among the ever-increasing recent French publications on the subject, M. Louis Brunet's 'La France à Madagascar, 1815–1895' (Paris: Hachette & Co.) deserves notice as containing much new material drawn from the archives of the Île de la Réunion, the colony which the author represents in the French Chamber. Although M. Brunet is known as an enthusiastic and successful promoter of French rule in the "great island," his book is by no means a political diatribe, but a source of genuine historical information and a tolerably complete record of the period it covers. In spite of the author's plain and anything but picturesque style, the reader is fascinated by such accounts as that of the persistent efforts and pathetic career of the obscure pioneer, Sylvain Roux, in the first quarter of the century, who saw his plans thwarted by English intrigue, the lukewarmness of the home Government, the opposition or hesitancy of the Governor of the Île de Bourbon, the treachery of native chiefs, and, worst and most fatal of all, the fever, whose malignity he denied, but which nevertheless carried him off.

A more detailed synoptical account of the events on and concerning the island, especially since the death of Andrianamponine (1810), the chief under whom the Hovas first asserted their authority over the other tribes, is found in 'Les Droits de la France sur Madagascar,' by Gaston Routier (Paris: Le Soudier), which has passed through seven or eight editions in the last four months. The texts of the treaty of December 17, 1885, between the French republic and the "Queen of Madagascar," and of the Anglo-French agreement of August 5, 1890, as well as reports of the most important recent discussions on the subject in the French Chamber, are reprinted in the volume, which contains, besides, a hundred pages of notes, not of very recent origin, on the resources, commerce, and industries of the island.

An interesting sketch of Svanetia, the most secluded district of the Caucasian highlands, is contributed to the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June by Victor Dingelstedt. Svanetia has an area of about 1,250 square miles, with a mean elevation of 6,000 feet. Glaciers are numerous and extensive, though gradually receding, from some undiscovered cause. The people, numbering from twelve to fifteen thousand, live in narrow and profound gorges, where even in summer the sun shines but a few hours. In the long and severe winter the only light is that reflected from the snow. Cut off from intercourse with the outside world, they have retained their ancient language and customs in a remarkable degree. Nominally members of the Greek Church, their religion is more nature-worship than Christianity. Their chapels are small, and women are rigidly excluded from them except at weddings. The soul is supposed to inhabit a house for a year after death, and during this time food and drink are regularly set apart for it after every meal. The Svanetians acknowledge the supremacy of the Russian Government, but are practically independent, the eleven communes being autonomous. All local affairs are debated in public meetings held in the open air, at which every adult member has an equal voice, and all resolutions must be carried unanimously. Cretinism and goitre are very prevalent; in one valley almost the whole population suffer from this latter complaint, due, according to the report of an official inquiry, to the abuse of arrack, but more probably to the poverty and wretched existence of the people in general.

Francis Parkman's autobiography is reprinted in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June. In the same number, the editor, Mr. W. R. Thayer, makes a most interesting review of the change in college societies wrought by the obliteration of class lines through the elective system, and argues therefrom in favor of a university club something after the Oxford pattern. There is much curious information in Mr. G. P. Baker's account of the attempt to reproduce the Elizabethan stage and playhouse manners in the revival of Ben Jonson's "Epicoene" last March in Sanders Theatre. Finally, the "documents" on the football question in its latest phase of the Faculty's ban are here conveniently placed on record. The price of the *Magazine* is to be doubled, in the hope of making it self-sustaining at two dollars.

The thirteenth annual report of the Society for Promoting the Return of Women as Poor Law Guardians in Great Britain, which comes to hand six months behind time, includes a complete list of women guardians chosen at the county elections under the Local Government Act of 1894. Prior to the elections of last December, out of some 29,000 poor-law guardians (many local magnates acting *ex officio*), only 169 were women; the number at present is 875, or an increase of over 500 per cent. This contingent is so distributed that of 648 unions, 342 now have women on their boards, while of the 30 metropolitan unions (London) only 5 are without women members. The full returns are interesting as indicating the growth in favor of women as public housekeepers, as well as the mass of conservatism that has to be overcome before more than a very minute leaven of feminine supervision can be introduced into the local boards having charge of the public health, sanitation, education, and juvenile and dependent classes of Great Britain.

We deeply regret to record the death, on June 29, of Daniel C. Eaton, Professor of Botany at Yale University, after a lingering illness, in the sixty-second year of his age. A pupil of Asa Gray, he had for thirty years filled his chair actively and with distinction, his chief work as an author having been 'The Ferns of the United States of America and British North American Possessions.' Of late years he had been a frequent contributor to the *Nation*. While endowed with a most amiable and attractive personality, he possessed marked independence of character, and his range of interests, both public and private, was very wide.

—At its Philadelphia meeting in December last, the American Philological Association resolved against any scheme of preparation for students of the classical course that required less than three years of instruction. A committee of twelve was appointed to give effect to this resolution, which was aimed at the "Classical Programme" of the famous "Committee of Ten," allowing only *two* years to the study of Greek. The result, say the Committee of Twelve, in a forcible appeal just put forth "to teachers of the classics and to all friends of sound learning in the United States," would be a course of study inadequate to admit to any first-rate college having fixed requisites, and to any of the freshmen Greek courses leading to higher in any college having elective requisites of admission. In other words, the colleges must lower their standard in Greek by a whole year in order to suit schools which adopt the programme of the Committee of Ten. The Twelve point out that the evil consequences of this neglect of Greek are not going to be confined to the classical courses in college, since a knowledge of that language is indispensable to proficiency in English or any other modern language; and theological schools would find it harder than they do now to require of their students a knowledge of Greek necessary for the study of the New Testament. Hence, among the signatures procured of non-members of the Association, we meet with those of Professors Child of Harvard, Woodberry of Columbia, Gummere of Haverford, Crane of Cornell, and Smyth of Andover, and in science Professors Whitney of Harvard and Young of Princeton. Prof. Goodwin of Harvard is chairman of the Committee of Twelve.

—By dint of thick paper, wide margins, many illustrations, and a dainty binding, Messrs. Harper have made an attractive gift-book for the parlor table out of four magazine articles ('Four American Universities: Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and Columbia'). Each university is described by one of its most distinguished professors—Harvard by Mr. Norton, Yale by Mr. Hadley, Princeton by Mr. Sloane, and Columbia by Mr. Brander Matthews; and from such pens the reader will expect, and will find, essays pleasantly written, abounding in just observation and happy phrases. But the papers hardly gain by juxtaposition. There is too unceasing a strain of comparison with rival institutions. This is, perhaps, least felt in Prof. Norton's account of Harvard; in the accounts of Yale and Princeton it becomes distressing. The authors have usually one eye on other colleges and one on the anxious parent who needs to be reassured, and no eyes at all (at any rate, on this occasion) for the real academic problems of the present. Granting that the old college life was a good thing, how are we to combine it with the attendance of a couple of thousand students? Granting, also, that the ideal of culture and of the humanities ought to be jealously guarded, how are we to find room for the ideal of science and of the advancement of knowledge? Mr. Brander Matthews alone faces the future. Fortunately, the position of affairs at Columbia relieves him from half the difficulty—the unmanageable horde of undergraduates; of the other half, of the purpose of a "university" as distinct from a "college," he discourses with an infectious optimism. Columbia has a unique opportunity, and seems to be taking advantage of it. The letterpress which, simply as writing, is on the whole excellent, is hardly honored by its association with the illustrations. Many are cheap and showy, and some are paltry. The publishers must have been hard put to it for illustrations, or in a very great hurry, when they inserted those on pp. 5 and 31. And when giving titles to the four folding sheets containing views of the various edifices, surely the slipshod error could have been avoided of "Bird's-eye view *of Harvard University*" and "*of Columbia University*"; the other two pictures are correctly described. Prof. Norton has, indeed, written in vain if the buildings are identified with the University they serve.

—The Boston Public Library, in its new and ample quarters, has a roomy and well-lighted bindery, wherein all the books of the library are clothed, at their need. Some little leather work is done therein, as it becomes necessary to bind

volumes to match other volumes of a set, but by far the greater part of the binding is in cotton or in linen. Large folios, their valuable plates strongly and neatly mounted on *onglets*, or "guards," in the most approved manner, and small duodecimos for free circulation alike, are covered with grayish brown cotton duck or with grayish white linen. One result of modern industrial triumphs is that good leather cannot, as a general thing, be got for binding—none that will be tolerably sure to last for twenty years, although there are plenty of bindings three hundred years old still at hand whose joints are yet solid and whose corners are yet sharp. We used to be told that Russia ought not to be used, because it would turn to dust and split all along the hinge of each cover, and that was true; but it is true also of calf, and now it is beginning to be said that even the once trustworthy red morocco must be given up. Hogskin there is yet, but it is heavy and hard and makes an expensive binding; parchment and vellum, too, but they crinkle and blister and refuse to cling to the boards, unless, indeed, the work is done at a very considerable cost. This, at least, is what the Boston Library people urge. It is in view of these very serious drawbacks to the old custom of binding in leather that the famous Boston institution has taken up textile fabrics as its covering material. On the other hand, the bookbinders by trade tell us that the leathers of fifty years ago are made now as well as then. If you want the Turkey morocco or Levant morocco binding of old times, you can have it, and at the same or equivalent prices as then. It may be a little dearer or a little cheaper, as duties or wages vary, but the leather is the same and costs the same. This, however, has happened: the market is deluged with cheap imitations, and the librarians have remade their own standard of cost to correspond with these. A sham morocco can be furnished at half the price of the real article, and the volume that would cost $2 to bind in the latter can be bound in the imitation for $1.60. The librarians say then that $1.60 is all they will pay; and binding done at this price will drop to pieces—there is no doubt about that. Forget the new commercial shams, go back to the old honest leather and the old prices, and you need not hanker after linen or cotton covering for your books.

—Binding in cloth has been somewhat used already by amateurs of small means. Such an one, having his long rows of French novels which he loved—Cherbuliez and George Sand, Dumas and Gautier, Daudet and About—and wishing to save his money and yet to have pretty books, thought of the bright printed calicoes which were in fashion for ladies' gowns that summer—those with small sprigs of flowers for their pattern. He laid in a stock of these, a different pattern for each author (and a good many yards were necessary of the styles chosen for Dumas and George Sand). The French volume of regulation size costs a franc a volume in France to cover prettily in this way, or a franc and a quarter a volume with "top edge gilt," not counting the cost of the printed calico which one buys by the yard; but this is *cartonnage*, or cloth binding of the usual sort, and the covers, although bearing the wear and tear of years without splitting or separating from the volume, do certainly spread at the back and grow unsightly. Now, if it were indeed true that modern industrial conditions do not allow of good leather being made, why not, so long as linen and cotton are still allowed us of reasonable strength and durability, bind in these? Plain gray and brown linen are there for the serious workman, and, for public libraries, variously colored stuffs are accessible for those who prefer them. Stamped work, which has now grown common in what are called commercial bindings, is capable of much if not forced beyond its limitations, and finally silk is available, and has even been used in several instances of late in the binding of whole editions of gift-books, although the binders tell us that silk does not behave as well as the humbler textiles. Velvet used to be familiar on the covers of church service books; and figured velvets, such as those made nowadays in Venice, brocades like those brought from Japan, and the heavier kind of Indian kimkhab might be used as well as printed or thread-dyed cotton. The cheviot of which our summer outing shirts are made would seem to be well adapted for book-coverings, and so would the tartan silks which are offered us this year (1895) for spring neckties.

—It is, perhaps, but a small class in this country to which the views of an intelligent French critic on contemporary English painting will prove interesting, but to this class the volume by Robert de la Sizeranne on 'La Peinture Anglaise Contemporaine' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.) may be confidently recommended. The only national school of art existing to-day is the English. In every country but England there exists much the same style of painting, and we do not quarrel with M. de la Sizeranne for calling this style French, since it is undoubtedly from France that the rest of the world has recently learned it, and in France that it has reached its highest expression. In England alone is there an independent and different art, and it is this art, its vices, its virtues, and its characteristics, that M. de la Sizeranne has set himself to study. He evidently knows it well, and his criticism seems to us eminently fair and just. Perhaps there is a thought too much generalization, and a tendency to find the merits or the faults he is looking for in works where they hardly exist—we should not have thought "bright color" a characteristic of the later work of Burne-Jones, for instance; but he is as capable of hearty admiration for the nobility of style and loftiness of motive of the best English work as of dislike for its crudeness of coloring and dryness of handling. The prominence he gives to the Pre-Raphaelite movement as the beginning of the national art of England, and to Ford Madox Brown as the first Pre-Raphaelite, is probably justified. As, however, no Frenchman, however well informed, could write of anything English without at least one amusing blunder, we must drag forth from the obscurity of Appendix V. the following passage, which nobly vindicates its author's right to the Gallic name: "Foster donna des dessins au *Punch*, édité par M. Lemon (citron), d'où peut-être le nom bizarre de ce journal satirique." The appendices and the index, together with the plans of the rooms devoted to the English school at the National Gallery and at South Kensington, form a valuable supplement to the book.

—The main results of the last census of Copenhagen and the neighboring communes for February 1, 1895, have been published in a preliminary report, with a French résumé, by Marcus Rubin, Chief of the Census Bureau of Copenhagen. From this report it appears that the total population at that date was 408,191, of which 333,714 persons were in Copenhagen proper, 56,076 in the suburb of Frederiksberg, and the remainder in the smaller communes. While the increase in population previous to 1880 was very rapid, it has during the past fifteen years shown a steady decrease, both relative and absolute; the decrease being specially noticeable in the city itself. During the last five years the total increase has been only 8.64 per cent. as against 20.22 per cent. for the period between 1880 and 1885. Since 1870 the population has doubled. The recent falling off in increase consists both in births and in immigration, and is attributed to the reaction from the unusual prosperity of twenty years ago. Of special interest are the tables showing the proportion of sexes in the capital. This has had an uninterrupted development throughout the century, at the beginning of which there was a very considerable surplus of men, in the middle a slight surplus of women, which has gone on increasing, until at the present day the original proportions are almost reversed. The exact figures for 1801, 1840, 1880, 1890, and 1895, showing the proportion of male and female inhabitants to each 1,000, are as follows:

Males.....	511	484	463	460	456
Females.....	489	516	537	540	544

The disproportion at the beginning of the century was due mainly to the large number of students, soldiers, and male servants; the present reversal has been caused partly by the relative decrease in these classes, partly by foreign emigration, partly by the increased emigration during recent years of female servants from the country as a result of the unwillingness of Copenhagen girls of the lower middle classes to accept positions that limit their freedom.

GARDINER'S HISTORY OF THE COMMONWEALTH.—II.*

History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate. 1649-1660. By Samuel R. Gardiner, M.A. Vol. I. 1649-1651. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

How far does Mr. Gardiner's History affect our estimate of Cromwell? The best answer we can give is, that Mr. Gardiner's thorough, impartial, and unimpassioned study of the Puritan movement leads, as regards the Protector, to three main results:

First. No one can read Mr. Gardiner's pages with intelligence and not come to the conclusion that Cromwell was out and out the greatest of Puritan leaders. Nothing testifies to this more than does our historian's admiration for the hero of the Puritan Revolution. Mr. Gardiner is not by nature a hero-worshipper. Judicial impartiality is incompatible with the adulation which writers as unlike as Carlyle and Macaulay reserved for their favorite statesmen. There is not a trace throughout our author's volumes of any desire to keep in the background, or to gloss over, the errors or faults of the leaders whom he respects. Moreover, it is towards the men of thought rather than towards the men of action that his sympathies lead him. We cannot suppose that he really likes James the First. That monarch had many flatterers in his day, but never possessed an attached friend, and, since his death, has not received a tenth of the admiration or worship which has been lavished upon his son. Yet Charles the First, if morally the superior of his father, was intellectually infinitely his inferior; and Mr. Gardiner, if he does not like James, thoroughly appreciates the King's thoughtfulness and intelligence. So, again,

*See the *Nation* No. 1554, April 11, 1895.

when our historian deals with a man of action such as Fairfax, the qualities which, in painting the General, he brings into relief, are not his gifts as a soldier, but his moderation and modesty as a man. It is therefore not at all likely that Cromwell's energy and his success should tell for too much in Mr. Gardiner's estimate of his merits. Yet, as the history of the Rebellion and the Commonwealth unfolds itself year by year, as we read what we have ventured to call Mr. Gardiner's 'Annual Register' of the Civil War, Cromwell's greatness becomes more and more apparent. Mr. Gardiner is no hero-worshipper; but Cromwell, from the very nature of things, becomes his hero. Hence, though there is not the least attempt to write an apology or to explain away Cromwell's defects, each successive volume removes the misconceptions which have damaged the Protector's reputation.

The charge of hypocrisy, for instance, if the word hypocrisy be taken in its ordinary and true sense, vanishes away; it becomes absolutely impossible to believe that Cromwell's religious fervor and passion was a mask hiding insatiate and unscrupulous ambition. His religion was a quality of his nature as marked as it was genuine. What Mr. Gardiner does not perhaps show is, that with Cromwell, as with many other men of genuine religious sentiment, there may not have existed a curious connection between strong religious convictions and a tendency towards tortuous ways of reaching what, to an enthusiast, seem absolutely good ends. Fanaticism is not necessarily allied with transparent honesty, and a politician who naturally uses the language of religion, and gains thereby the support of pious and fervent followers, is tempted to conceal under the phraseology of a preacher the political astuteness of a statesman. Such a man no doubt deceives himself, but it is because he is a self-deceiver that he is able to deceive others. Make, however, what reservations you like, and the charge of hypocrisy falls to the ground.

It becomes, again, apparent that, even before Cromwell became the ruler of England, he had imbibed broader ideas of statesmanship than were to be found among the leading men of his age. You can see in all his conduct a real concern for the interest of the nation as a whole. There never lived a man who had less wish to be the mere leader of a party. The character of a politician in the seventeenth century can be certainly determined by his attitude towards religious toleration. How far, in matters of theology, error could be tolerated was in reality the problem of the day, and Cromwell, paradoxical as the assertion must appear to Roman Catholics and to High Churchmen, leant towards toleration. Neither the Roman Catholics, nor the High Churchmen, nor the Presbyterians were prepared for a policy so little oppressive to the mass of religious men in England as the policy which Cromwell was inclined to follow. There existed, no doubt, in the England of Cromwell, persons whose spiritual insight or whose speculative power showed them that the conflicts which had distracted Europe since the beginning of the Reformation could be terminated only by a kind of toleration which no practical statesman would have proposed to establish in England in 1651, or for long after; but among the statesmen, and certainly among the Puritan statesmen, of his day, Cromwell must be considered as averse to all measures of persecution. He was the largest-minded among the Puritan leaders, as he was assuredly the most capable.

Secondly, Cromwell's military and political capacity becomes the more apparent the more his life is studied in detail. No man ever knew better what, for the immediate object he had in view, was the right course to be taken. At any given moment he saw what was the path to take, and, when once he saw it, struck into it with the utmost vigor. It is this combination of sound judgment and vigorous action which is the distinctive trait of his political, and, it may be suspected also (though this is a point on which only an expert can speak with authority), of his military career. It is true, and not at all inconsistent with what we have asserted, that there were moments when he obviously did not see clearly what was the best course to be pursued. There was a time when he thought it might be possible to come to terms with the King. It was but slowly that he made up his mind that the army must be used, or be allowed, to coerce Parliament. But though the existence of these periods of hesitation is undeniable, it is equally certain that, before the supreme crisis arrived, he in each case saw what was the policy which the circumstances of the moment required, and from that minute pursued remorselessly the dictates of his inspiration. It may indeed well be maintained that, as regarded the immediate success, he never made a mistake. Mr. Gardiner questions the wisdom, even with a view to the reconquest of Ireland, of the massacre at Drogheda. But our author's most legitimate detestation of merciless and perhaps faithless cruelty blinds him to the immense gain of terrifying every hostile garrison in Ireland. This is one of the few matters on which the passionate and hasty judgment of a born general is more trustworthy than the calm conclusions of a humane historian. To the combination of insight and energy is due Cromwell's unbroken success. In everything he attempted he succeeded. As a soldier, and from some points of view as a statesman, he could not stand comparison with Napoleon; but Napoleon's failures are as astonishing as his successes. Cromwell's course is marked by no defeats. To whatever he put his hand, in that he succeeded; he not only rose to power, but died in power. So firmly established was his authority that he transmitted it to his son, and in this he achieved a triumph denied to the genius of the first, and to the astuteness of the third, Napoleon.

Thirdly, it is Cromwell's success in all his actions taken separately which forces upon the reader's attention the weak point of Oliver's genius. His claim to be a great leader of men is past dispute; his claim to rank among statesmen of quite the highest class is open to serious question. He saw with astounding clearness what were the best means for the attainment of an immediate object, and, by adopting these means with passionate energy, gained his ends. But to judge even from the part of Cromwell's life which Mr. Gardiner has already narrated, the Puritan leader seems to have been gifted with far greater insight into the requirements of the moment than foresight as to the effect which a course of action would ultimately produce. Put aside, for the sake of argument, all questions as to the justice of Charles's execution; let the trial of the King be looked upon not so much as the arraignment and punishment of a culprit as a legitimate act of warfare and self-defence. These concessions, which may fairly be made, save the moral character of the regicides, but do not even tend to vindicate their statesmanship. As a matter of fact, the death of Charles was a death-blow to Puritanism. To remove a dethroned king with whom reconciliation was impossible, and to put in his place a claimant against whom no one had any complaint, was to prepare the way for the Restoration. Add to this that the dethronement of the King could, from a statesman's point of view, be justified only by the belief on the part of Cromwell that it was possible to found a republic in England or by his willingness to occupy the throne. That Cromwell was a believer in a Parliamentary Commonwealth is incredible; that when the moment for decision arrived he was not prepared to place the crown on his own head is certain. The execution of Charles removed an immediate peril, but Cromwell had never provided for the dangers of the future, of which the execution was certain to be the cause.

This, too, was not an isolated error. He made mistakes of a similar kind at other crises. The Protector may probably have expected to live some years longer than he did; still, he was, when he died, a man who had long suffered in health from his constant labors and anxieties, and who could not be surprised at the approach of death. It is doing him the barest justice to assume that he was intensely anxious that the fruits of the great Civil War and of all that he and his comrades had endured should not be lost, yet he took no adequate step to provide for the succession to the Protectorate. If he thought Richard a fit successor, Cromwell's usual sagacity had forsaken him. If, what is more probable, he had not fully thought out the best mode for providing for a contingency which he still looked upon as future, then Cromwell showed here, as elsewhere, a want of the foresight which statesmen of a different type occasionally at least possess. It is this one defect, combined with his extraordinary powers, which renders the life of Cromwell a summary of the Puritan movement. Cromwell and Puritanism both triumphed over their foes, and Cromwell and Puritanism both, to use an expression of Mr. Green's, "missed their mark."

SOME STUDIES OF REASONING.

A Critical Account of the Philosophy of Lotze: The Doctrine of Thought. By Henry Jones, author of 'Browning as a Philosophical Teacher.' Macmillan & Co. 1895.

Die Grundbegriffe der ebenen Geometrie. Von Dr. V. Eberhard. Erster Band. Leipzig: Teubner. 1895.

Riemann and his Significance for the Development of Modern Mathematics. By Felix Klein. [Translated by Alexander Ziwet. In the Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society for April, 1895.]

Elements of Inductive Logic. By Noah K. Davis. Harper & Brothers. 1895.

We may dispose of the last book first. It has the signal merit of being small—a double merit considering its quality. It plunges the "tyro," as the student is politely called, at the very outset, into perplexing disputes of which he will be utterly incompetent to form the least opinion, thus tending to pervert him into not the least nocuous of mental vices. It jumbles wholly irreconcilable theories. Its power of thought may be judged from a single specimen. The proposition "A scotched wheel does not revolve" is pronounced unscientific and inaccurate, because "in strictness a cause is essentially positive." It is a pity that those who have for the last three hundred years been trying to improve the condition of the world by the study of forces were not told this in time;

for they have always been regarding forces as acting continually, whether balanced by others or not, and have always treated friction, which is (we are forbidden to say the cause) the devil of the scotched wheel, as a force. It would be a grievous thing that young men should be taught such triviality instead of the methods by which useful reasoning is really performed, were it not that fortunately it runs off of them like water from a duck's back.

One of the leading mathematicians and mathematical philosophers of our age, Klein, gives another of those instructive comments upon mathematical procedure of which we have enjoyed a number from his pen. He again dwells, as he had already done, upon the importance of attentive intuition—in other words, of the *observation* of diagrams and the like—as an essential element of mathematical reasoning. Considering that mathematicians have long held that mathematics covers all exact reasoning, quantitative or not, it will be seen that Klein is going over to a logical doctrine which has had defenders in this country and in England. According to this, our assurance that $(2.4.6.8.10) \div (1.2.3.4.5) = 2^5$ is of the same nature as our assurance that sulphuric acid is precipitated by baryta, we having satisfied ourselves in each case that a single experiment is sufficient; only in one case we observe Nature, in the other our own construction. Dr. Klein remarks that although pure mathematics deals with a purely imaginary world, yet the course of its development is not arbitrary. He seeks to explain its orderly growth by historical continuity, and by the fact that as older questions get solved new questions "naturally" arise. No doubt they do, but that is precisely what needs explanation. We should like to know in what this "natural" succession of ideas, without any external *nature* to guide it, consists. Is there, for example, some Hegelian dialectic, or is there a different general law for this growth of pure concepts, or is it lawless?

The paper contains so many points of interest that we can only recommend it to the reader. The logical importance of Riemann's memoir on Trigonometric Series is pointed out. Klein says (in the absence of the original, we have taken the liberty of rubbing down some of the angles of the English translation):

"Riemann's collected works are neither numerous nor extensive. They are comprised in an octavo of 550 pages, and but half of that matter was published by him. Yet his sway over the minds of mathematicians was the most potent of his time; nor is it even yet come to an end. This is owing to the *originality* and the *penetration* of his mathematical thought. . . . Passing by the latter character, I desire to point out that Riemann's originality lies in a unifying central idea, the source of all his achievements. . . . He devoted much time and thought to physical theories. . . . These are preserved in fragmentary form in his posthumous papers. All have in common the hypothesis (since made prominent by confirmations of Maxwell's theory of light) that space is filled with a continuous fluid serving as a common medium for the propagation of optical, magnetic, and gravitational phenomena. . . . Those physical ideas are the mainsprings of his investigations in *pure mathematics*. . . . The mathematical work of Riemann is the counterpart of the physical researches of Faraday."

He remarks, too, that Riemann's growing influence is illustrated by two new French books, Picard's 'Traité d'Analyse' and Appell and Goursat's 'Théorie des Fonctions Algébriques.'

Dr. Eberhard's work is a welcome mathematical treatise on plane point-systems. We mention it because some thirty pages of the long preface are occupied with the basis and purpose of geometry. As in some other recent German work in the same direction, while the need is for a purely logical analysis, we are furnished with semi-psychological and epistemological reflections which would not answer the purpose even if they were beyond criticism. It illustrates, however, the purely empirical ground upon which geometry is now placed by mathematicians, considered as a science of actual space, although the very same men may be high idealists when they come to geometry of n dimensions or other pure mathematics. From generalities which might almost have been taken from Bain's 'Senses and Intellect,' or some such psychological treatise, Eberhard passes at once to the intersections of planes and straight lines, in entire forgetfulness that in order to exhibit the foundations of geometry he ought first to have treated topology, or that branch of geometry which relates to lines and surfaces whose exact forms remain undefined—a branch which includes the theory of knots, Euclid's formula for the number of summits, edges, and faces of a polyhedron (which need not have plane faces), etc. This plainly underlies the optical doctrine of straight lines and planes.

For those who like their philosophy drawn particularly cool and mild, Lotze's system is just the thing; and the 'Microcosmos' (would there were a handy imprint of Misses Hamilton and Jones's translation) would be as good a book to begin with as those could have for whom one big but easy tome on philosophy will be all they have the courage to undertake. Yet whoever perseveres to the end of that work will most likely want more such reading, and may probably next go on to the 'Logic' and 'Metaphysics' of the same author. Those twin treatises mastered, the reader will certainly find it to his advantage to examine the refutation of them of which the volume that heads our list is the first instalment. It deals with Lotze's 'Logic,' and another is promised to make mincemeat of the 'Metaphysics.' Lotze is somewhat in sympathy with modern physics; he might be said to be one-third imbued with the scientific spirit. He had a medical student's initiation into the outer courts of science. His chief master was Gustav Theodore Fechner, a many-sided man like himself, say three-quarters scientific; but Lotze was not half as much so. That which more than all else distinguishes the thoroughly natural-scientific philosopher from the theological is that, in the former, all other passions are swallowed up in the passion to *learn the truth*, while the latter is fired with the impulse to *teach the Truth*. It is amazing what disparate conceptions of truth and of Truth those opposite attitudes carry. As for Lotze, it was teaching and not learning that engaged his energies. The life of the man was devoted to curing fellow-countrymen of the malady of Schellingism. Now, to a superficial glance, Lotze, though not untheological, is high in the ranks of the scientific among metaphysicians; while Schelling, with his eye fixed on Deity, was a babe in exact science. Nevertheless, a scientific specialist may well feel nearer to Schelling than to Lotze, because Schelling seems to really desire to find out the truth, ready at a moment's notice to dump all pet dogmas for her sake. The two revolutions his opinions underwent, though they are in many critics' eyes his shame, are his honorable scars in those of the physical experimenter. Lotze, on the other hand, having embraced Kantian nominalism at his first confirmation in the church of philosophy, fought for it doughtily all his life long, with that sort of fidelity which, extolled in seminaries, sets the man of the world to looking out for other signs of immaturity or arrested development.

Prof. Jones has his attention far too closely riveted upon a single question (though it is undoubtedly the central question of Lotze's philosophy) to give a very good all-round account of Lotze's logic. For example, toward the end of the book he remarks in a foot-note:

"The doctrine repeatedly advanced by Lotze, that our ideas can be regarded as objectively valid, and that the process of thought leads to objective results merely because every one, on account of the constitution of the human soul, must arrive at the same results, does not seem to me to be worthy of serious discussion. Error would not cease to be error though all should commit it. It would, probably, not be recognized as error."

Now not "repeatedly" merely, but on every proper occasion Lotze advances that doctrine. It is, not certainly the most prominent, but the basic principle of his system, and if it is not worth serious discussion, why write a somewhat lengthy book about that system? But, after all, considering that Lotze holds that it is impossible for anything like the real to be thought, if all mankind were immovably fixed in a belief, so as to entertain no suspicion of it, in what would its erroneousness consist? It could not picture the real as different from what it is, since it cannot, on Lotze's theory, picture it at all. It could not represent things as like when they are not alike, if all things are somewhat alike, nor as unlike when they are like, if all things are somewhat unlike. Where, then, would be the error? It is difficult, not to say impossible, to see how, in Lotze's view, any judgment can be in error, except in the sense that it is destined to be reversed. Such reflections are, by this time, the very commonplaces of philosophy; but Prof. Jones seems not to be aware of them. As for what he can mean by saying that any error all men shared would *probably* not be recognized as error, the reader must answer that without any guess from us, for we can make none. The only plausible reply to Lotze's principle would seem to consist in denying that men ever can be immovably fixed in any error; but that *is* the principle stated in other words.

Prof. Jones is a half-idealist. He conceives himself to be a complete idealist; but he will find himself forced to pursue that path much further, for he has not yet emerged from nominalism. "No one," he says, "can assert that things in general exist." Can one not? A pendulum has been drawn to one side 86,400 times daily for twenty years, and every time it has returned to its position, and that at almost the same rate of speed. Was that chance-coincidence? If not, there was a really operative *law*. That law is general. It is not only general itself, but it applies to a general class of things; and if the law is real, the class is real. If for "assert" in the quoted sentence, we read "deny," we come nearer the truth. The idealist, to be consistent, will be forced to deny that individuals really exist, as such; and he will be ultimately led to hold that, while there are, of course, fictitious generals, yet some generals not only *exist* but *live*.

Lotze's 'Logic' was published twenty years ago. It is choked up with the eccentric notions with which the German logics of earlier date abounded. Thus, Lotze holds that every true hypothetical proposition is convertible; that is to say, from the proposition, "If attraction varies inversely as the square of the distance, the orbit of one particle round an-

other will be a conic section," it follows that "If the orbit of one particle round another be a conic section, attraction varies inversely as the square of the distance," although, in point of fact, it may vary directly as the distance. Again, he holds that our parts of speech are essential to thought, although it does violence to the majority of languages to classify their words in that way. A hundred such whimseys might be pointed out. But then logic was at a low and unpleasant ebb in Germany for the greater part of our century. Schröder's treatise, if the Germans will only go through it before they write, as they probably will, must render such nonsense impossible for the future.

No very close thinking was needed to refute Lotze's logic, at least in great part. Had it been required, and had Mr. Jones been able to supply it, it would have been impossible to set it forth in an easily readable book, in the literary way still expected in a philosophical treatise. An accurate logical discussion can no more be drawn up in such form than could a well-made balance sheet. The more elegant and perspicuous the style, the less clear would the statement be. However, in this case, nothing of the sort was needed; and the style is agreeable enough. Occasionally, points are made with remarkable neatness. Yet long successions of pages are diluted with such washings of insignificant words as we marvel to encounter from the pen of a student of poetry. Nevertheless, for the substantial result of the engagement, idealists of all stripes—and they make up the great majority of thinkers, nowadays—will opine that such deadly holes have been made in the sides of Lotze's frigate that no patching can render her seaworthy. At the same time, a goodly number will think Mr. Jones has himself some lessons to learn in idealism yet, and he certainly has much to learn in logic.

Recollections of War Times: Reminiscences of Men and Events in Washington, 1860–1865. By Albert Gallatin Riddle, formerly M. C. from the 19th Ohio District. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 380.

An intelligent man's recollections of the war times in Washington cannot fail to be interesting and valuable, and Mr. Riddle was not only intelligent, but he had a quick eye for what was going on around him. As a somewhat radical Republican he had opportunities for seeing the inside view of things in some important junctures, and his character makes him an authoritative witness as to what he saw.

On the capital question of civil-service reform he is an involuntary witness to its necessity, for he tells in the first person the story of a promising member of Congress killed by a post-office. A young man, gifted with the perfervid style of oratory which, in those days, might carry a man far in politics, he became a "favorite son" in the Cleveland district, and was nominated almost by acclamation. There were two able editors in Cleveland, Harris of the *Herald* and Cowles of the *Leader*, and, alas! there was but one post-office. In those good old days the post-office was a perquisite of the Representative, and Mr. Riddle gave it to Cowles. Implacable wrath, of course, filled the celestial mind of Harris. It is amusing, now that we look back upon it over more than a third of a century, but it was tragic then. As if most perfectly to adorn the tale, the blind devotion of Cowles to newspaper enterprise made him the fatal instrument to destroy his patron.

Mr. Riddle was one of a bevy of Congressmen who went out to the battle-field of the first Bull Run to hail the victors, but the fate of war made them part of the rabble rout hustling each other in the panic flight to Washington. The member for the Cleveland district yielded, a little imprudently, perhaps, to his literary facility, and wrote the story of the rout in some detail and with vivid penstrokes. He told of the able-bodied fugitives who outran their regiments, and of demoralized officers who tried to force their way into his carriage. True, his letter was a private one, but it was shown to Cowles, who proved that he was an able editor, to the manner born, by sacrificing everything to the promised sensation. He "had a nose" for a sensation, and Mr. Riddle saw his composition come back in cold print, but hot to the blazing point in unmitigated denunciation of the cowards who ran from the Manassas field, with (to his eyes) great gaps of omission of his praise of those who had done well.

Harris saw that the Lord had delivered his enemy into his hand, and he (being also an able editor) regarbled the garbled letter, and the Congressman was exhibited as a Jehu crazy with fear, lashing his horses through regiments of poor wounded soldiers, and pushing headlong from his carriage-door a bleeding and fainting officer, disabled in the noble performance of duty! Which was the upper and which the nether millstone, it were hard to tell, but between the two Mr. Riddle was ground to powder. He was burned in effigy, hanged and drowned. He was denounced in public and privately; he was threatened openly and anonymously. His explanations were hooted at, and when the time for renomination came, the favorite son fared worse than the prodigal, and was left to the husks outside the public crib. Naturally disgusted, the now ex-member shook the Cleveland dust from his feet, and closed his all too brief career by removing to Washington, where he became a well-known lawyer, as he was before a genial gentleman. And now in his old age he looks back and laughs with us (a little sardonically?) over the way in which, unbeknown to himself, he was made an object-lesson in civil-service reform.

> "But Heaven that brings out good from evil,
> And loves to disappoint the Devil"

(if we may borrow Coleridge's couplet), was preparing for the victim of the burdens of patronage a quiet retreat near enough to the great current of affairs for rare opportunity of knowledge, whence he could disinterestedly note passing events, and write for us an attractive and useful note-book on men and things. Of the Thirty-seventh Congress and the legislation which organized the great conflict for the Union, Mr. Riddle speaks, of course, with authority. Besides this, however, he has many personal reminiscences of Lincoln, Scott, Chase, Stanton, Wade, Black, and others, which will have permanent value in making up an authentic picture of Washington and its leading men in the war time. His extracts from his own speeches and writings give something of the character of autobiography to the volume, but the whole is so closely connected with the public side of his life and duties as to avoid any narrowness of personal experience.

A very interesting episode is his visit to Cuba as representative of the State Department in January and February, 1863. He had excellent opportunities to investigate blockade-running, its methods, its risks, its profits and its losses. This is an almost unique chapter in war history. As a whole, the book is worthy of an honorable place among the personal contributions to the story of a great epoch.

St. Andrews and Elsewhere: Glimpses of some gone and of things left. By the author of 'Twenty-five Years of St. Andrews,' etc., etc. Longmans, Green & Co.

"Boyd, who writes," was Carlyle's succinct indication of the author of these recollections. Long, long ago there were those who at first liked his 'Recreations of a Country Parson,' and then got tired of them, but "A. K. H. B." has never wearied of much writing; this is his thirtieth volume, and he is proposing to celebrate, next September, the thirtieth anniversary of his settlement at St. Andrews with another volume covering the period since his 'Twenty-five Years of St. Andrews' was written. It is likely to be as meagre as the 'More Memories' of Dean Hole, for in this volume he seems not only to have reaped but to have gleaned the field. All of his usual characteristics are here in full force: his abounding egotism; his dwelling upon trifles; his twittering sensibility to the honor of having known this or that distinguished person, and especially of having entertained them in his own house. His egotism would be more endurable were it more naïve, but it is intensely self-conscious. He tries to avoid the appearance of the evil by speaking of himself in the third person and calling himself "one."

> "One soon saw ten or twelve clerics listening more or less critically; the younger of them probably thinking they could have done it better themselves. For that, one did not care at all. But really when, after service, one of the most outstanding Bishops of the Anglican Communion walked into the vestry and introduced himself in the most brotherly way (the very pleasantest of men), even a man long past the days in which self-conceit is tolerable could not but think that it had been well the Prelate had heard one for the first and last time when more like one's self."

It is extremely funny when, finding himself getting badly tangled in this artifice, he breaks through into the joyous freedom of the first person singular. There is much depreciatory quotation of the praise he has received, and this is sometimes sickening, as where an extempore prayer is lauded by the local press; but in general it is more amusing than any other feature of the book, even the stories, of which there are many, and some of them very good.

The book will fail of its purpose if it is not widely read, and especially by those who have from time to time said disagreeable things of Dr. Boyd. All these have their appropriate comment. He pleads guiltless to the charge of having preached in lavender kids, and confounds the wretch who accused him of preaching the same sermon twenty times. Yet, though much is made of little, it is evident that Dr. Boyd has had a wide range of ecclesiastical acquaintance, including some persons of importance who have discounted his foibles in view of his substantial qualities of mind and heart. We may laugh at him more than with him, but his book is certainly entertaining, with the exception of fourteen of the shorter chapters under the general heads, "That Peaceful Time" and "Things Left." Could we imagine Dr. Boyd as thinking anything he had written too poor for publication, we should imagine these had been withheld until the need of padding had overcome his scruples. The closing chapter celebrates the writer's intimacy with Froude. The best thing in it is Froude's comment on a certain Roman Catholic archbishop: "Ah, he thought highly of Christ, did he? I venture to doubt whether that favorable opinion was reciprocal." In the same chapter Dr. Boyd sounds the praise of Dr. Holmes. "He did not care

to be called a Unitarian in the English sense. 'An American Unitarian was rather like an English Broad Churchman.'" If Dr. Holmes said anything so silly, his zeal was not according to knowledge, the resemblance being quite the other way. It would be hard to find another book in which so many compliments are distributed. But Dr. Boyd is not a master in the art of compliment. He lays it on with a trowel, and where all are plastered no one can feel himself much honored.

In the first chapter much is made of the consecration of St. Cuthbert's, Edinburgh, and the *magna pars fui* is displayed with great elaboration. Dr. Boyd is continually saying, I must not do thus and so, and then doing it. Thus, of "the beautiful Holy Table of white marble" in that broken English of which he gives us much, "One hardly likes to mention such a thing here. But it was a costly gift, as such ought to be." The verger seems to speak, yet to refrain from his usual exactness in pounds sterling. In the second chapter, Bishop Wordsworth (Christopher) and Principal Cunningham are the subjects of genial recollection. Bishop Wordsworth's 'Annals' encouraged Dr. Boyd to write his own and to rival the Bishop's speed—a volume in two months. "I record, gladly, that he was quite pleased with everything that was said of himself." If Emerson's cure for sentimentalists—"pit one against another"—were good for egotists, these two would have cured each other. On the Bishop's death his copy of the 'Christian Year,' which he had used for sixty-three years, became Dr. Boyd's. It is much annotated and with some interesting statistics of the various editions, of which ninety-five were published in Keble's lifetime. Dr. Boyd is nothing if not ecclesiastical. In the insufficient pay of clergymen he finds "the tragedy of modern life." But his sympathies are inclusive; he is on good terms with the different parties, and Bishop Frazer, "an Evangelical High Churchman with Broad Church sympathies," is a man after his own heart.

Chapters iv. and v., though not confessedly so, are evidently reprinted reviews of the biographies of Archbishop Tait and Dean Stanley. They are the best chapters in the book. Tait would not have pleased him much without the glamour of his archiepiscopal office. He discourses plaintively on the labors and sacrifices which justify a salary of £15,000. One incumbent, doing homage to the Queen, said she was the first official he had met who had not asked him for fifty guineas. There is a good story of Tait's encounter with a Scotch postmaster who first questioned his title and afterwards tried to make amends by saying, "I have a son in London, a lad in a shop; and he gaed to hear ye preach one day, and he was vera weel satisfeed." In the Stanley chapter we read that Stanley and Gladstone were both taught by the same Mr. Rawson, a parish clergyman, and he declared Stanley the stupidest boy in figures who ever came under his care except Gladstone, who could not grasp simple addition and multiplication. Such a beginning, considering Gladstone's career as a great minister of finance, is certainly encouraging for parents of dull boys. Stanley's compliment to Bishop Wilberforce was one of the double-acting kind, which are not desirable: "Any act of undoubted sincerity in him is worth ten times as much as it would be in another person."

There is an astonishing account of the origin of the famous 'Essays and Reviews' which Dr. Boyd got from John Parker, the publisher. Two or three of the Oxford and Cambridge Essays which had been paid for were left over. To save their cost, a few others were added and a book was launched which had an immense sale and occasioned a remarkable disturbance. In the chapter on Hugh Pearson, his visit with Stanley to the Pope is made more amusing than ever. The Pope was much interested in Bishop "Vealberfoss," and "Dr. Pousé." He thought Wilberforce was an Oxford professor. Stanley averred that he made more blunders in twenty minutes than any fallible person of his acquaintance. Stanley made one himself mistaking the question about Dr. Pusey for an inquiry whether he was himself *épousé*. Stanley and Pearson visited Dr. Boyd, and he could, he says, fill pages with his "recollections of that morning's marvellous talk." Yet none are given; why, we can hardly guess. Perhaps they are reserved for Dr. Boyd's thirty-first volume, which is coming soon.

Americus Vespuccius: A Critical and Documentary Review of two recent English books concerning that Navigator. By Henry Harrisse. London: B. F. Stevens. 1895.

The books under Mr. Harrisse's review emanated, one from the President of the Royal Geographical Society, and the other from an officer of the geographical section of the British Museum. The first is Clements R. Markham's 'Letters of Vespucci' as issued by the Hakluyt Society. The main object of this publication was to throw discredit on the arguments of Varnhagen and Fiske, adduced in support of the alleged voyage of 1497 to America. Harrisse, whose opinions have veered from time to time on this disputed question, now decides that "the accounts which have reached us, whether in Italian or Latin, are all liable to grave objections, which we certainly do not pretend to be in a position to remove"; which is a far more reasonable stand than the dogmatic assertions of supporters or doubters respectively. Without indicating the objections to the position of the doubters, Harrisse questions the advocates' ground because the abstracts of Vespucius's own unrevised narratives cannot be held to be definitive. Las Casas's contrary testimony, he contends, was based on no better knowledge than scholars have to-day; and there is, moreover, no documentary evidence to show that Vespucius was otherwise engaged at a date of the alleged voyage. It would seem, then, that Harrisse's present opinion is that Vespucius could have made the disputed voyage, though there is not indisputable evidence that he did make it.

The second of the books in question is the 'Voyage from Lisbon to India, 1505-1506,' issued originally in Flemish at Antwerp in December, 1508, and reprinted in 1894 with annotations by C. H. Coote, accompanied by an argument to show that the author of it was Vespucius. This book was reviewed in these columns in the latter year, and its fraudulent character suggested, and Mr. Coote's presumptuous and uncritical method exposed. These adverse asseverations are nearly if not quite substantiated by the disclosures which Mr. Harrisse now makes. Mr. Coote had relied on a statement in the Flemish text that Vespucius was the author of the tract, and had not discovered that the person to whom Vespucius was represented as addressing his narrative had been for three years in his grave. It further turns out, as Coote conjectured, that the Flemish narrative pertained to the Almeida Expedition of 1505. The publisher of it, however, to disguise that fact, had altered the given date (1500), had left out certain statements which would have disclosed the original authorship, had otherwise garbled the text, and had altered the preamble so as to make Vespucius the author, instead of Balthazar Sprenger, a Tyrolese who accompanied Almeida. To help prove this fraudulent practice of the Antwerp publisher, there are both Latin and German texts, professedly of Sprenger's narrative. The Latin text was discovered in 1718, and printed by the Benedictines in 1724, and proves in Harrisse's judgment to be most likely the text which the Flemish plagiarist followed, in some manuscript copy of it existing in 1508. The purpose of the change of authorship from Sprenger to Vespucius must then have been to avail for commercial purposes of the popularity, at that time, of Vespucius's name.

If the Antwerp date of publication, December, 1508, is an honest one, Sprenger's text was first put before the public in this fraudulent print, whatever may have been its earlier currency in manuscript. The next year, possibly to assert his claim to its authorship, Sprenger's narrative appeared, perhaps at Augsburg, in a German text, which may have been the form in which it was originally written; and of this only a single copy is known, preserved in the great library at Munich. Harrisse contends that the hypothesis that this German text was copied from the Flemish text of the preceding year is not consistent with evidences which we have of Vespucius's being in Spain at the time of Almeida's voyage.

In clearing the question up, there is too much necesssity for assumption in order to prove anything, to make it entirely certain that the meaning of it all is just what Harrisse declares; but in the present aspect of the evidence his views must stand till some better solution of the enigma can be found. Mr. Coote has not certainly made out his case. Mr. Harrisse has come very near making one out.

Annals of the British Peasantry. By Russell M. Garnier. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1895.

The subject which Mr. Garnier has chosen is certainly an interesting one. We are all children of the earth, and have within us some congenital yearnings for the country, sufficient to invest the life of the peasant with a glamour which may not be always based upon reality. There is a glory in the work of a skilled artisan, but the mass of those employed in factories are now mere adjuncts to machines, and the consideration of the conditions under which their lives are passed is a painful duty rather than an agreeable recreation. But even in the poverty of the peasant there is something picturesque, and his misery is toned down by the background afforded by joyous nature. Whether chattel, landed proprietor, farmer, soldier, rebel, tramp, pauper, or laborer, Mr. Garnier says he has found in the peasant much to admire and but little to despise. And his readers will find that his enthusiasm is contagious and that his pictures of rural life linger in the memory.

Nevertheless, it is hard to conceive just what class of readers is appealed to by such a book as this. It is not a work of original research, like those of Kenelm Digby, Thorold Rogers, Seebohm, Gomme, Vinogradoff, Cunningham, Ashley, and a host of others. Its bulk—450 pages 8vo—forbids its being regarded as a popular history of the English peasant. It is substantially a combination of the popular with the scientific. The author has evidently had much experience with the management of

land, and ample acquaintance with the tillers of the soil, and has also studied with intelligence and comprehension the works of such authors as we have named above, as well as many of the authorities upon whom they rely. He thus combines theory with practice, and on the whole with very good success. Of course, there are numberless points concerning which archæologists differ, and the reader must be cautioned against taking all of Mr. Garnier's statements without some allowance; but in the main we believe that he gives a sufficiently accurate picture of the times with which he is concerned.

So far as the account of the manor and the early feudal obligations is concerned, Mr. Garnier has little to say that is not to be found in the histories. But when he comes to depict the actual routine of peasant life at different stages, he shows that he has thoroughly identified himself with his subject, and has reconstructed the past in his own imagination. There is a refreshing absence of socialistic froth, and even a disposition to hold that employers of labor are not so black as they are painted. At the same time the oppressive character of many of the labor laws is clearly stated, and the chapters upon poor-relief contain a full analysis of the effects of injudicious legislation. The field which Mr. Garnier has entered upon is altogether too wide for comprehensive treatment, but he has attained perhaps as much success as was possible in such an effort, and has produced a book into which one may dip with entertainment and profit.

Les Origines de l'Épiscopat. Par Jean Réville. Première partie. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1895.

When we consider the immense influence exercised on the development of Christendom by the organization of the Church, and the power wielded by its bishops under the claim of "apostolic succession," no student of European institutions will consider that M. Jean Réville has been too lavish of space in his 'Les Origines de l'Épiscopat,' although the first part, just issued in the "Bibliothèque de l'École des Hautes Études," forms a volume of over 500 pages and carries the question only to the time of Ignatius and Polycarp, or to about 115 A. D. The author's name is a sufficient warranty for the abundant learning and sedulous care with which his researches have been conducted, and that his minute examination of all the Christian texts is illuminated by whatever side-lights can be afforded by the institutions of all the races from which the early converts to Christianity were drawn. The keynote to his work is found in the epigrammatic remark (p. 24): "Jésus de Nazareth a fondé une religion, il n'a pas crée d'église nouvelle." The organization of a Church, in fact, was the work of the successors of Christ, and the task to which M. Réville has addressed himself is to trace, amid the scanty and fragmentary materials remaining to us, the various stages through which the little societies of the faithful passed until the foundations were laid of that puissant and majestic body which for so many centuries dominated and moulded the course of civilization.

No unbiassed student of the primitive Church can fail to recognize the independence and self-government of each individual community in all matters of discipline, and how long it was before there arose a sense of the necessity of unity and of an organization in which there should be a subordination of the parts to the whole. A marked feature of primitive times, moreover, was the respect accorded to those who acted, or thought that they acted, under the direct inspiration of the Holy Spirit, and who, without any official position, taught and preached, very much as in the Society of Friends of modern times. This brought its inconveniences when Docetic and Gnostic speculations began, in the Eastern churches, to develop and affect the Paulinian doctrines; and the logical remedy seemed to lie in lodging authority in an *episkopos*, or supervisor, who could watch over his little flock and preserve it from heresy. This process was gradual, even in Asia, and M. Réville points out that Ignatius, the passionate asserter of obedience due to the bishop, knows nothing of any apostolic origin of the office or of any apostolic succession. In the West, which troubled itself but little about theological questions, the strong Roman spirit of ritualism, sacerdotalism, and the organizing faculty led to somewhat similar results. The Christian community of Rome felt the necessity of lodging power in the hands of the leaders of the Church to prevent quarrels and disaffection among the members. Up to the end of the first century at least, this was attributed to a board or commission of *episkopoi*, or supervisors, and there is no contemporary evidence of a single or monarchic Bishop of Rome up to 115. Thus each individual community constituted itself according to its own needs, and the work of unification was slow, extending through the second and third centuries.

This development will form the subject of the second part of M. Réville's work, which we shall await with interest, confident that it will present the same features which distinguish the present volume—of close critical insight, searching investigation, and lucid exposition.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, W. J. Carter Henry Harrison: A Memoir. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Barrett, Frank. John Ford and his Helpmate. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Besant, Sir Walter. In Deacon's Orders, and Other Stories. Harpers.
Bigelow, Edith. Diplomatic Disenchantments. Harpers.
Biological Lectures delivered at the Marine Biological Laboratory of Wood's Holl in the Summer Session of 1894. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.65.
Caldwell, W. W. The Tie that Binds; A Story of the North and South. Franklin, O.: Editor Publishing Co.
Gätke, Heinrich. Heligoland as an Ornithological Observatory. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Hamilton, Gail. Biography of James G. Blaine. Norwich, Conn.: Henry Bill Publishing Co.; New York: Charles Barmore.
Hardy, Thomas. The Mayor of Casterbridge. Harpers.
Hulme, F. E. Natural History Lore and Legend. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Huntington, George. Robber and Hero. Northfield, Minn.: Christian Way Co. $1.
James, Henry. Terminations. Harpers. $1.25.
Knowles, James. The Legends of King Arthur and his Knights. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Kölkenbeck, Alfred. Rates of Stamp Duties on Bills of Exchange all over the World. London: Effingham Wilson.
Lie, Jonas. The Commodore's Daughters. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Norris, W. E. Billy Bellew. Harpers.
Rhodes, J. F. History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850. Vol. III. 1860—1862. Harpers. $2.50.
Savage, R. H. After Many Years. F. T. Neely.
Sevenoak, F. L. Hall and Knight's Elementary Algebra, Macmillan. $1.10.
Smith, Charles, and Harrington, C. L. Arithmetic for Schools. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Southworth, Mrs. The Bride of Llewellyn. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Thompson, Rev. H. M. "Copy": Essays from an Editor's Drawer. Whittaker. 50 cents.
Wheeler, E. P. Real Bi-metallism. Putnams. 75 cents.
Wheeler, Stephen. The Ameer Abdur Rahman. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Wiedemann, Prof. Alfred. The Ancient Egyptian Doctrine of the Immortality of the Soul. London: H. Grevel; New York: Putnams. $1.
Wilson, Mrs. Anne C. After Five Years in India. London Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $2.
Yonge, C. M. The Constable's Tower. Whittaker. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 11, 1895.

The Week.

THE advance in the price of grain and other farm products has not been large enough yet to wean Mr. David Lubin away from his pet project of having the Government give relief to agriculture by paying a bounty on exported grain. He is spending his time addressing such chambers of commerce on the Pacific Coast as he can get access to, and they are behaving quite generously to him. He finds, however, some very ugly questions to answer. When, for instance, he had laid before the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce his weighty argument, the Naval Officer of that port, Col. Irish, told him that all his theory amounted to was, that, to apply the protective system to farmers in this country, he would have our people taxed in order to give cheaper food to the people of Europe; and he wanted to know why, if protection was so unjust when applied to manufacturers, it would be any more just when applied to agriculture. The best reply that Mr. Lubin could make to this was, that, however desirable free trade might be, when it came to a vote our people would vote for protection every time (which the election returns do not bear out), and also that it does not concern us "at what price bread, cheese, and cobble-stones sell in Berlin or Rome." In Portland, Ore., Mr. Lubin was asked to explain where the Government would get the money with which to pay this bounty of his. That, he said, was to him an extremely easy problem. He would have the Government apply all, or a part of, the funds received as "protective revenue" for manufacturers in the payment of the bounty. If Mr. Lubin would only carry his cogitation a little further, he could easily get up a scheme by which protected manufacturers and protected farmers could tax themselves into millionaires in the course of two or three fairly wet summers.

The *Tribune* last week, evidently after a powerful mental effort, produced its tariff platform for 1896, by declaring that "the tariff question will be the controlling one." From this we infer that it anticipates either that the financial question will be finally settled under the present Democratic administration, or that the dodging process which all the would-be Republican leaders of to-day are practising will carry the Republican Presidential candidate outside of the current of financial discussion. But the *Tribune* imposes a big job on next year's tariff revisers. It tells them that the country

"will condemn a man as unfit for power if he is found advocating particular duties merely because they were wise in 1890, for the facts have radically changed. There is to be time for careful inquiry, which ought to go into the details of particular industries. Tremendous revolutions in modes of production have occurred, in part because of the extreme economies enforced by the prostration of 1893, and these teach lessons which no Republican leader can afford to overlook."

There is a whole volume of anti-protection arguments in these few sentences. It is conceded that a tariff bill framed with the utmost wisdom in 1890 becomes unwise five years later because "facts have radically changed," and that "no Republican leader can afford to overlook" the "tremendous revolutions in modes of production which have occurred." What greater economic folly could be imagined than to hand over to a body like Congress, largely made up of "practical" politicians, the framing of a set of regulations under which the business of the country must be conducted—regulations which ever-recurring "tremendous revolutions" in trade will demand shall be constantly amended? The only wonder is that any country, even with the natural vitality of ours, could enjoy any measure of business prosperity so long as its business interests were the plaything of parties and politicians. We only hope that the Republican leaders will accept the *Tribune's* advice, and ask a vote of the country on the question of turning back to McKinleyism.

Light is slowly breaking in upon the *Tribune* also as to the stimulating effect upon trade of the removal of tariff restraints, and it has now got so far as to warn its readers that the consequences of the new tariff are not yet known. This is a great advance over the period when these consequences were dogmatically asserted to involve the necessary ruin of American industry, and hardly any one can object to the proposition as an abstract truth. But its application in the concrete is not free from difficulty. For instance, wool has gone up about two cents a pound for some kinds—which, of course, is contrary to all the *Tribune's* predictions—and now it cannot comprehend how American manufacturers can pay this increased price as well as the higher wages which they have recently promised their hands, and meet foreign competition. They may somehow manage to do it in spite of the theory of protection, but at all events the great industries of the country will be "exposed to dangers against which, for many years under Republican protection, they were entirely free." There is some comfort in this, certainly, and it will be hard to disprove it. But on the specific case of the tin-plate industry the apprehensions of the *Tribune* may not prove to be well founded. It says that the rise in the cost of production has now gone so far that "tin plates can be imported a little more cheaply than they can be made here, and if this state of things continues, the industry with many thousand men is doomed." Happily this despondency of the editorial writer of the *Tribune* can have continued but a night, and joy must have come with the morning when he read in the financial reports of his own journal that the price of tin plate had advanced, and that "the commercial agencies report American tin-plate factories running at the highest pitch to meet the demand."

Now that a general rise in prices is actually taking place, the bimetallists have to abandon their great argument from declining prices, and betake themselves to other expedients. The most available of these is that of stability of prices under bimetallism. In the memorial recently addressed to Sir William Harcourt by the Bimetallic League, they asserted that so long as bimetallism was maintained through the action of France, "the standard of value was comparatively stable," whereas "it cannot be denied that since 1873, in some of the chief requirements which are expected of a standard of value, such, for instance, as stability, the single gold standard has lamentably failed." The London *Economist*, however, not only denies this, but supports its denial by facts and not by mere assertion. It points out that, according to Dr. Soetbeer's tables, the range of prices before 1873, as shown by the index number, was greater than it was after that date. This is corroborated by the tables constructed by the *Economist*. The fluctuation is recorded by Mr. Sauerbeck as for 1850, 77; for 1873, 111; and for 1890, 72. Thus, between 1850 and 1873, when bimetallism is asserted to have been causing stability of prices, there were actually wider fluctuations than in the period after 1873.

Sentiment among the Democrats of Iowa on the silver question has undergone a revolution during the past few weeks. From either advocating free coinage without qualification or maintaining silence on the issue, the editors of party newspapers have come to be almost unanimous in declaring for an adhesion in this year's platform to the financial plank adopted by the national convention in 1892, and for making the campaign on State issues. The Des Moines *Leader* recently asked the editors of the Democratic dailies what policy they thought should be adopted, and with a single exception the replies are against raising the silver issue. Most significant of all is the declaration of the editor of the leading German newspaper of the State, which says:

"Do not allow the party to commit itself to the Populistic theory of free and unlimited coinage of silver, for there are thousands of

honest voters who can never be made to believe that 50 cents is equal to 100 cents, and I am certain not many German-American editors could be found who would undertake the task to teach their friends such a treacherous and deceitful kind of arithmetic."

While a number of the most prominent newspapers in the South have been on the right side throughout the financial controversy, there have been several States where the reverse was the case. It is a fact of great significance that some of these journals are now changing their position. Thus, in Tennessee the Nashville *American*, the old Democratic organ at the State capital, has recently abandoned the cause of free coinage. In Mississippi the Vicksburg *Commercial Herald*, which for years has been simply wild about silver, has recovered its sanity. In Arkansas the Little Rock *Gazette*, which was formerly for free coinage and latterly noncommittal, celebrated the anniversary of national independence by coming out strongly against the policy. Declaring that "the people of the United States want no money but the best," it says that "the farmers of Arkansas who have been laboring so hard for years in search of markets for their fruits and vegetables and other products, and who have just found them, could hardly be expected to sanction a radical change in the currency system of the country that would cheapen the dollars they are now receiving for their varied and valuable crops," and proceeds:

"Agriculturists in other States where interest in the general welfare of the nation has not been wholly abandoned feel the same way, and those who are Democrats will not lose sight of this fact when they instruct their delegates next year how to vote in the national convention of their party on a question to debase the finances of this prosperous republic. The instructions will surely not be in line with those dictated by the mine-owners of Colorado."

While such newspapers as the abovementioned have changed to the right side, not one case has been reported of a change the other way.

Word comes from Kentucky that Senator Blackburn has so far recovered from the shock of the recent State convention as to "bow to the will of the majority." It is to be hoped that he may be left at home to do all his bowing in a private capacity, because there is no knowing what a man in his state of mind may do next. Bowing to the will of the majority in this case means merely that he will vote against the free coinage of silver, but it guarantees nothing as to his general financial policy. He may vote against any and every measure adopted or recommended by the Administration to maintain the gold reserve. It is probably true that he has no ideas on these subjects that are not liable to change on short notice—as short, for example, as that which has caused his present bowing to the will of the majority. The Senate needs men whose ideas are sound all the way through, like Senator Lindsay for example. The State of Kentucky wants a man of whom it can be said that "we always know where to find him." The late Mr. Lamar was such a man. Senator Caffrey of Louisiana, Congressman Patterson of Tennessee, Judge Brawley of South Carolina, Gov. Stone of Mississippi, Congressmen Cobb and ex-Gov. Francis of Missouri are all of this type, and we doubt not that ex-Gov. Buckner and Congressman McCreary of Kentucky belong in the same category. The South has plenty of such men if she only takes pains to find them.

Though prohibition makes no progress, there is in all parts of the country a growing sentiment in favor of such restrictions upon the liquor traffic as public sentiment will enforce. A notable evidence of this tendency is found in the new liquor law passed by the Indiana Legislature, which has just gone into effect. The principle of local option is one of its chief features, the majority of the voters of any ward of a city or election precinct having the power to prevent the establishment of a saloon within its limits by filing a remonstrance, and such remonstrance acts as a bar for two years. Another important feature of the law is the attempt to remove all attractions except liquor itself from the saloon. Neither games, nor music, nor slot machines, nor any other device for attracting patronage will be allowed; chairs and tables and lunch counters are forbidden. All places where intoxicants are sold must be situated upon a street or alley, and neither screens nor any other obstruction to a full view of the interior from the outside will be permitted. The liquor-dealers are going to contest the constitutionality of the law, but unless there are some technical defects not apparent on the surface, it is likely to stand.

The chief State issue in Iowa is the liquor question. The Republicans flattered themselves a year ago that they had got rid of it by the device of passing the so-called "mulct law," under which prohibition was not repealed, but localities were allowed to have saloons when a majority of the voters petitioned for their establishment. But the new law has not satisfied either the Prohibitionists or those who believe in a license system. The establishment of saloons under the protection of the law is a perpetual ground of offence to the extreme element on one side, while the rigorous requirements regarding signatures to petitions offend those who believe in a local-option system and a decision as to license or no license by a popular vote. In some cases only one more than a majority of the voters at the last election need petition to secure saloons, while in others 65 per cent. must sign their names. Then, too, controversies are possible as to the genuineness of signatures, and the saloons at Des Moines have just been closed pending the decision of a court that there were fatal irregularities in the petition. Moreover, the new Legislature must pass upon the question of resubmitting the prohibitory amendment. One feature of last year's compromise was the passage by the Republicans through its first stages of a resolution for that purpose, and now they must make up their minds whether or not to suppress it next winter. On both of these issues the advantage is with the Democrats, but the tide still sets so strongly against the party that nobody expects it to carry the State.

Governor Hastings of Pennsylvania has rendered a public service in following up a "campaign liar." While he was running last year for the office which he now holds, Frank J. O'Connor, a Democratic stump-speaker, accused him of most outrageous fraud, declaring that he was a bankrupt before he went to Johnstown at the time of the flood to take charge of the relief work, but that after his labors he erected a fine new residence and bought $60,000 worth of bonds. The accused candidate brought suit for libel against O'Connor, demanding $50,000 damages, and the case recently came to trial. The Governor's vindication was most complete. Gen. Beaver, who was Governor at the time of the flood, and appointed Hastings manager of the relief work, testified that every dollar of the funds handled had been properly expended and accounted for. The wretched O'Connor had no evidence whatever to present on the other side. Instead, he asked and was granted permission to plead guilty to having uttered a false and libellous charge, and the court allowed him to confess judgment in the sum of $3,000 in favor of the Governor. This verdict against a Democratic campaign liar happily supplements those secured by Van Ingen against Republican organs in this city that falsely accused him of having got a lot of "Cobden Club gold" in 1892 with which to help carry the election for Cleveland. We may now reasonably count upon a more decent standard of campaigning in the next Presidential canvass than was ever before known.

Boss Quay's telegram concerning the conduct of an ex-State Senator who had long followed in the Quay procession, is an apt expression of his sense of what is due to a boss. This State Senator, having decided to support before the next Republican convention certain candidates who are not supported by Quay, wrote a very friendly note to the latter announcing the fact. On receiving it, Quay was so shocked at this exhibition of human depravity that he immediately telegraphed: "This is the coldest-blooded mercenary stab I have encountered in this campaign of assassination." According to Quay's ideas this

man was disloyal. It is rank disloyalty to disobey a superior to whom allegiance is due. Quay considers himself the superior, and all other Pennsylvanians who are not Democrats his vassals. This is not singular. It is one of the commonest errors in our political life that men who find themselves obeyed for a shorter or longer time come to think themselves overlords, and to fancy that they are living in the feudal ages. The singular part of it is that large numbers of their followers think the same thing. Having been put into some office by him, he and they suppose that they are under obligations to serve him the rest of their lives. If they ever had a soul, it has been given to him henceforth to keep and use as he pleases, and he knows just what to do with it every time. "Tell me, oh Q., what thou desirest me to do, and thou knowest that I will cheerfully do it!"—this is their usual prayer; nor has he ever been backward in making his will known. It is against this fearfully demoralizing leadership that the people of Pennsylvania are now rebelling. They are moving for their own freedom, and Quay calls it assassination. The prospect is that it will continue, and that so many persons will be concerned in it that it will eventually take the form of a public lynching.

The Republican legislators of Connecticut are no more eager for honest elections than were Platt's men at Albany. A very good corrupt-practices act was introduced in the Connecticut Legislature early in the session, as was the case in 1893, but, before it could be passed, the politicians went to work at it and cut out the provisions which threatened most harm to their trade. They cut out the limitations which were placed on campaign expenditures, and changed a provision which unseated a successful candidate who was convicted of violating the law, into one which merely fined him. As finally passed, the law compels sworn publication after election, by both candidates and committees, of all moneys received and spent in an election. By including campaign committees with candidates, the law is better than the Hill law in New York, but it is doubtful if it will amount to much in practice beyond giving a certain amount of publicity to expenditures. No machinery is provided for enforcing the law, and it is made nobody's business to see to it that it is enforced. In these respects it is like most of the other nine laws which are now in existence in as many States, none of which causes serious inconvenience to the politicians who get their living out of politics and "handle" the funds for elections.

The greatest credit is due Secretary Morton for the economies which he has effected in the management of the Department of Agriculture. At a period of acute financial and industrial distress, when hundreds of great corporations ceased to pay dividends or interest, and when concerns that remained solvent were obliged to practise the narrowest parsimony, Congress refused to consent to any material reduction in expenditure. Probably the gross income of the country during the last two years has been 15 if not 20 per cent. less in amount than usual, and under such conditions any considerable remission of taxation would have afforded relief and perceptibly increased comfort. But measures that involved reduction of expenses were resisted in the House and suppressed in the Senate. The frightful waste incurred in printing tons of matter that is never read remained unchecked, and the construction of commerce-destroyers went on apace while commerce was declining of itself. In the Department of Agriculture, Secretary Morton pointed out to Congress, great economies might be introduced, and he entreated that body not to compel him to waste the money of the people in utterly unnecessary expenditures. But his appeals fell on deaf ears, as indeed might have been expected when we reflect that Congressmen actually suppose that their constituents elect them for the sake of the packages of seeds they send out from Washington. Secretary Morton, however, seems to have after all succeeded in getting the better of the Congressmen. They wanted to have his department expend $2,500,000, and they thrust an appropriation of that amount upon the Secretary. In spite of this the expenses of the department have been kept down to about $1,800,000, saving nearly $700,000 to the people. Last year Secretary Morton succeeded in saving nearly as much. We doubt if any one could show that the decreased expenditure has caused the loss of a dollar to the country, directly or indirectly, and it must be regarded as so much clear gain. It does not sound like a large sum; but it amounts to the entire annual income of 2,000 poor families.

No better evidence that the public sentiment of the nation is turning against the Jingoists could be furnished than the fact that Ingalls of Kansas, who is again a candidate for the Senate, has come out strongly against their policy. Henry Cabot Lodge has been delivering himself afresh of his favorite ideas in favor of annexing Hawaii and Cuba, and a "vigorous foreign policy." Ingalls, on the other hand, declares that the notion of acquiring dependencies and colonial possessions, "to be governed like conquered provinces," is not consonant with our system; insists that "the Hawaiian episode is one of the most scandalous chapters in American diplomacy," and that "it is to the credit of the common sense of the American people that they have not yielded to this mercenary clamor, and that they perceive the absurdity of maintaining costly establishments upon a group of islands inhabited by an alien race 2,000 miles from our shores"; and in the course of his article says:

> "For these and many other reasons the 'Jingo,' the aggressive, domineering advocate of a swaggering foreign policy, has never been a favorite in American politics. The people instinctively recognize the limitations of a representative popular democracy and cannot be misled."

Of course everybody knows that Ingalls is every whit as great a demagogue as Lodge, and that he would not be restrained from being as blatant a Jingoist by any considerations of statesmanship. The significance of his protest lies in the fact that he has been studying public opinion.

The systems of duties established reciprocally by France and Switzerland have been suspended, and a commercial arrangement just concluded between the two countries which is by comparison much worse than the Wilson measure. Its chief importance lies in the fact that it is the first departure from the principle laid down by France that there should be no duties below those prescribed in the *minimum* tariff. The French were willing to grant the minimum tariff in 1892, but the Swiss insisted upon reductions below this scale, which the protectionists in the French Chamber refused to grant. Since that time the trade between the two countries has rapidly declined. While this was of course satisfactory from the protectionist point of view, it had nevertheless some unpleasant features. One of these was the circumstance that the amount of the duties collected by the French Government upon imports from Switzerland under the high tariff was only about half a million dollars more than would have been produced by the minimum tariff, while the duties collected by the Swiss were more than five times as large. Thus, according to protectionist logic, France was hurt five times as much as Switzerland. What was worse, the high tariff almost extinguished the export of a number of articles from France, the bulk of the exports coming to be of things upon which the duties were low. But, worse than all, the very goods which the Swiss formerly bought of the French they were found to be now buying of the Germans and Italians; and of course the political relations between these countries and Switzerland were thus rendered more cordial, while the estrangement with France was increasing. Even the French protectionists, who are more extreme than any others, appear to have concluded that in this case there was something wrong with the working of the system, and the new commercial arrangement reduces the duties imposed by France upon some thirty articles of Swiss production even below the rates of the minimum tariff. The whole episode is interesting to the advocates of free trade, and seems to call for more explanation on the part of the protectionists than it has hitherto received.

SHORTER PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGNS.

THE Liberal Government was defeated in the House of Commons on the night of June 21, two weeks ago last Friday. The resignations of the Ministers were presented to the Queen on Saturday night. Lord Salisbury was summoned to Windsor Castle on Monday, and promptly organized a new government. Parliament remained in session a few days to pass certain necessary bills over which no partisan contest was possible, and was prorogued last Monday. The first elections for members of the new House will take place in the boroughs on Saturday next, July 13, and the other members will be chosen within a fortnight. A month from the time when the Rosebery Ministry was defeated will suffice for the choice of a new House and the settlement of the question whether the Conservatives or the Liberals are to control the government.

Now that the politicians in the United States are already discussing how early in 1896 they can open the next Presidential campaign, and trying to push forward the time for the nominating conventions to May, it is well for Americans to consider the sharp contrast between our system and that which prevails in England. Nobody in England complains that the electoral campaigns in that country are not long enough to fully inform the voters on the issues, and yet they never exceed a few weeks. It is true that the English do not have our system of nominating through party conventions the opposing candidates for the position of chief executive, which would somewhat lengthen the canvass; but even allowing a month for that, the whole process would extend over only about two months.

National conventions were first held in the United States for the Presidential election of 1832. The first party in the field was the Anti-Masons, whose representatives met at Baltimore on the 26th of September, 1831, and named William Wirt for President. The National Republicans, as those were then called who afterwards became known as Whigs, nominated Henry Clay on December 12, 1831, and the Democrats followed on the 21st of May, 1832, endorsing Andrew Jackson for a second term unanimously, and putting up Martin Van Buren for Vice-President. The preliminary canvass for the election of 1836 opened still earlier, Van Buren being nominated as Jackson's successor on the 20th of May, 1835. The "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too," campaign of 1840 was begun by the nomination of Harrison in a convention which met on the 4th of December, 1839. This was the last time that a Presidential candidate was named in the year before the election, and nearly all the subsequent conventions down to the civil war were held in either May or June. Since that time June has been the favorite month, though the Democrats have more than once postponed the choice of a candidate until July, and in 1864 did not meet until the end of August.

Two generations ago there were good reasons for an early opening of a Presidential campaign. The telegraph and the railroad were unknown, newspapers were few in numbers and small in circulation, and the modern appliances for promptly spreading information had hardly begun to be developed. If nominating conventions had not been held as early as the opening of the election year, it would have been difficult to make the scattered voters in the remoter regions fully understand the character of the candidates and the significance of the platforms upon which they stood. But we have changed all that. We live in an age of daily newspapers, of express trains, of electric telegraphs. People keep fully informed of the issues in a Presidential contest as they slowly shape themselves before the nominating conventions meet. The names of the candidates are known throughout the country within a few hours after the convention reaches its decision, and the platform is telegraphed in full to newspapers in even the most distant States. The canvass can therefore open within twenty-four hours after the meeting of the last convention.

Under such circumstances, to talk about holding a national convention in May, as some of the Republican managers are now doing, is the height of absurdity. Not a single argument based upon considerations of the public welfare can be urged in favor of the scheme. On the other hand, there are plenty of strong reasons against it. The people are opposed to such long campaigns. They are only wearied by attempts to stretch the excitements and distractions of a canvass over half a year. The scheme practically nullifies the value of a whole session of Congress. This body will meet early in December, 1895, and if Presidential nominations are to be made in the following May, legislative work will hardly begin before the politics involved in intrigues for the nominations will monopolize attention, and the public business will be neglected. Worst of all, a long campaign promotes corruption by furnishing an excuse for the managers to raise immense campaign funds that are not needed for honest purposes, on the plea of the great expense involved in carrying on a national contest for so many months.

Instead of holding Presidential conventions as early as May, they should be postponed until after the end of summer. Let a date early in September be fixed for the simultaneous choice of delegates in all the States, thus doing away with the schemes to help certain candidates unfairly by calling early conventions in States where they are strong; let the convention meet ten days later; and then let all hands turn in for a vigorous six weeks' campaign, ending with the election early in November. The people, the Government, the public morals would all benefit immensely by such a change.

THE UNSPEAKABLE MILLIONAIRE.

IT appears to be requisite to the complete and symmetrical development of human nature that it should be constantly furnished with some object of horror and reprobation. From the days of Gog and Magog down to the present time, no community has been so backward as to be unprovided with a bogy of some description, and indeed hardly any human being is so poor in spirit as not to be able to "view with alarm" some dangerous tendencies in the conduct of his neighbors. We have had our share of painful apprehensions in this country. There was dread of disunion and sectional strife in the first half of the century—alarm that was only too well founded, but that might have been more justly occasioned by the toleration of slavery. Since the Union was finally reconstituted, if we consider the lot of the other nations of the earth there does not seem to have been very much to worry about. But many minds are disquieted by visions of European aggression, and we spend the interest upon a thousand millions of money in maintaining a navy, in order to calm the nerves of those who cannot sleep for fear that England may get a foothold in Venezuela, or fasten the end of a telegraph wire to Hawaii.

But the most popular bugaboo at present is the outcome of prosperity. After the civil war was over, our people cheerfully set to work to get rich, and succeeded remarkably well. The condition of the poorer sort was greatly improved, and the general standard of living materially raised. But in the acquisition of wealth some succeeded a great deal better than others, and as it is easy to get richer when you are rich, their fortunes soon came to be large, and there came to be a good many of them. This was a consequence of prosperity which had apparently not been foreseen, and to the present generation it has become a positive nightmare. For a time the thunders of popular disapproval were visited upon rich corporations. These metaphysical entities were endowed with all the most dangerous of human passions, unrestrained by any human virtues, and have been most overwhelmingly belabored with every variety of abuse which the ingenuity of journalists and the zeal of demagogues could devise.

There has of late come some inkling into the popular mind that corporations are, after all, only legal fictions, and that what is real about them is their directors and stockholders. And as the wealth of a rich corporation may be owned by a large number of poor stockholders, including even the millions of depositors in our savings-banks, it has not seemed of late quite so popular a thing to denounce corporations indiscriminate-

ly. The alarmists have in fact begun to suspect that they have been "barking up the wrong tree"; and they are now locating the true danger to our civilization in the existence of millionaires. It is they who ignore the rights of labor in their lust for gain; who crush the poor competitor with their gigantic capital and combinations; who invade the halls of legislation and seduce our guileless aldermen and our innocent legislators from the paths of stern integrity.

We confess that we were of late a little startled to find the *Saturday Review* turning against the millionaires. No journal could permanently maintain the pace set by such intellectual athletes as Stephen and Freeman, but we were hardly prepared for such a breach with its past as is involved in an attack upon accumulated wealth. It is commonly believed in England that a certain Mr. Vanderbilt of New York has just built himself a house in that city at the cost of $5,000,000. This, according to a writer in the *Saturday Review*, is a proceeding which the community has an "economic right" to be consulted about. Mr. Vanderbilt did not produce this sum that he has assumed to expend. Probably it would have existed even if he had never come into existence. If he had employed this money productively, it would have been all right; but his action involved "what may be called the petrifying of wealth—the fixing of it in an immovable shape." This is "to arrest the circular flow of wealth into labor, and labor into wealth again." Mr. Vanderbilt "has taken an extreme portion of wealth created by himself and society, and imbedded it in a form from which it is unlikely that anything like a corresponding use can be got." This is to be condemned.

Now as to the condemnation by private or public opinion of the conduct of this generic Mr. Vanderbilt in building this hypothetical mansion, we shall not concern ourselves. We may add that the economic reasoning above quoted is entirely sound. It simply illustrates the distinction between productive and unproductive consumption, familiar to every reader of Smith and Mill and Fawcett. Does it follow from this that the possession of property to the amount of a million dollars shall be prohibited or discouraged by law? Or can the Legislature devise statutes that shall prevent millionaires from spending their money unproductively? Shall they be forbidden to buy paintings to an amount in excess of, say, fifty thousand dollars, to pay more than five thousand dollars for a statue, or to have their books bound in anything but cloth? And if we can choke out the millionaire, will not all the same evils exist if we tolerate the possessors of a half-million, while the aggregate wealth of the community will be diminished?

The truth is, that dalliance with this notion that millionaires are a social curse and ought to be abated by law leads straight to communism. To the vast majority of the community the disparity between their condition and that of the man with ten thousand dollars seems as great as the disparity seems to the latter between his fortune and that of the millionaire. Outside of the towns, a man with a fortune of a hundred thousand dollars has far more influence and power in his community than a millionaire has in the city of New York. His unproductive expenditure is just as trying to his neighbors' peace of mind as that of Mr. Vanderbilt to the *Saturday Review;* and if we are to have any legislation on the subject, we may be quite sure that the people will not be satisfied unless it strikes well down to the ten-thousand-dollar limit. A late Chief Justice of Massachusetts was once approached by an inquisitive carpenter who lived near him, with the suggestion that it might cost him nearly $1,500 a year to maintain his family. The reply of the Chief Justice that he should be glad if he could get along on twice that sum, nearly paralyzed his humble neighbor, who could only gasp: "Why, Judge, that's wicked!" Such is the natural attitude of men towards any expenditure much in excess of their own. They feel that there must be something wrong in the constitution of society that permits such extravagance; but woe to the community that begins to legislate at the dictation of envy. That passion can never be gratified until every distinction or advantage gained by ability or virtue or even good fortune is done away with, and equality is attained by bringing all down to the level of the lowest.

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT IN INDIA.

The task of ruling her great Asiatic dependency, as every one knows, was not deliberately undertaken by Great Britain. The possessions originally acquired by a trading company became, in the course of time, too great to be governed by any power that was not sovereign, and when the responsibility had once been assumed it could not be laid down. It is common to hear the English rule denounced as illustrating "the lust of conquest," and to speak of it as forced upon the inhabitants of India without their consent. But no sober writer can deny that where England has for generations maintained unbroken peace, there would have been without her control incessant and internecine war, or that the lust of conquest would have been indulged to the last expense of Oriental ferocity. Under her rule millions of men and women have lived tranquilly and in comparative freedom who would have been slaughtered or enslaved had she withdrawn from India, and the country has gradually acquired many of the conveniences and comforts of modern civilization. If such government can be called oppressive, it must yet be admitted that any government that would have sprung up had the English not maintained their dominion, would have been far more so. The management of this great trust has been largely in the hands of Englishmen of the highest order of ability, and there are few communities in Europe that might not be glad to be relieved of their present rulers, if their legislation and general jurisprudence could be planned and moulded by Macaulay and Maine and Stephen.

Yet it has been felt as a reproach by many enlightened Englishmen that so many millions of their fellow-creatures should be held in such complete, even if beneficent, subjection. The steady extension of the suffrage in Great Britain has made the inconsistency of denying representative government in India more conspicuous, and of recent years the English Radicals have demanded some modification of this policy. At the same time the progress of education in India and the admission of natives to administrative positions under the Government, have created something in the nature of a public sentiment among the Hindus, and this sentiment has manifested itself in a demand that some voice in the government should be conceded to the subjects. The difficulties in the way of such a concession, it is easy to see, have been enormous, and complete self-government is, and will be for an indefinite time, out of the question. Nevertheless, some steps have been taken in this direction, and although the details are too technical to be here presented, the scheme may be stated in outline.

It is scarcely necessary to say that there is nothing "logical" about the plan adopted. It is not the English way to lay down a system of principles and endeavor to construct a body of institutions in harmony with them. The plan followed has been to make use of representative bodies already in existence, such as the municipalities and district boards, and to allow them to select such persons as they think will best represent their constituencies in the provincial Legislature. Thus, in the province of Bengal, with its seventy millions of inhabitants, the choice of the seven representatives whom it was decided to allow it to send to the legislative council was arranged as follows. The recognized divisions of Bengal are, and always have been, Calcutta and the country outside of Calcutta. As the correspondent of the London *Times* explains:

"Calcutta is not merely the seat of the provincial and imperial governments in Bengal, its one huge emporium of trade and steam manufactures, and the outlet for its products; it is also the single university city of the province, the metropolis of its accumulated wealth, and the focus of the intellectual and political forces that are now at work among the educated classes. The Bengal plan of an electorate recognizes this fact, and assigns three of the seven representatives in its Legislature to the interests centred in the capital. The corporation of Calcutta elects one member, the Calcutta University a second, the Bengal Chamber of Commerce in Calcutta a third. The four other members are elected by

the municipalities and district boards throughout the province."

But in order to distribute the representation with some regard to population and local area, a different district is taken at each election as the area to be represented. The result is, that the municipalities of each division of Bengal respectively send, once in eight years, a representative who sits for two years in the legislative council of the province. A similar method is applied to the rural divisions. The district boards, which somewhat resemble the county councils of England, are formed into eight groups. Two groups send a member every two years, and thus once in eight years each group sends a member who sits for two years. In this way the disturbance of a biennial election throughout the whole province is avoided, and the apprehended machinations of the Calcutta politicians are frustrated. The general result is, that an election occurs in every group once in four years; a member being chosen from the municipalities every eighth year, and one from the rural districts also every eighth year.

The method by which these electoral units select their representatives is that of the electoral college. Every municipality, or every district board, as the case may be, appoints one or more electoral delegates, according to its importance. These delegates are assembled at some convenient local centre by summons from the Government, and choose a representative by majority vote. It is true that elections so made have, strictly speaking, only the effect of nominations. The Lieutenant-Governor of the province has the power of appointment; but as a matter of course he appoints those who have been elected. It should be added that a large proportion of the legislative council is still made up of members directly appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor.

It is of course idle to forecast the future of this significant experiment. The consequences may be of the most far-reaching kind, or they may prove to be entirely nugatory. But so far the results have been unexpectedly gratifying. It had been feared that the representatives from Bengal might not be of high character, but as a matter of fact exactly those men were chosen who had long been recognized as the heads of the great interests of the province. Two Hindu nobles were chosen, two Hindu barristers, and a Hindu journalist. The others were a titled Mussulman and a British merchant. The Hindu representatives are with one exception Brahmans, representing every phase of Hinduism, from one "who spends a little fortune every morning in feeding Brahmans," to another "who educates his sons at Rugby and at Oxford, and divides his year between his house in Calcutta and that in Surrey." We see no reason why many of the advantages of representative government may not be obtained through this system of election. Democracy of course impossible in such a society as that of India, and the scheme of representation adopted seems calculated to secure the advantages of aristocratical government without its dangers.

ALASKA REVISITED.—II.

METLAKATLA.

JUNE, 1895.

ALL interested in missions to the Indians know of Mr. Duncan's famous settlement at Metlakatla, B. C., and how it was broken up by the senseless bigotry of those who "give tithes of anise and cummin," yet neglect the weightier matters of the law. Mr. Wellcombe's book containing the painful details was reviewed some years ago in the *Nation*. The strife was ended by the community abandoning their home and all their non-portable possessions and migrating in a body to Annette Island, Alaska, where, under their faithful leader, a new Metlakatla was established on the shores of the harbor of Port Chester. This island, an uninhabited wilderness up to the time of Duncan's settlement, now possesses the prettiest, most progressive, and successful native settlement on the whole Pacific Coast. Here first was electric lighting introduced into Alaska, the power being supplied by a mountain stream, which also runs a saw-mill and supplies the town with pure water. Neat cottages are ranged in orderly fashion, with good plank sidewalks and broad streets (from which, it is true, the stumps are not yet eliminated), school and church, the beginnings of a still larger place of worship, warehouses, workshops, an excellent pier of timber, and several neat sailing-vessels at anchor in the bay—all the property of the community. It is, as may be supposed, a sober, hard-working, self-respecting, and religious community, and, for greater security before the law, has been incorporated as an industrial association.

Mr. Duncan explained his system briefly to a party which called on him while the steamer discharged its freight. First, in his opinion, it was important to obtain a thorough knowledge of the native language, so as to be able to talk freely to the people and to convey to them new ideas on morals and religion without filtering them through the debased medium of the Chinook jargon so commonly used on this coast; then, having interested them in such matters, and convinced them that their material welfare must necessarily march with progress in spiritual matters, cleanliness, and the acquirement of knowledge, to remove them bodily from contact with the vices of the trading-post and frontier town. Isolation he considered imperative for the beginner in the new way, but the second generation, brought up away from contamination, he thought largely able to resist temptation and stand alone. This view is corroborated by the fact that many of the younger people go to mining camps, and even to Puget Sound, where their industrial training renders them useful, and come unscathed out of the trial. I had the pleasure of talking with one of them at Seattle, where he was employed as a sort of clerk on the steamer dock, and found him a bright, sensible fellow, talking English as well as any one about him, and apparently fully as well able to hold his own in any respectable community as any other young man of his age and training.

The original Metlakatlans were Chimsian Indians, but at Port Chester they have been joined by many other Alaskan Indians who have a desire to share in the prosperity of their new neighbors. Of a newcomer it is required that he absolutely renounce liquor of any sort, and agree to conform to the regulations by which the community governs itself, and to remain in the community until such time as he may be regarded as able to withstand temptation. He may go away at any time, if dissatisfied, but if he desires to stay, he must conform to the rules. He must take his part in the common village work, and live on friendly terms with those about him. Among other industries recently introduced by Mr. Duncan is that of curing and smoking halibut, which are very fine and abundant in the neighborhood. Our steamer took away a first shipment of some forty large cases of this delicacy.

The village is picturesquely situated on a good harbor, and is surrounded by a considerable area of level land, mostly forested, but, when cleared, showing a deep, rich black loam well suited for vegetables; several gardens were already tilled. In the background rise steep round-topped mountains, from which the water-supply is obtained. In 1891 Congress reserved the whole of this island for the use and occupancy of the Metlakatla Indians and such others as may hereafter join themselves to them for mutual improvement, subject to regulations by the Interior Department. Recently some traces of mineral veins have been discovered by prospectors on the east side of the island, and application has been made to the Department of the Interior for permission to conduct mining operations. Meanwhile it is stated that a party has landed without permission and proposes to hold a claim forcibly, on the ground that the language of the act does not specifically exclude miners, and that its intent was only to convey a tenancy external to the mineral rights. The latter assertion is, of course, erroneous, as every one interested knows that the intent was to secure isolation for the Indians, and keep out exactly those things which accompany mining camps. The Interior Department will doubtless refuse its permission; but, if there be any ambiguity in the law, or any doubt as to the duty of the authorities to exclude all intruders, all friends of the Indian should unite at the next session of Congress to have the defect cured. Otherwise the old sad story will be repeated, and the most hopeful experiment ever made with our Northwestern Indians is doomed to failure. I have reason to believe that the policy of the Interior Department in regard to the Indians of this region is all that the friends of justice could wish, but this policy should be backed up by public opinion.

It may be thought that disproportionate attention is here paid to a single mission when other praiseworthy and analogous establishments are to be found in Alaska. But all those familiar with the coast are aware that Mr. Duncan's work is unique, not only in its methods, but in its success. It is the only mission establishment on the coast which compels appreciation and praise from both friendly and unfriendly critics of missions. Every other sailor-man, miner, or fisherman one meets will have a growl about missions and missionaries in general, but I have never met one who did not, on further questioning, make a more or less willing exception in favor of the Metlakatla mission. That the churches have not accepted Mr. Duncan's methods is partly explained by the fact that the latter are really non-sectarian, though thoroughly Christian, on the side of religion; and that on their business side they require an unusual amount of good judgment and capacity for affairs, as

well as a knowledge of business methods very rare among missionaries. I inquired of Mr. Duncan whether he thought the community sufficiently well advanced to hold its own in case he were suddenly taken from the work. He replied that he thought it could. I may add that rumors are frequently started, and even printed, to the effect that Mr. Duncan is about to leave his work, to retire with a fortune, etc.; but these may be ascribed to those to whom such action would be welcome, and who seek to weaken the public support the mission has heretofore received. It may be safely asserted that his place is with the people he has rescued from ignorance and sin, and that he does not dream of leaving them. In the willing service of the older men and the bright and intelligent faces of the young people, one may trace the affection he has inspired and the reward of his persistent labor. It seems almost incredible that the descendants in the third generation from untamed savagery should have developed into the intelligent manly and womanly young people we saw about us. That the agency instrumental in bringing about this change should be wrecked by public indifference and private greed would be a national disgrace. W. H. D.

THE LIBERAL OVERTHROW.

London, June 28, 1895.

The Liberals have been defeated, and a general election is imminent. To estimate the situation regarding Ireland, we must take a broad view of political events. In Irish affairs, the past and the present are near to each other. Half a century ago, in 1845, Ireland was acknowledged by liberal-minded politicians to require reform as to the Established Church, the Land, Local Government, and the Municipal Franchise. Disestablishment was not carried for twenty-four years, and then mainly in consequence of the attention drawn to Irish affairs by the Fenian conspiracy. No important land reform was effected until thirteen years later, after an agitation that shook Irish society to its foundations and led to extensive alterations in Parliamentary practice and procedure. The peculiar position of Ireland has been additionally emphasized since 1859, when in Great Britain the volunteers sprang to arms. It was then, and it has ever since been, considered unsafe to trust Irishmen in like manner with arms for the defence of their country. The year 1885 found Ireland behind the sister country in many respects, and in all those main reforms held desirable forty years previously which disturbance had not forced on British attention. Another and a more important reform, the concession to Ireland of national self-government, had all along been demanded by the Irish people. This was, in 1885, admitted to be just and necessary by Mr. Gladstone and the Liberal party. Both British parties had come to declare their willingness to place Ireland in a position of equality with Great Britain in local affairs and internal administration. In 1886 the Conservatives succeeded to power. After a severe recrudescence of discontent in Ireland, they granted additional land reform, at the same time imposing upon Ireland the most drastic coercion act of the century, an act subjecting her to the almost arbitrary rule of whatever Lord Lieutenant might be in office, and which, moreover, was to be of perpetual application. No attempt was made at the reforms generally acknowledged to be required in Ireland. By the same Government, County Councils were instituted in Great Britain. Rent reductions in England to a greater extent than in Ireland were brought about voluntarily without suffering or legal process, by the force of public opinion, and through the good will English landlords bore their tenants. In 1892 Mr. Gladstone and the Liberals returned to power, pledged to remedy every Irish grievance and terminate the strife of centuries. The party of progress have loyally done their best. They have carried large and wide-reaching measures for Great Britain. For Ireland they carried a Home Rule bill in the House of Commons, and instituted valuable commissions of inquiry into the administration of the Irish Land acts and the financial relations of Great Britain and Ireland, but they have *accomplished* nothing regarding home rule or great reforms considered necessary in 1845; they have not been able even to repeal the Coercion Act. As in Byron's time, "The castle still stands, though the Senate's no more."

Ireland, after all her hopes and strivings, has gained nothing. Great Britain could not have obtained what she has obtained without the help of the Irish members. Ten years ago Great Britain appeared overflowing with sympathy and enthusiasm for Ireland. Yet she saw almost without a murmur the Home Rule bill contemptuously thrown out by the Lords. Why has she become so apathetic? The Irish representatives, disappointed in their own hopes, have not shirked their duties at Westminster, where their attendance is far more difficult and onerous than that of British members. The *Daily News*, the acknowledged organ of the Liberal party, in commenting on Sir William Harcourt's valedictory speech, writes as follows: "His acknowledgment of the assistance he had derived from his political supporters would have been incomplete indeed if it had not included the Irish Nationalists, whose splendid fidelity to the Liberal cause in England and Scotland has never been surpassed throughout the history of political alliances." They have done in Ireland what the Liberals could not do in Great Britain—held their seats against all comers. Mr. Parnell, after having conferred on Ireland greater benefits than any other statesman within the century, proved himself to most Irishmen unreliable, and blasted his own reputation as his English enemies had failed of doing. At the election of 1892, the Irish people, through their representatives, by 72 to 9, declared against him. No people, even in the greatest crises of its history, has been homogeneous. The English and Scotch were divided in their allegiance between the Stuarts and the Hanoverians. Lincoln, in the throes of the war of the rebellion, was not elected unopposed. Irish differences are accentuated by the fact that in Ireland political majorities have no more power than minorities. In boards, councils, and corporations in Ireland where the majority has power to enforce decisions, business proceeds as smoothly as in other countries. Any tendency in the Liberals to retrocession regarding home rule on side pleas, such as Irish opposition to voting funds for a Cromwell statue, would have looked like repudiating obligations after having gained material advantages through Irish assistance.

The present supineness in Great Britain regarding Irish home rule can be accounted for only by the quiescence of Ireland and the steady opposition of Irish Protestants to the measure. Ten years ago, when British sympathy was at its height, Ireland was in a condition of semi-rebellion, with hundreds of excellent men, including the Lord Mayor of Dublin, M. P., and other mayors and members of Parliament in prison and treated as common malefactors, under summary processes of law unknown in Great Britain. Ireland is now quieter than ever before within the century. John Bull, while particularly sensitive to disturbances and suffering under his eyes, is singularly unable to enter into the feelings of others regarding grievances not apparent to him. On the other hand, British platforms are now thronged with Protestant delegations from Ireland, declaring that the concession of home rule would entail upon them at the hands of the Catholic majority disabilities and outrages like those inflicted on the Armenians by the Turks. Constituencies are flooded with men and women from Ulster whispering into the ears of their fellow-Protestants prognostications which there is no opportunity of openly combating. Were England Catholic, would she be more influenced by a Protestant majority or a Catholic minority in Ireland? This is, in truth, the *crux* of the Irish difficulty—Irish Protestants hold a position of domination over the Catholic majority; this position they cling to with desperate tenacity; they have a steady influence over British public opinion, which is broken through by the Catholic majority only in seasons of unrest and turmoil. Irish feeling abroad, on which Ireland formerly so unfailingly counted, besides having been discouraged by divisions in a once united party at home, is not, since the enactment of effectual land reform, maintained to the same extent as before by a constant accession of exiles burning with a sense of ill treatment from their landlords. Having been freed from an alien church establishment, and having obtained a measure of land reform, Ireland would now be incapable of another Fenian organization. Ireland, decade by decade, through depopulation, is weaker to wrest reform from the sister island. Since 1844 her population has decreased from 8,200,000 (44 per cent. that of Great Britain) to 4,700,000 (14 per cent. that of Great Britain).

The chances of home rule, which, ten years ago, appeared assured, are now uncertain. While the Liberals have never failed in ultimately making law any great measure which they had once carried to a second reading, no other such measure ever met such opposition as the Home Rule bill, and the feelings of the masses in Great Britain prove not to be deeply engaged in it. On the other hand, Ireland remains the only distinct English-speaking community in the world that has not practically the management of her own internal affairs. A central Parliament cannot legislate intelligently for the minute concerns of four different peoples numbering 40,000,000 as well as for a foreign empire of some 300,000,000 subjects. Ireland is, however, with the exception of the Province of Quebec, the only English-speaking country in which the race and religion that dominate in all other English-speaking portions of the empire are in a minority; in which settlers from England retaining their historical traditions and their religion, have failed to impose their own creed upon and completely subject the native race. And in no other such country were greater cruelties resorted to or more strenuous efforts made to secure these ends. The home-rule idea carries with it the traditions not of the dominant but of the conquered and unassimilated people (whose capacity to resist is, however, no doubt largely due to the fact of their mixed race partaking of the steady qualities of their oppressors). In view of all these considerations, and of the determined opposition of Irish Protestantism adde

to Irish bickerings and divisions, it requires some clearness and steadiness of political vision to perceive that home rule is the only means of obtaining union for common interests and harmonious coöperation in Ireland and between Ireland and Great Britain—of eliminating bitter memories, and raising Irishmen generally to responsible, self-respecting citizenship. The Salisbury-Ulster view of Irish affairs is based on the assumption that Irishmen are essentially and necessarily different from and inferior to others, that eternal unrest and enmity between Irishmen in Ireland and between the two islands is inevitable. The home-rule view is that this unrest and enmity will disappear when those principles of government are restored to Ireland which once worked well there and which succeed in other countries.

The immediate future cannot be forecast. The home-rule party is divided and apparently short of funds. The Unionist party in Ireland was never more spirited and compact, and is amply supplied with the sinews of war. The present influence of the Catholic Church, as a church, in both Great Britain and Ireland, seems to be against change. Agitation on purely home-rule grounds before home rule was amalgamated with the land question, was but scantily supported in Ireland. The Unionists profess themselves ready to settle the land question. National ideas are usually best supported in large civic centres. Ireland has few such. A permanent alliance between British Non-Conformists and Irish Catholics can hardly be expected. Irish voters will show wonderful perspicacity if the failure of the Liberal party to carry Irish measures does not increase the followers of Mr. Redmond, who has steadily maintained that, in adhering to the Liberals after the defeat of home rule, Irish members were following only a will-o'-the-wisp. The majority of the Irish members, in continuing to support the Liberal policy, showed their wisdom and foresight, but their action was peculiarly open to misconception and misrepresentation. Mr. Morley has manifested more real sympathy and greater capacity than any other Irish Chief Secretary. But he has not succeeded in settling the education difficulty or in governing entirely without packed juries, force at evictions, suppression of public meetings, or recourse to a statute of Edward III., obsolete in Great Britain. Trenchant Liberal criticism of Conservative arbitrariness in Ireland will be difficult. Whatever occurs, Irishmen will hardly consent permanently to lag behind their British fellow-subjects in government and administration. Once radical changes are attempted in the present centralized Castle system, it will be found almost impossible to proceed on other than home-rule lines, and without in some way enlisting on the side of law and order the abilities and the national sentiments of Irishmen. National feeling animated Irish Protestants when they depended not upon external force, but on the good-will of their fellow-countrymen. In most Irish Protestants, under present circumstances, such feeling appears dead. Is it not rather in abeyance? Would it not again assert itself under former conditions? D. B.

ITALIAN AFFAIRS.

ROME, June 18, 1895.

NOTHING could be more curiously indicative of the demoralization which political passion has produced in Italian affairs than the letter of "J. W. M." in the *Nation* of June 6, and the writer's evident blindness to the conclusion which must be drawn as to the hopeless degradation of Italian politics. "J. W. M." seems to have lost sight of the fact that political liberty in Italy runs to the extreme of an almost ungovernable license, and that moderate public opinion has been for a long time calling for a tightening of the bonds which secure society against anarchy. Under the administration of Signor Giolitti the social revolution had been allowed to plot and plan undisturbed until all the capacities of his Government were insufficient to control it, and all parties except the revolutionary had united in the call for Crispi as the only man in the country capable of restoring order.

Leaving out all differences of opinion as to the qualities of persons, and the larger questions of form of government, the misstatement of facts in the letter referred to is such as to call for rectification. The question of taxation by royal decree is an old and obscure one, but past governments have resorted to it for temporary purposes, and the decision of the Court of Cassation, which corresponds (as nearly as the system permits) to our Supreme Court, has decided that it is legal. It is a question of the imposition under pressing emergency of a tax which has to pass the ordeal of subsequent approval by the Parliament, and, in case of refusal to approve it, the amount of the tax collected has to be refunded. In this case the Parliament had approved the budget as a whole, and had adjourned before all the items of the provision had been voted, though they had been accepted by implication. Only those taxes were applied which had been so included in the approved scheme, and all the subsequent propositions of the Minister of the Treasury were suspended until passed by the Parliament. On the reconvocation of Parliament it became evident that the Radicals were determined to prevent the Chamber from doing any business as long as Crispi remained in the Government, and the sittings were a continuation of scandals and violence such as I have never seen in that most disorderly of all assemblies, so that day after day was passed without a single item of business being transacted. On the last day the violence was such that the Deputies actually came to blows in the lobbies, and the next day there was a largely expressed determination to go to the Chamber armed, and, by the testimony of well-informed witnesses, there was danger of actual fighting. The Chamber was prorogued to prevent violence.

This measure had been prepared for several days before on account of the general condition of the atmosphere of the Chamber, but the subsequent acute state of storm developed by the Giolitti *plico*, now seen to be the concoction of the most disgraceful conspiracy this land of conspirators has ever hatched, made it impossible to go on. The meeting in the Sala Rossa was a convocation of all the leaders of the Opposition and their flocks, to the number of about 150, to devise measures for compelling Crispi to resign and meet the charges contained in the Giolitti *plico*; and in that meeting it was determined to carry on that agitation in the Chamber. The Senate, meanwhile, had examined the *plico*, and pronounced it unworthy of attention, and it was clear to everybody that the use sought to be made of it in the Chamber was simply factious. Under these circumstances the Government declined to reconvoke the Parliament until signs of a better disposition should appear. But that Chamber was hostile to Crispi—had been elected under Giolitti, and by an amount of illegal pressure never known before in the history of Italian Parliaments, except in the case of some by-elections under Nicotera; and the general feeling of the country having long before demanded its dissolution, this would have been decreed but for the troubled state of the country following the insurrectionary movements in Sicily and Lunigiana, and the impossibility of holding elections in the provinces where martial law existed.

The Ministry finally decided to dissolve, but, as the Parliament during its sane moments had passed a law to purge the electoral registers of all the illegal inscriptions (which in some districts were nearly half the entire registration), it was considered indispensable to await the result of this operation. The insinuation that this was a pretext is without a shadow of justification, for delay told against the Government more than in its favor, and Crispi repeatedly and continually urged the prefects to hurry the operations. But these were not carried on by the prefects, but by the communal and provincial councils, with final revision by the Court of Cassation, so that the Ministry is absolutely precluded from exercising any influence on the register. Those local authorities are very slow, and it was only possible, with all the urging of the Ministry, to get the registration completed and revised in time to hold the elections in the month of April, as intended, and they were even very irregularly made on the 26th of May, many of the functionaries created for the purpose of supervising them being still ignorant of their duties. The "half a million" voters struck off the list were there illegally, and were struck off by the operation of the law and without the slightest intervention of the Ministry. The delay had nothing to do with the action against Giolitti, and was injurious only to the Ministry, especially to Crispi, as delay in convoking the new Parliament endangered his getting a vote on supply before the end of the financial year, which would have doubled all his embarrassments and made the collection of the taxes impossible. Throughout the whole affair Crispi acted in the strict observance of the law as interpreted by the courts, though he did what he had a right to do, taking the full advantage of the law. Even the heads of the Opposition admitted that he kept to the letter, though they accused him of violating the spirit of the law. The Court of Cassation, by the way, did not decide that Giolitti could only be tried by the Senate, but that the Chamber of Deputies must decide how he should be tried—by the ordinary tribunals or by the Senate.

The accusations regarding the disclosures regarding Crispi are equally unjust; all that was shown was, that one of the provincial journals had been subsidized by the prefect of the province to the amount of $100 a month, whether for such services as he had a right to pay for or not. Nor is there any evidence of money being spent to prevent the election of Imbriani, and, as I happen to know, Crispi would be very sorry to see him excluded from the Chamber. In the recent elections the universal order to the prefects was to indicate to the electors which were the candidates whose election was favored by the Government, as is the invariable system in a country where there is no party organization and the only difference is that one party opposes and the other supports the Ministry; but the severest orders were given to do nothing to interfere with the freedom of the election, and I hear from the most authoritative and impartial prefect of my personal acquaintance that there has never been in his recollection an election in which

that freedom was so complete. There have been cases in which the prefect used more than the legitimate influence in favor of one or the other candidate, but not in all cases for the official candidate.

The graver question of "numerous unhappy prisoners arrested illegally and sent to Port Ercole" must be answered in a severer manner. The law of "domicilio coatto," or confinement in limits, of people who are reasonably accused of belonging to illegal organizations or criminal attempts, is very old, and has been applied by all governments since 1860, and by Nicotera was made the instrument of punishing political opponents. The only ameliorations to it are those made by Crispi, in 1889, and in the last Parliament. By the last amendment the Department of Public Security is absolutely deprived of the power of arbitrary imprisonment, and the persons arrested under it are judged by a commission of the various judicial and executive authorities without a jury. The first condemnation passes to an appeal to a provincial commission, and this to revision by the Minister of the Interior —in this case, Crispi. The only part Crispi has had in these condemnations has been the annulling of all those which he had any doubts about, and this he has very largely exercised. No prisoner has been condemned illegally, and if they have been maltreated in the prisons, it has been by the brutality of the jailers, who have been in the cases known removed. But to some people any political offender, even in the regimen of the completest political liberty, is an innocent victim of tyranny.

The case of Signor Marescalchi was simply this: Marescalchi was an employee of the Ministry, whose special function was that of representing the police in the examination. He was, in fact, a sort of public accuser, and his business was to prosecute; the commission as a whole judging and condemning or acquitting, as the case might be. Marescalchi volunteered the defence *en bloc* of the accused before the commission to which he was delegated without waiting for the evidence. For this he was reproved by his direct superior. He replied by an impertinent letter and the publication of the official correspondence in one of the Radical papers, which is a criminal offence. As it was impossible for him to remain in the same office with this superior whom he had insulted, the head of the department, Commendatore Sensales, transferred him to another and not remote district. He refused to go where he was sent, and resigned in another insolent letter, on which Crispi refused to accept his resignation, and dismissed him from the service, not for anything he had done on the commission, but for insubordination. No "perfectly innocent man because a Socialist" has been imprisoned, but for the advocating of the violent propaganda, as it is called, of the social republic, a number have been. Nor has any man been imprisoned for his opinions, but, when imprisoned, it has been for the method of propagating them.

Crispi has not "posed" his candidature in twenty or even six colleges, but, as he was attacked in person, and especially by the Opposition and the scandal-mongers, he was, with his approval, proposed in several colleges, especially Palermo and Tricarico, his old constituencies, Naples and Rome as great centres of public opinion; and he was put up without consulting him in five others by his friends, and voted for in two or three others incidentally and as the expression of enthusiastic admirers outside of any movement. The only one of his colleagues in the Ministry who was nominated in more than one college was Boselli. The governmental organization for the elections was so very incomplete that in many colleges there was no Government candidate put up till two or three days before the election, and in others there was none. In closing, let me remark that the "programme of the Piedmontese opposition" was repudiated by the Piedmontese people, who sent most of them about their business, and sent a strong ministerial delegation to the Chamber of Deputies. W.

Correspondence.

ANTHROPOLOGY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Anthropology has become one of the acknowledged branches of university studies in America. It is many years since Sir Daniel Wilson introduced the study of it in the University of Toronto. The University of Pennsylvania has long had an anthropological department in charge of Prof. Daniel G. Brinton. At the time of the foundation of Clark University in Worcester the department of Anthropology was established as one of the subdivisions of the department of Psychology. At Harvard, anthropological instruction has been given for a long time by Prof. F. W. Putnam, and a separate department was founded in 1892. At the same time an anthropological department was introduced at the University of Chicago as one of the subdivisions of the department of Political Science. During the last two years the University of California has established an anthropological department, and Columbia College of New York has included courses of lectures on this subject in its curriculum. In all these universities the science of Anthropology is taught successfully. To these institutions may be added numerous universities of Europe in which Anthropology is taught: first of all Paris, with its École d'Anthropologie; then Rome, Munich, Leipzig, Berlin—to mention the most important schools only.

Notwithstanding these facts, the University of Oxford in Convocation declined the proposed establishment of an anthropological department, on the alleged ground that this science is not capable of being taught! As a matter of fact, Anthropology as a branch of university education was recognized at Oxford in 1883 by the appointment of the eminent scholar Dr. E. B. Tylor, as a University Reader. In 1883 the University accepted the gift of the Pitt-Rivers collection, and in 1892 appointed a curator. A large collection of material adapted for the teaching of Physical Anthropology was formed by the late Prof. Rolleston, which has been added to since, and is now available for this branch of study. In 1885 Anthropology was admitted as an additional subject in the Final Honour School of Natural Science. This recognition was, however, rather formal than real, as the scope of the subject is too wide for it to be taken as an extra subject. During this time a considerable number of students have attended lectures and profited by the museum collections. The annual expense involved in this mode of instruction amounts approximately to $6,000.

These facts make the attitude of Convocation still more curious. We should expect that the practical bearings of Anthropology, if nothing else, would appeal to the members of the University. The great importance of the study to officers of the colonial service would seem evident. It is their duty to deal with people whose customs and beliefs form the subject-matter of anthropological instruction. Upon their proper treatment depends the welfare of colonists and of aborigines. The University is so blind to these facts that the lack of practical bearings of the study was brought forward as one of the reasons against the establishment of the department. In Holland and in Germany, on the other hand, officers of the colonial service are expected to attend anthropological courses before entering upon their duties.

As a matter of fact, the opposition to the measure was founded on the deep-seated theological aversion to the scientific study of man. A great many curates were brought in to vote against it, and I am assured that by this means the vote of 68 against 60 by which the proposition was lost, was secured. Thus England is still without an adequate representation of Anthropology in its universities, and Oxford has missed the chance to be the first to take this step, which must be taken, sooner or later, if English universities desire to keep in the ranks with the advance of science. To us the theological opposition is a reminder of bygone times when the results of the study of the manners, customs, and beliefs of man were ill understood. The aims of Anthropology are better appreciated in America, and many are the theologians whose contributions to the advance of this science we should be loath to miss.

Franz Boas.

London, June 20, 1895.

Notes.

Brentano's has begun a series of translations from the French, under the title of "Modern Life Library," and the editorial supervision of M. Henri Pène du Bois. "Gyp's" 'Mariage du Chiffon' will figure as 'A Gallic Girl.'

The John L. Boland Book Co., St. Louis, have in press 'Electricity and Magnetism,' a mathematical treatise by Prof. Francis E. Nipher.

Dr. Henry C. McCook will once more invest with a literary interest his natural-history researches, this time among spiders and other insects, in 'Old Farm Fairies: A Summer Campaign in Brownieland against King Cobweaver's Pixies,' which will be published next week by George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia.

The New York Shakspere Society will begin during the present summer a printing of the Five-Text Hamlet, folio, *de luxe*, Bankside style.

The Putnams, as the American agents of the English publishers, H. Grevel & Co., have brought out a new (fourth) edition of Maspero's 'Egyptian Archæology,' which is designated as a manual for the use of students and travellers. The original work and the translation by the late Amelia B. Edwards have been before the public about eight years, and full recognition has been accorded to their merits as to accuracy, fulness, and attractiveness. It were impossible to find a more competent writer or a more sympathetic translator. The present edition has all the admirable features of the earlier, and some others in addition, viz., ten new illustrations, showing recent discoveries such as those of Petrie and Naville, or setting forth the text more fully; some very

welcome alterations from the outlandish spelling of proper names taken from Murray's Handbook; explanatory titles to all illustrations; minute page captions, and an index covering twenty-two double-columned pages. Besides, the author has revised the text, and has made changes in the views expressed where it was necessary in order to bring them into accord with recently discovered facts. The pages are of equal contents, but they have narrower margins, and their total number has been increased by thirty. Naturally the use of the cuts in four editions has not improved them, and in the present instance some of the fine lines have been broken down. For the use of travellers a thinner paper might have been employed to advantage.

Dr. J. R. Cooke's 'Hypnotism' (Boston: *Arena* Publishing Company) is a fairly good exposition of this form of nervous disturbance. For suitable cases hypnotism is a reasonable remedial agent; in unintelligent hands it is objectionable, if not dangerous.

Dr. W. R. Dawson of Dublin has rendered pathologists good service by translating Dr. Anton Weichselbaum's 'Elements of Pathological Histology' (Longmans). The obscurity and prolixity of style that so often encompass German science are absent. The book is clear and concise, and the English is excellent. It has been prepared with special reference to practical methods, and it gives the help of eight plates and many illustrations.

The republication in two volumes of 'The Federalist, and Other Constitutional Papers,' edited by E. H. Scott, deserves little notice from the scholar, though the preface announces that the work is specially intended for that class. The text of 'The Federalist' is that of the Philadelphia edition of 1818, which seems an unnecessary reversion, after Mr. Dawson's labors had made the true text so easily obtainable, and the editor assigns the authorship of each number according to that edition, though his preface shows that he is well aware that it is inaccurate. The second volume is a reprint of a part of the material contained in Paul L. Ford's 'Pamphlets on the Constitution' and 'Essays on the Constitution,' with not much care for typographical accuracy, and the whole work will hardly supersede the editions of 'The Federalist' as edited by Dawson or Lodge, nor Mr. Ford's volumes, though its greater cheapness may tempt the undiscriminating.

The June number of the *Portfolio* is devoted to Antoine Watteau, and the text is by Claude Phillips. There is nothing specially novel in it, either as to biographical fact or criticism, but it gives in a handy form the little that is known about this "greatest of little masters," as Mr. Phillips felicitously calls him, and a fair appreciation of the quality of his art. There is more freshness in the illustrations, and the photogravure of the Berlin version of the "Embarquement pour Cythère," which will be new to most readers, is especially welcome. One is only inclined to regret that the Louvre picture, though so well known, was not also reproduced, if only in outline, for immediate comparison with the more elaborate if less spontaneous production. Welcome, also, is the half-tone plate after the lovely "Amour Paisible" of the royal collection at Potsdam—a picture permeated in an unusual degree with the Giorgionesque charm which lifts Watteau's best work so far above the level of his century.

Mr. Abbey's much-talked-of series of decorative paintings for the Boston Public Library —"The Quest of the Holy Grail"—are reproduced in half-tone on a liberal scale and published in a thin oblong volume by R. H. Russell & Son with explanatory text. Mr. Abbey's talent as an illustrator has not deserted him in this work in a more ambitious field, and his designs are admirably suited to black-and-white reproduction. In this form they will be seen and admired by many who will never see the originals, and their fulness of incident, richness of detail, and wealth of characterization are likely to give them a far wider popularity than would fall to the lot of paintings more closely adhering to the purely decorative tradition. We do not know who is responsible for the text, but the first sentence of it is somewhat startling. "The British race," it begins, "to which we primarily belong, the leading nation of the great Celtic family"; and reference is made later to the "racial pride" which renders the Arthurian legend specially suited to "the decoration of a great library built by a people of British race." There are undoubtedly a great many Celts in Boston, and we are aware that in the modern view the Britons were by no means so absolutely supplanted in Britain as used to be thought the case; but we were still under the impression that the English, and by consequence the New Englanders, are primarily Angles and of Teutonic stock.

Mme. Jeanne Rival's 'Annexés' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.) will have little interest for readers other than patriotic Frenchmen. To these the story of major and minor persecutions to which Alsatians are subjected by their German conquerors will no doubt appeal strongly. To others, however, the very commonplace subject, the commonplace treatment of it, the dull, fatiguing style, and the total failure to excite interest in either the admirable French or the execrable Germans, will suffice as an excuse to put down the book for good and all before many pages have been read.

Capt. Émile Simond's 'Le Capitaine de La Tour d'Auvergne' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.) is a well-meant effort to clear away from the historical figure of the "first Grenadier of the Republic" the mist of legendary tales which threatens to obscure its real traits. The book is not well written and is fatiguing to read; the clearing away is done effectively, but no very distinct impression of the man remains. This is a pity, for the life and deeds of La Tour d'Auvergne-Corret easily furnish material for a brighter and more interesting volume even with strictest adherence to veracity. Such as it is, however, this biography repays perusal, and will be referred to for information.

The *Geographical Journal* for June contains an account by Mr. A. P. Low of extensive explorations made in the interior of Labrador during 1893-'94. A great part of the region traversed was barren, apparently from the frequent forest fires. In the southwest the larches were all dead or dying from the ravages of the imported European larch gad-fly. A possible source of wealth is the fish, principally trout, land-locked salmon, whitefish, and carp, which swarm in the rivers and lakes. Prof. Chamberlain concludes his paper on the Luchu Islands with a description of the language, which, he says, is related to the Japanese much as Italian to the French. There are also accounts of an expedition to the Taita Highlands in East Africa and of Mr. Borradaile's explorations in northern Mongolia. Referring to the principal industry of the inhabitants of this region, the caravan trade, principally in tea, between Russia and China, he remarks that this will entirely cease on the completion of the Siberian Railway. A curious incident in the journey was the seeing the sacred Buddhistic formula, "Om mani padme Hom," written in white stones on the turf of a hillside. An interesting sketch of a recent whaling voyage in the Antarctic Ocean is given by a Mr. Borchgrevink, who shipped as a seaman in order to make scientific observations.

The American merchants who send rum to Africa will welcome a defender of this traffic in Sir Gilbert Carter, the Governor of Lagos. In two letters to the London *Times* he practically denies the familiar and well-founded charge that the admission of spirituous liquors under the present system of low duties is increasing native drunkenness to an appalling extent and is shutting out all other European goods and manufactures. He claims that the reports of the missionaries in regard to the native demoralization are exaggerated, that the gin itself is "not a poisonous, unwholesome compound, as some aver, but a safe and palatable stimulant, if properly diluted," and that the money obtained from the duty on spirit is necessary for carrying on the government. He also shows that the value of the gin and rum imported into Lagos in 1893 was only £93,508, "while the value of other imports amounted to £749,027," and that a similar proportion existed in the colonies of the Gold Coast and Sierra Leone. In entire conformity to these views is his novel and cynical assertion that the best remedy for the gin disease lies, not in the prohibition of its importation, but "in the encouragement of the Mohammedan religion," which commends—but does not enforce—temperance to its votaries. We have much satisfaction in believing with the *Times* that Sir Gilbert stands nearly alone among African administrators in upholding a traffic which is the twin curse, with slavery, that a Christian world has forced upon the Dark Continent.

Among the jewels found by M. de Morgan in his excavations in the pyramids of Dahshûr, an account of which he has recently published in *Le Monde Moderne*, are three pectorals. Upon them are figures of men and birds and the cartouches of three monarchs of the XIIth Dynasty (from 2466 B.C.). The signs of the latter are made of "cornelian, lapis-lazuli, and turquoise, set in gold; the other figures are likewise set with precious stones." The workmanship is said to be admirable both in its delicacy and in the perfection with which the precious stones are set. They are far superior in every respect to the similar jewelry of the Rameses period a thousand years later. It is certainly one of the strange facts in the history of the human race that, "in the case of the Egyptians, the further we look back, the higher we find their culture."

The most noteworthy fact in the forty-third annual report of the Boston Public Library is that "the growth and circulation of the Central Library" in the year 1894 "have been greater than in any preceding year in the history of the institution." The additions include some collections of rare value, as, the President John Adams Constitutional library, numbering 3,368 volumes, the gift of Charles Francis Adams; the A. A. Brown musical library, 6,686 volumes, of which Mr. W. F. Apthorp gives a characteristically interesting description; and the remarkable collection of historical manuscripts and autographs contained in 154 volumes, the gift of Judge Mellen Chamberlain. The removal into the new quarters permits the placing of some 40,000 volumes, a perfect reference library, where the public can freely use them, a bold experiment, which there can be little doubt will be entirely successful. The report of the examining commit-

tee closes with an enthusiastic, though rather grandiloquently expressed, eulogium on the new building.

The recent purchase of the library of the late Prof. Rudolf Hildebrand of Leipzig by the Stanford University, California, has added one of the most valuable collections of Germany to the constantly growing book treasures of our country. Prof. Hildebrand was one of the greatest of contemporary linguists, the foremost of the continuators of Grimm's 'Wörterbuch,' and his library, of course, contains his extensive working material, comprising the entire field of lexicography—the latter consisting of 333 rare numbers—and of German literature from the earliest times to the present day. His collections in the domain of the literature on Goethe and on the Volkslied were so famous that only for lack of special funds the German Government and the Goethe-Schiller Archives of Weimar were prevented from acquiring them. Nearly all of the 10,000 volumes contain extensive and most instructive notes in Hildebrand's own hand—a feature which greatly increases the value of the library for the students of German literature and philology.

—Our readers were promptly apprised of the inception of the new quarterly *American Historical Review* in April last, as one of the latest fruits of coöperation among our universities. It will be remembered that at the conference held in this city on the above date, an editorial board for the first year was chosen, consisting of Profs. George B. Adams of Yale, Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard, Harry P. Judson of Chicago, John Bach McMaster of Pennsylvania, William M. Sloane of Princeton, and H. Morse Stephens of Cornell. This board has appointed Prof. J. Franklin Jameson of Brown managing editor; arrangements for publication have been made with Macmillan & Co., and the first number will be issued on October 1. The Association of Guarantors appears to be sufficiently large to justify a beginning, but it will doubtless bear extension; and any one may join it by pledging $5 a year for three years (the annual subscription price of the quarterly is $3), and as much more for the term mentioned as may be affordable. Two hundred pages will be devoted to leading or body articles, embodying "the latest and most important results of historical science"; inedited documents of value, especially relating to American history; reviews, signed and unsigned; and historical notes and news. The *Review* will not deal with "discussions of present conditions or problems in political, social, or economic life, except as a part of studies tending to show historically how things came to be as they are." Prof. Sloane will write the introductory article for the first number, which will contain also articles on Count Edward de Crillon, by Henry Adams; the Loyalists of the American Revolution, by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler of Cornell; and State-Making in the West, 1772–1789, by Prof. Frederick J. Turner of the University of Wisconsin. Among documents, there will be letters of Col. Wm. Byrd of Westover, Va., on slavery and indented servants, interesting letters of John Marshall, Theodore Foster, and George Rogers Clark, and a contemporary diary concerning the battle of Lake Erie. On this enterprise, as on a need of long standing, all cultivated Americans must look with friendly eyes and large expectations. It only remains to add that the managing editor's address is No. 196 Bowen Street, Providence, R. I., and that the secretary and treasurer is Prof. A. B. Hart, No. 15 Appian Way, Cambridge, Mass.

—Although there is no dearth in this month's *Atlantic* of valuable matter of serious import, even the serious reader will be likely to pause and muse over the clever piece of fiction, or fictitious excerpt from real life, which occupies a central place among its contents. The hero of "A Philosopher with an Eye for Beauty" has for recording angel a philosophic student of human nature with an eye for its weak points, and a dangerous habit of stopping to moralize in mid-career of his narrative. The danger of the habit happens, however, in this particular case to be fully neutralized by a fortunate conjunction of style and humor, which, added to the philosophy of life and a turn for epigram, place the story upon the footing of the literature that will bear rereading. To poetry of a similar rank belongs Mr. Van Dyke's happily inspired "Song of the Veery." The simplicity, easy flow, and spontaneous sentiment of these verses can hardly fail to secure them a place in the slim anthology which the fastidious reader culls for himself from among contemporary verse-makers, while it is even possible to imagine them translated, without desecration to the latter, to a modest place among the classic lyrics of the English songsters. Also well built on lines of argument adapted to further the end in view is the paper, by Henry J. Fletcher, on "A National Transportation Department." Need for such a department of government in the threefold interest of shareholders, employees, and "the general body of the people who use the railways and waterways in trade and travel," is urged as manifest from recent and current experience, and the functions of its proposed judicial and executive officers, in expounding and enforcing an intelligent code of laws, are outlined in contradistinction to the "anomalous dual character" of the present commission. Mr. Fletcher's definition of crime in an employee involves the far-reaching principle that "the public has a right to require the man who has once assumed a duty to proceed with it until he can lay it down without direct and necessary injury to the public."

—By no means so distinguished as this contemporary in its mass, the current *Century* has for noticeable feature one of the papers of distinction which, let editors covet them as they will, opportunity makes rare. Personal reminiscences of Robert Louis Stevenson, as youth and youthful unknown author, have in them of necessity the making of delightful reading. Mr. Gosse's paper has all the air and charm of its having been to him a labor of love to give an impression of "the most inspiriting, the most fascinating human being that I have known," and the gracious, inconsequent "Louis" of his pages fully makes good the large promise of this opening sentence. Mrs. Burton has managed to make out a fair though conventional and artificial case for her "American Rural Festivals"; a truer rustic ring is, however, to be found in Arthur Lawrence's "Bryant and the Berkshire Hills." A translation of a Japanese life of Gen. Grant, with Japanese illustrations, is curious, and Mrs. King's and Mrs. Van Rensselaer's stories are each in its way a good one. Brander Matthews treats with pleasant dilettanteism of "Books in Paper Covers," the interesting illustrations of which will no doubt pasture the eyes of an increasing class of amateurs.

—The waxing general interest in this last and its related topic of artistic posters is further attested by the most conspicuous article of the month in *Scribner's*, where M. H. Spielmann specializes his branch of the subject by limiting it to "Posters and Poster-Designing in England." Failing an exhibition of pictorial posters, such as Paris and London have already seen (the latter in the Aquarium last autumn), the curious in this country may apparently rely on the magazines to give them a telescopic view of the international achievements of art in the service of commerce. So far as concerns the work of the newer Englishmen in this department—Anning Bell, Wilson Steer, and Beardsley—and of the older ones—Frederic Walker, Crane, and Herkomer—a better résumé than this could hardly be asked; it is merely an instance of the usual contradictory tendencies in the affairs of men that while the eye is more and more outraged by the disfiguring inroads of advertisements, artists are multiplying their endeavors to prove that "real beauty" may be spread broadcast in the artistic poster. "Life at the Athletic Clubs," by Duncan Edwards, belongs to the better class of "writing up" of popular themes. Otherwise, apart from Mrs. Humphry Ward's finding of a verdict in the case of Bessie Costrell, delivered at the hand which might have been expected to avert its extremity, the level of *Scribner's* is flat.

—In *Harper's* the intrusive vulgarity of rural advertising is, for the nonce, turned to a good account as the motive of a short story by Margaret Sutton Briscoe (Mrs. Hopkins), in which the commonly overlooked value of mother-wit, if merely as material for brightening fiction, is shown to lively advantage. Attention will be centred, however, upon Poultney Bigelow's brilliantly executed study in German history. Mr. Bigelow has contrived a happy method of showing the social condition of the court and people of Prussia, on the eve of the battle of Jena, by means of vivid sketches of individuals, including one of the ever-attractive Königin Luise. He presents a wholesome corrective to the Napoleon-worship of the hour by showing how a field may be won as much by the supine folly of the vanquished as by the skill of the victor; and there will be few who will read his thoughtfully planned account of Jena without gaining a clearer mind in regard to some of the ups and downs of warfare in general. Assent will be sure to follow upon Owen Wister's conclusion to his paper, "Where Charity Begins," that "you must reach the vagrant at the dawn of his day, before he has walked the streets too long, before they have taught him too much." But his pretty bit of feminine logic, "I would not go a month without this self-indulgence" of putting a hand in pocket for the passing beggar, is capitally illustrative of the wavering mind of the charity of the day, which is bent upon doing away with the youthful vagrant by all means except the effectual one of stamping out his propagator.

—M. Frantz Funck-Brentano seems in a fair way to win for himself a name as a legend-killer. He has already grappled with the mystery of the Man in the Iron Mask, and he has lately attacked the long-prevalent belief in the sale of blank lettres de cachet under the old régime. This legend has had the support of many historians. It passed unquestioned into the works of Michelet, Rambaud, Duruy, and into the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' M. Rambaud, perhaps, gives the story best and most concisely. He says, in his 'Histoire de la Civilisation Française,' that any person of in-

fluence could obtain "lettres de cachet in which the name was kept blank, and could write in the name of his personal enemy, his rival, his creditor. Under Louis XV. they could be had for money. La Vrillière, when he was minister, made a business of selling them through the Countess de Langeac; they came to be sold by his lackeys. It cost only twenty-five louis to have any one arrested." Duruy tells a piquant story of a husband and wife, each of whom solicited a letter of which the other was to be the beneficiary. Both succeeded, and both were disagreeably surprised at the result, for both were shut up on the same day. M. Funck-Brentano himself had no doubt of the correctness of the story at the time when he was put in charge of the archives of the Bastile. These archives contain not only the dossiers of the prisoners of the Bastile itself, but also those of all who were confined under lettres de cachet in other prisons and hospitals or convents of Paris and its environs. Within the last ten years sixty thousand of these dossiers have passed under his eyes. In all the innumerable quantity of letters from persons of every rank and station which these contain—applications for orders of arrest, appeals for liberation, petitions of friends, reports of officials from ministers down to police spies—in all this mass of documents M. Funck-Brentano finds not only no trace of any lettre de cachet issued in blank, but not even a hint that any such letter ever was asked for.

—It cannot be objected to his conclusion that these secret documents may have been taken away from the Bastile and destroyed, for it has been demonstrated that the old régime left such untouched. The Bastile was precisely the safest and surest place in the kingdom, and confidential letters and secret documents were sent there for safe-keeping. But M. Funck-Brentano has something better than merely negative evidence to rely on. He has a letter which the lieutenant of police Hérault addressed on February 21, 1731, to the Duchess de Lorges, explaining the long series of regular formalities which had to be gone through before a lettre de cachet could issue. And of more weight yet—of conclusive weight, in fact—is a letter written on the 20th of August, 1770, by the Duc de La Vrillière himself to M. de Blossac, in which he says, in reference to a man who had threatened the King's life: "You will send me a report at once, in order that upon this I may transmit to you orders (*lettres de cachet*) for his transference to the Bastile; but it is not possible to send these to you in blank. That would be against all rule, and against the usage I have constantly observed since I have been in the ministry." But how did the legend of blank lettres de cachet arise? M. Funck-Brentano has a very simple answer to the question. Up to the last years of the reign of Louis XV., until the royal Government became administrative, lettres de cachet were wholly written by hand. The administration then for the first time had some forms printed, and in these, of course, blanks had to be left for names and dates, as well as for the signature of the King. From these blanks, no doubt, the legend sprang.

—The last report (1895) of the London School of Medicine for Women exhibits in detail the high standing and work of its students. These British medical women, year in and year out, have taken the highest position in the examinations of the University of London, the College of Physicians and Surgeons (Edinburgh), and the Society of Apothecaries (London); and although the examinations of the University of London are among the most severe in Great Britain, on different occasions women have appeared at the head of its medical honors list. A steadily increasing number of the school's graduates are being appointed to responsible official positions in Great Britain and the colonies—such as medical officer to the General Post-office (London), examiner for the Government life-assurance fund, Queen's lecturer on physiology to the National Association of Nurses, lecturer to the Technical Instruction Board London County Council, assistant medical officer St. Stephen's Hospital, Delhi; resident physician Kama Hospital, Bombay; lady principal female department Ceylon Medical College, and resident physician Lady Aitchison's Hospital for Women, Lahore. Last, but not least, we may mention by name the acting house surgeon at the Kama Hospital, Bombay, Rukhmabai. This high-caste young Indian woman, after successfully resisting, through the English courts, an attempt to coerce her into fulfilling a marriage contract made for her during infancy, came to England to study medicine; she passed satisfactorily all her examinations, and took the triple qualifications of the Scotch colleges and the M.D. degree of Brussels. To many Americans, accustomed to M.D. degrees dispensed by the thousand from scores of so-called medical colleges—regular, homœopathic, and eclectic—the list of 161 "registered medical women" which the London School of Medicine for Women claims as its contribution to the noble army of modern scientists may seem trifling. Their mere existence and honorable status, however, measure an astonishing growth in public opinion since the autocratic Society of Apothecaries, in 1865, put its bar sinister on medical women. It is matter for regret that the arrangements under negotiation last year for affiliation of the School with the University of St. Andrews have not yet become effective.

THE TRAGEDY OF FOTHERINGAY.

The Tragedy of Fotheringay, founded on the Journal of D. Bourgoing, Physician to Mary, Queen of Scots, and on unpublished MS. documents. By the Hon. Mrs. Maxwell Scott of Abbotsford. With portraits, illustrations, and facsimiles. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 1895. Pp. xiii, 272.

CONTEMPORARY descriptions of historic scenes, however artless, have always an interest beyond the work of the greatest literary artists, even such literary artists as Macaulay and Froude; just as the rudest contemporary sketches have an interest beyond the work of the greatest historical painters. The new contemporary materials used by Mrs. Maxwell Scott in this volume are drawn chiefly from the journal of Dominique Bourgoing, the last physician of Mary, Queen of Scots, published by M. Chantelauze in 1876, recounting the events of the last seven months of Mary's life, including her trial, of which Bourgoing was a witness. Mrs. Maxwell Scott has also two contemporary drawings in a rough style, one of the trial, another of the execution, from the Calthorpe collection, with annotations in the handwriting of Beale, the clerk of Elizabeth's Council, who took down the warrant for the execution. She has made up a volume interesting, as well as attractive to the eye, and her partiality for Mary, though strong, is too frank and undisguised to be misleading.

It is impossible to believe that Mary's last speeches are given to us by Bourgoing exactly as she uttered them. Evidently they have been dressed by the reporter. Yet in substance his accounts agree with those given in the Letters of Sir Amyas Paulet and by other authorities. Once we probably catch him tripping. Mary having, after the trial, asked Paulet some question about the different commissioners, in whose faces she thought she had read varieties of feeling, Bourgoing makes Paulet reply: "Those who accused you and those who kept silence were all actuated by the same sentiment. Not one of them was favorable to your cause." Paulet would hardly have described the judges to Mary as partial and unanimously adverse to the accused. What he did say, as appears from his letter to Walsingham, was that "he prayed her to conceive favorably of the whole assembly, and to think that those which spoke and the rest which were silent were of one consent and mind to hear her cause with all indifference."

The controversy about the character of Mary, Queen of Scots, will probably be settled only by the Last Trumpet. On any hypothesis, great allowance must be made for the influences to which, in the wicked and corrupt Court of Catherine de Médicis, and afterwards among the savage, plotting, and turbulent nobility of Scotland, her young heart was exposed. Her death scene, at all events, here fully described, is in the highest degree magnificent and touching. Her bearing on the scaffold, and from the moment of her condemnation to death, superbly combines royal dignity with Christian resignation and meekness. The death scene of Socrates is not superior in its way. It is not easy to understand how the woman could have gone through it as she did if there had been anything heavy weighing upon her conscience — though what would weigh very heavily on a conscience formed under Catherine de Médicis and the Guises it is difficult to say. Perhaps the murder of Darnley, supposing Mary to have been an accomplice, as we can hardly help doing, need not have weighed on her conscience as the murder of a husband, seeing that he had broken into her chamber with a gang of murderers, stabbed her favorite attendant almost in her arms, and, to justify the outrage, whispered foul slanders against her honor. With Froude, Mary's behavior on the scaffold, like her conduct throughout life, is but the last exhibition of the wiles of the consummate actress and "enchantress." The nerve which could sustain such acting on the scaffold would be almost as admirable as genuine virtue. But Froude is also an enchanter in his way. Mary, when she bent her head to the axe, appeared entirely clothed in red. "Thus," says Froude, "she stood on the black scaffold, with the black figures all around her, blood-red from head to foot. Her reasons," he proceeds, "for adopting so extraordinary a costume must be left to conjecture; it is only certain that it must have been carefully studied, and that the pictorial effect must have been appalling." The fact is that she came on the scaffold in black; but when she was disrobed for execution, her red or crimson petticoat and bodice ("blood-red" Froude chooses to call them) were, probably on her part unexpectedly, at least without any premeditated effect, exposed to view. When her head was cut off, Froude tells us, "the coif fell off and the false plaits; the labored delusion vanished. The lady who had knelt before the block was in the maturity of grace and loveliness; the executioner, when he raised the head, as usual, to show it to the crowd, exposed the grizzled features of a

withered old woman." This is the literary artist's version of the simple contemporary statement that Mary's "dressing of lawn, falling off from her head, it appeared as gray as one of three-score and ten years old and polled very short, her face in a moment being so much altered from the form she had when she was alive as few could remember her by her dead face." Any face, probably, would be altered by decapitation. But decapitation could not suddenly produce "wrinkles." Froude revels in the falling off of the false hair and the revelation of the gray locks beneath. But surely a woman in those days, at all events, might wear false hair without being a Duessa; and Mary's head, as we see, was covered by a coif. Her own hair might well be gray.

The courts of justice at that time for the trials of state prisoners were, as Hallam says, little better than the caverns of murderers. The trial of Mary, Queen of Scots, was conducted, as under the direction of Burghley and Walsingham it was sure to be, with strict regard to decorum, and without any such insults to the prisoner as disgraced the trial of Raleigh. But it was not fair. The witnesses Nau and Curle were not confronted with the accused, though she earnestly called for their production. She was not allowed access to the papers on which the case against her was founded. She was not provided with counsel, while the Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, and the Queen's sergeant appeared against her for the Crown. Alone in the frowning conclave of forty commissioners, she had to face the interrogatories and plead her own cause. In fact, the verdict had been settled, as usual in state trials, by the Privy Council, and the trial at Fotheringay was a legal pageant. History, therefore, must enter a verdict of Not Proven. Mary solemnly protested to the Earl of Kent and his associates, with her hand on the New Testament, that she had "never either desired the death of the Queen or endeavored to bring it about or that of any other person." Such a protest is compatible with the hypothesis that she was guilty of participation in Babington's conspiracy as a plot for her own release from prison, and perhaps as a plot for a rising in her favor, but innocent of it as a plot for the murder of Elizabeth. Participation in a plot for her own release alone would be hardly criminal. That a trap was not laid for her by Walsingham we feel less sure than Froude.

On the other hand, if the ex-Queen of Scots had committed a crime, especially if she had plotted the assassination of Elizabeth, there was no real force in her passionate claim to the inviolability of a sovereign. She had resigned her crown, very reluctantly, no doubt; but not involuntarily in such a sense as to invalidate the resignation. At any rate she had lost it *de facto*. When she sought an asylum in England, she submitted herself to English law. Was she to be at liberty to cut the throat of the English Queen with sovereign impunity? Nor had she any ground for asserting, as she constantly did, that she died a martyr to the Catholic religion. It was not for her religion that she was, or was ever in danger of being, put to death. She was put to death for political conspiracy and as a person dangerous to the State.

What to do with her when once she had been admitted to asylum was a puzzle which, further perplexed as it was by the shifting moods and fancies of Elizabeth, it might well be too much even for such heads as those of Burghley and Walsingham to solve. One thing, however, there was which ought clearly to have been done, and which Elizabeth's Council and her Parliament alike desired: the succession to the crown ought to have been settled by act of Parliament on Mary's son, to the exclusion of his mother; to allow Mary, with Guises pulling her wires, to reign over a Protestant nation being out of the question. Mary's position would then have been unmistakably defined, and she might have been warned at once that if she plotted against the succession, she would be guilty of treason. But to the nomination of a successor the Queen of England was insuperably opposed. She could not bear that while she lived any one should be able to call himself her heir. She preferred to leave the kingdom to the perils of disputed succession, into which, but for the prompt action of the Privy Council, it might have fallen. The execution of Mary, which, it was supposed, would put an end to the danger connected with her, not only made a Catholic saint and martyr, but killed a hostage, and was immediately followed by the sailing of the Armada.

The habit of "the great Queen," whenever anything questionable had to be done, was to shift the responsibility on others. On this occasion Elizabeth outdid herself. She displayed extreme reluctance to sign the death-warrant. At last, Secretary Davison having laid it before her, coaxingly mixed with other papers, she signed it, and with a jest which showed that her feeling of reluctance was not very deep. Then she, through her Secretaries of State, instigated Mary's keepers, Paulet and Drury, to relieve her of the responsibility by putting their prisoner privately to death. Paulet, being, though harsh and somewhat rude, a man of honor, returned, in his own name and in that of his colleague, an emphatic refusal, for which Elizabeth abused him as "a dainty and precise fellow," adding that she had Wingfield, who would not flinch. Paulet, therefore, when he assured Mary that she had no reason to fear assassination, though he told the literal truth, was holding something back. The Council having acted on the warrant by putting Mary to death, Elizabeth flew into a frenzied passion, vowed that the warrant had been used without her consent or knowledge, and actually went through the perfidious farce of disgracing Secretary Davison, throwing him into prison, and condemning him to a heavy fine. The ministers must have been patriots indeed who, for the sake of the country, could have continued to serve such a mistress. Sir Amyas Paulet, after a brief gust of the Queen's displeasure, was restored to favor and made Chancellor of the Garter. He was the keeper of a secret which gave him a strong claim to favorable consideration. Elizabeth by her trickery only let the world know that she had acted against her sense of right in signing the warrant for her kinswoman's execution. In the interest of royalty, indeed, she might well have hesitated, for with the planks of Mary's scaffold was built the scaffold of Charles.

The frontispiece of this volume is a full-length portrait of Mary, Queen of Scots. As it represents her at the moment of execution, it can hardly be authentic if it was taken in this world. There is probably no authentic portrait of her. About a dozen pretended portraits were once exhibited together in London, but they bore no resemblance to one another, and none of them had a good pedigree. The Oxford one had nothing to connect it with Mary at all, beyond having had a fancy portrait of her of late date painted over it. What was this Circe like? The following is given us in the appendix to this volume as from a manuscript endorsed *Executio Reginæ Scotorum*, and apparently from the Tanner manuscripts in the Bodleian Library at Oxford, though it is not so headed:

"First, she was of stature high, big made and somewhat round-shouldered, her face broad and fatt, double chinned and hazel eyed: her borrowed hair aborne [auburn], having on her head a dressing of lawn edged with bone lace, a pomander chain, an Agnus Dei about her neck, a crucifix in her hand, & a pair of Beads at her girdle with a golden Cross at the end of them, a veil of lawn fastened to her caul bowed out with wire and edged round about with bone lace, a gown of black satin printed with a train, and long sleeves to the ground set with acorn buttons of jet trimmed with pearl, and short sleeves of satin black cut with a pair of sleeves of purple velvet whole, under them a whole Kyrtle of figured satin black, her petticoat upper body's unlaced in the back of crimson satin and her petticoat skirts of crimson velvet, her shoes Spanish leather with the rough side outward, a pair of green silk garters, her nether stocks of worsted coloured watchette clocked with silver and edged on the tops with silver, and next her legs a pair of Jersey hose white."

Mary was buried with royal state in Peterborough Cathedral, but afterwards removed by her son, then King of England, to Westminster and laid among the tombs of the Kings. Of Fotheringay, a great and strong castle at the time of the tragedy, there remains nothing but a green mound, an isolated mass of masonry, and a few thistles. Mary was a dethroned Queen, the connection and correspondent of Catherine de Médicis and the Guises; therefore Catholic Europe thrilled with emotion at her death, and great historians have vied with each other in their descriptions of the tragic scene. There were at that time a good many other tragedies with which the names of Catherine de Médicis and the Guises are linked, and of which the victims, though they suffered not less than the Queen of Scots, nor in a worse cause, not having been royal, sleep in forgotten graves.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Gods, Some Mortals, and Lord Wickenham. By John Oliver Hobbes. D. Appleton & Co.

Eve's Ransom. By George Gissing. D. Appleton & Co.

Tales of Mean Streets. By Arthur Morrison. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Bog-Myrtle and Peat. By S. R. Crockett. D. Appleton & Co.

A Man without a Memory, and Other Stories. By William Henry Sheldon. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Marriage of Esther. By Guy Boothby. D. Appleton & Co.

The Impregnable City. By Max Pemberton. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE gods, if there yet be righteousness in heaven, might well resent the close association forced upon them with some of the mortals whose iniquities and weaknesses are discussed in the latest and longest book by John Oliver Hobbes. Lord Wickenham could afford to forgive the implication of intimacy in the title in consideration of the small and stately part assigned to him and of the judicious obituary, including a moral of wide application, which he is permitted to pronounce upon his friend, Dr. Simon Warre. After some generalization on noble ideals and the imperative necessity of living up to them which is imposed by

the misfortune of once having cherished them, "we," says Wickenham, "should do nothing —we should say nothing—we should content ourselves with nothing—which seems to fall below the highest we can think of. . . . Warre took the lesser thing. That is the sum of his folly." Unconscious lapse into triteness is not one of the author's defects, so it may be supposed that she puts this excellent platitude into Wickenham's mouth, and applies it directly, in order to make plain to a heedless public that there is something more in the book than the description of a corrupt and shameless woman—the lesser thing that Warre took and that drove him through degrees of misery to despair and death. From an artistic point of view, so plain a statement of motive is a mistake, and unnecessary for a sympathetic reader, who soon feels the presence of good intention and its increasing passion. Still, at a time when women novelists frisk with indecency simply for love of the sport, any literary expedient that may prevent misapprehension is to be forgiven. The question whether any motive can justify the delineation of such a person as Anne Delaware is a wider one, but a discussion on that would include an argument that it is right for old-fashioned, sober, sane people to go about with shotguns and pick off decadents and degenerates at sight.

There are many ugly possibilities in life, and Anne Delaware is among the ugliest. Fundamentally, she exists in the provinces and slums, quite as noxious and vile there as in the high places of London, though less dazzling. Flaubert called her Mme. Bovary, and it seems superfluous to provide people curious to make her acquaintance with any other biography. As Anne Delaware she presents some slight divergence from the type, partly peculiar to herself and partly the result of surrounding and circumstance. Having the luck to cross the path of so sentimental and chivalrous a man as Warre, the utmost license is given to her talent for working woe and desolation. Coarsely speaking, Warre's behavior from the tragic moment which reveals Anne's gross past is that of a fool—a fool whom nobody wishes to care for or respect, yet is compelled to by the deep feeling and clear reason shown in the treatment of his subtle and unbalanced nature. When he resolves to stand by his wife, the hopelessness of his case is evident, and there is no comfort in following it further, except for those who enjoy deep depression of spirits and a bath in the gall of bitterness.

The author's rather touching attempt to mitigate the bitterness by bringing on Allegra, Warre's forsaken ideal, is futile, for she is no more than an allegorical figure for youth, innocence, and virtue. The most she does is to illustrate the limitations in art of the confirmed pessimist. Unadulterated optimism is dull, but prolonged pessimism is intolerable; therefore until grace is given to the author to perceive and believe in some compensations for the evil of life, one may hope that she will write no more novels. In the long run her unquestionably sincere gloom and cynicism overcome her assumed lightness and indifference, and the life goes out of her style. All that she can do better than any of her contemporaries is done in the first ten chapters, which are remarkable examples of vivid, though disconnected, narrative, and frank, comprehensive characterization.

The principal character in Mr. Gissing's short novel may certainly be described as a "doubtful person." He never speaks plainly about Eve Madeley, but is constantly agitated by horrid suspicions, which to some readers may appear confirmation strong. Patty Ringrose, Eve's pal, might have given a succinct and interesting account of her character and career, but she is dowered with a rare discretion. The only downright expression of opinion is in her letter to Eve's lover, Hilliard, in which she tells him that he has been jilted for more money, and remarks, "I felt sure it would come to this, and, if you'll believe me, it's just as well." No reader is likely to differ with Patty, and the most cheerful feature of the tale is that Hilliard soon came to accept her view without regret. Eve is decidedly too deep for Mr. Gissing, and her portraiture therefore is indistinct and unsatisfactory. In Hilliard he is on surer ground, drawing him firmly, and proving his superiority to his class by showing how his character was strengthened instead of debased by the reckless and irrational expenditure of a few hundred pounds accidentally acquired. Such a result of gross if not criminal extravagance points no moral useful to the philanthropist who eloquently urges the working classes to put their money in a savings-bank, and attributes all their miseries to a fatal preference for putting it in a beer-mug.

Better inspiration for denunciatory rhetoric lies in the pages of Mr. Morrison's 'Tales of Mean Streets.' The social condition he describes is a stratum lower than that on which Mr. Gissing gazes with intent and melancholy eye, and its general aspect less monotonously gray. Tragedy and comedy meet in Mean Streets, and human nature of a poor sort expresses itself freely, restrained only by strictly local standards of decency and manners. Mr. Morrison appears to know Mean Street so well that he can seize the average temper and temperament of its denizens, and through well-devised incidents illustrate the prevailing shiftlessness, low morality, and lower intelligence. When his Squire Napper "comes into a little money," he spends it prodigally, even as Mr. Gissing's Hilliard; but, being no better than his kind, the Squire's soul profiteth nothing by temporary liberty from toil. On the contrary, his spiritual and physical condition is lower when the money is gone than before it came, and he justifies the unsentimental opinion that the poor are themselves responsible for their poverty. On the first story, "Lizerunt," a pretty accurate judgment of local morality may be based, and the average intelligence of strikers, rioters, and anarchists is not underrated in such sketches as "Without Visible Means" and "The Red Cow Group." All the tales are good examples of the fiction produced by a close observer with a critical sense of literary value. Here there is no need for imagination and no room for guessing at motives and constructing a probable inner consciousness. For a full representation of the life of the Street, the selection of episodes is admirable, and the neatness, force, and naturalness of the author's expression deserve unstinted praise. His work makes the strongest impression of actuality, and suggests the practical inference that astuteness rather than piety and a certain hardness of heart, rather than moral fervor, are the needful qualities for significant missionary work in the mean streets of London.

Mr. Crockett's 'Bog-Myrtle and Peat' rejoices in a mystic preface. Whether the author's first intention is poetically to bewail a disparity between his aspiration and achievement, or to reprove one or two critics who have fallen short of his own good opinion of some of his published works, is not clear, but there is no vagueness about the naïve egotism of his introduction to his latest collection of tales. Some of these are excellent, several are surprisingly bad, and most are betwixt and between. The good and indifferent are drawn from Galloway, the bad from Edinburgh, London, and places even less redolent of myrtle and peat. Now Galloway appears to be uncommonly blessed with fragrant air, fine scenery, and people profoundly interesting to any one with a sense of humor. Still, Galloway cannot last for ever at the rate of a book or two a year, and, if Mr. Crockett is to live at all by the profession of letters, he must be permitted occasional excursions into fresh even if less fertile fields. He might even escape censure for falling below his best Galloway level, because local writers who make success by describing the difference between what they know by heart and the rest of the world, very seldom come off so well when they forsake the exhibition of special knowledge for the exposition of general principles. Nevertheless, a meagre capacity for self-criticism would surely have preserved for the sacred seclusion of 'The Book Sealed,' referred to in the preface, so inconsequent and amateurish a tale as "Saint Lucy of the Eyes." The youthful bumptiousness and triviality of the Edinburgh student tales could also have been enshrined there without detriment to the volume under consideration.

In the comparisons inevitably drawn between Mr. Barrie and Mr. Crockett they have frequently been pronounced equal, and sometimes the earlier writer has been severely admonished to content himself as second fiddle. An examination of the best work of each, 'A Window in Thrums' and 'The Stickit Minister,' can hardly fail to show that Mr. Barrie's greatest strength is in delineation of the essentially human, while Mr. Crockett's lies in emphasizing the accidental and eccentric. There can be no question about which is of greater value, actual and literary, and which promises best for sustained excellence in fiction.

The title-story in the volume entitled 'A Man without a Memory' is not the best. It recalls a great tragic story by Kipling, 'The Man Who Was,' a pure bit of bad luck for Mr. Sheldon, for the scenes of the two incidents are so far apart, and the details so dissimilar, that there is no good reason to suppose he had ever read Mr. Kipling's tale. A defect for which the author may be justly held responsible is indirectness, a propensity to wander in the vague and linger on the insignificant, thereby enfeebling a pathetic and dramatic situation. The same fault is noticeable in a second war-story, "The Adventures of Certain Prisoners," but is happily absent from "The Demented Ones" and "The Horses That Responded." The tales in which there is no smoke of battle are not above mediocrity, indicating industry and will rather than literary impulse.

The opening situation in 'The Marriage of Esther' reminds us at once of a similar and better one. It seems to us doubtful whether if Mr. Stevenson had not begun 'The Ebb Tide' with the picture of three vagabonds of Papeiti, Mr. Boothby would have plunged into the history of two vagabonds of Thursday Island. Nevertheless, Murkard and Ellison are sufficiently original outcasts to stand on their own legs metaphorically, especially Murkard, even though excessive indulgence in whiskey frequently incapacitates him physically. The adventures of the strangely matched pair at a pearling station on the Australian coast are novel and interesting, and the somewhat improbable and fantastic Murkard particularly

is well sustained. Perhaps in desperation for some new way of accounting for the degradation of an English gentleman, the author hit on the expedient of making Ellison an incurable liar. Whether his happy escape from a very bad scrape (effected by Murkard's heroic friendship) served as a permanent deterrent from unveracity is doubtful, but the chances are that he might romance vividly for the rest of his life without getting again into such a tight place. Towards the end of the tale the author appears to be completely rattled, introducing arbitrarily a black-hearted villain and running riot in irrelevant crime.

Except for heedless youth, there can be no illusion about the story of the 'Impregnable City.' The author incautiously attaches the date 1892 to the action, and grown-ups say, "No, it cannot be; we should, indeed, be idiotic had we forgotten the columns of type surely devoted by the press to such extraordinary happenings." For boys, on the other hand, the story is rather spoiled by making the motive of the kidnapped physician's attachment to the refugees of "the Impregnable City" a violent and perfectly senseless passion for the daughter of the philanthropic Austrian Count, who harbors and rules a colony of political criminals in his island fortress. The idea that a single devotee to the cause of humanity might surreptitiously relieve European nations of the care of their troublesome subjects is attractive. It is incredible that the French or any other Government should wantonly sacrifice good sailors and war-ships to recover anarchists and assassins who had been securely and eternally removed from the scenes of their activity by a benevolent old gentleman.

A History of the City of Brooklyn and Kings County. By Stephen M. Ostrander, M.A., late member of the Holland Society, the Long Island Historical Society, and the Society of Old Brooklynites. Edited with Introduction and Notes by Alexander Black, author of 'The Story of Ohio,' etc. 2 vols. Brooklyn, No. 95 Madison Street: Mrs. S. M. Ostrander.

THE honors of this publication are much more evenly divided than the title-page denotes. Mr. Black's editing has been so extensive that the completed book must be regarded as nearly or quite as much his as Mr. Ostrander's, and what praise or blame attaches to it must be shared about equally between them. A series of articles published in the Brooklyn *Eagle* in 1879–'80 were Mr. Black's original stock in hand. Mr. Ostrander, a descendant of Pieter Ostrander, who came to America in 1659, had written these articles with the enthusiasm and affection of a Dutchman for the Dutch beginnings of New York and Brooklyn, but they were not written in a strict chronological order and they were far from being a complete history, especially of the more recent times. They were fullest for the middle period, from the beginning of the Revolution to the time of the consolidation of Brooklyn with Williamsburgh and Bushwick in 1854. From this time onward there was an unfinished sketch covering some twenty years. A chapter on the twenty following, "The Modern City," is entirely, we understand, the work of Mr. Black.

The appearance of the book is very different from that of the ordinary city and county history. Every detail of paper, type, and binding is not merely handsome, but sumptuous. Indeed, the type is so large and printed so openly, and the margins are so wide, that the amount of matter in the two volumes (pp. 304, 292) is small and the book is quickly read. While there are many complimentary allusions to individuals in the concluding parts, in no respect does the book compare so favorably with the characteristic local histories of recent times as in the absence of all elaborate puffing of persons anxious for notoriety. There are no steel engravings or other portraits paid for so generously by the subjects of them that the book might go to press with no liabilities and the subscriptions be clear gain. Mr. Ostrander was a local politician, and his style has something of the genial warmth which one expects from members of his class. He was also a lawyer, and the legal aspects of various matters consequently receive an emphasis which is often interesting and important, but is sometimes excessive, as when the litigation which resulted from an aldermanic scuffle is given with considerable detail. In other respects, too, the right proportions in the treatment of important matters are not always well observed. This is notably so with the account of the Brooklyn bridge. We have several pages of effusive rhetoric quoted from the addresses made at the celebration of its completion, but a very meagre account of the structure, its various proportions, the difficulties encountered, and the means by which they were overcome. The tragical death of the elder Roebling is treated somewhat expansively, but of the accident which made his son a chronic sufferer for years, unable to observe the progress of the work except from a distance, there is no mention whatsoever. There is in general an exaggeration of civic celebrations and parades, in one case even the benediction of the clergyman who ornamented the occasion being duly set down.

The endeavor to "make things pleasant all around" has operated to obscure the character of certain political persons and events. The local Democratic leaders are treated handsomely, each getting his nice bit of compliment; and of Hugh McLaughlin, "who has retained his position at the head of the party since before the Rebellion," we are told: "The period and completeness of this local leadership probably finds [*sic*] no parallel in American political history." It is true that "no analogous situation has ever existed in the Republican party" in Brooklyn, but that the Republican ring has been more respectable than the Democratic, or less corrupt, does not appear. A temper more engaged than that of these pages with the spirit and the methods of political reform would have added to their significance. No one would gather from them what was implied by the election of Mr. Seth Low, or that it was effected by the aid of a few thousand independent Democrats, or that the refusal of the Republicans to support any Democrat, however unimpeachable his character, brought chaos back again.

The opening chapter on the geology of Brooklyn and Long Island smacks of antiquity, while it holds up to ridicule the geological lucubrations of an earlier historian. A chapter on the Dutch and the Indians quotes at length from Mr. Douglas Campbell (misspelling his name) a perfervid Scotch indictment of English cruelty as compared with the clemency of the Dutch settlers. It is not from his *opus magnum*, but from an address of 1880, and is valuable as indicating that the Dutch conquest of his imagination had so remote a date.

There is an interesting chapter on the social and domestic life of the Dutch settlers. The invaluable journal of Dankers and Sluyter, published by the Long Island Historical Society, contributes less than it might have done to the pages relating to these matters. For the excellent account of Gov. Leisler's honorable career and tragic death we are more indebted to its intrinsic interest than to its pertinency in a Brooklyn history. The chapter on the Revolutionary period is signalized by the most important historical event which Brooklyn has ever witnessed—the battle of Long Island. Here it was difficult to go astray with Field's able and exhaustive monograph on the battle to rely upon for intelligent guidance. Mr. Ostrander's chapter would probably have been fuller but for his fear of borrowing too freely from that. As it is, the gaps in his narration often leave much to be desired. There is not a word, for instance, of the happy fortune of Washington in having a regiment of Marblehead fishermen to put his army across East River on the night of the retreat, without which the business would apparently have been impossible.

The chapter, "Brooklyn after the Revolution," which opens the second volume, derives much of its interest from the oft-told story of the prison-ships, and from the contrast which the village of a century ago offers to the city of to-day. Then a man on horseback had to open seventeen barred gates along the shore of East River towards Williamsburgh within a distance of a mile and a half, there being no public road. New York insisted on her ownership of the river to the Brooklyn side, and in due course the sailors on board ships at the Brooklyn navy-yard voted in the New York Seventh Ward upon the basis of that claim. There is some very loose writing in chapter x, "Brooklyn Village," Fiske's "critical period of American history" being confounded with the first years of the present century, and some pages quoted from it as describing these. That the first steam ferry-boat, May 10, 1814, made forty trips the Sunday following, indicates a double fearlessness—of the new motive power and of Sabbath-breaking. In fact, the modern pessimist will find many things here written of the former times to encourage his sad heart. In 1832 there was one tavern to every sixty-nine persons—one district had a tavern for every thirty-six persons—while a saloon for every two hundred and twenty-five persons was recently the Brooklyn proportion.

From the time that Brooklyn was made a city in 1834 this narrative is hardly more than a statistical account of political changes and the rise of different institutions of education, charity, punishment, and so on. In the paragraphs on Brooklyn libraries a few statistics would have been welcome, comparing the circulation of the small free libraries with that of the Brooklyn Library, which is for subscribers only. Two of these, with about 70,000 books, have an annual circulation of nearly 400,000 volumes, while the Brooklyn Library, with nearly twice as many books as both of them together, has a circulation only about one-fourth as large. We read of "the free library of the Long Island Historical Society," but it is merely a reference library for the use of members only. There is a good account of the Brooklyn Institute; and where the distribution of compliments is so generous, Prof. Hooper, the Director, might well have had a larger share. The complimentary allusion to Dr. Talmage was evidently written before his third church-burning and general collapse. Doctorates of divinity are given with a generosity that shames the gingerly conduct of the universities. If the editorial profession had its degrees, its representatives would no doubt have fared as well as

the clergymen. As it is, they wear their rosemary with a difference, but none have reason to complain. The industrial growth of the city has no adequate treatment in the body of the book, but this lack is in part made good by a statistical appendix. There is no such confession, but it is evident that Brooklyn has suffered in many ways from her nearness to New York, but with great compensations. A careful statement for and against consolidation would have been a natural and agreeable climax to the book, as we have not had one yet from any quarter; but for some unknown reason it has been withheld.

The Church in America [National Churches]. By Leighton Coleman, S.T.D., LL.D., with map. James Pott & Co. 1895.

THIS volume, we are told in the first words of the preface, "belongs to a series intended to give a comprehensive history of National Churches." The writer frankly anticipates that "it may be difficult to convince some of [his] readers of the propriety of calling the Protestant Episcopal Church the National Church of America"; but that he is justified in doing so will, he hopes, be acknowledged "when it is remembered that in the beginning what is popularly known as the Episcopal Church was by charter and law established in the older colonies; that, more than any other ecclesiastical organization, she had to do with constituting the nation, and, in the period of the civil war, with its maintenance and reunion; and that, while conservative and catholic in her character, she is yet distinctively American in spirit." But these theses are left standing, for the most part, as if they were self-evident propositions, and they fall short of being this by several degrees. However it may have been *de jure* in the colonies, *de facto* the Episcopal Church had but a feeble grip on them, and such as she had was that of the Church of England, not the Church of America. Then, as to "constituting the nation," a series of events known as the War for Independence, or the Revolutionary War, had much to do with this, and over this Dr. Coleman passes lightly with a *suppressio veri* which comes very near to being a *suggestio falsi*, if it does not overlap. It is true that there were Episcopalian clergymen and laymen of fine parts and lofty character on the American side, but the clergy as a body were faithful to their oath of allegiance to the Crown, and nothing in their lives became them more than their fidelity. To pretend that the Episcopal Church, as such, took a conspicuous and honorable part in "constituting the nation" is, to speak plainly, ridiculous.

Equally ridiculous is the claim of splendid service rendered to the "maintenance and reunion" of the nation in the civil war. This claim is briefly argued in chapter xii., and the specifications urged in justification of it are (1) that "after a long and brilliant debate" in the Convention of 1862, "a series of resolutions was adopted susceptible of a favorable interpretation on either side of the house"—in Dante's phrase, "neither for God nor for his enemies." (2) "The efforts of the majority were directed to prevent, so far as possible, anything being said or done to hinder a spontaneous reunion of the Church," an anchor to windward more suggestive of self-interest than of patriotic devotion. (3.) At the Convention of 1865 ("The God of peace and love Himself presided there"), "when the Southern bishops asked to be excused from attending the service of thanksgiving, the Convention agreed to strike out from the report of the joint committee words to which they had objected, and which some thought had political bearing"—naturally, as they expressed gratitude for the destruction of slavery. On this subject Dr. Coleman's book is as silent as the General Convention. The reader not otherwise informed would not imagine that the civil war had anything to do with slavery, or that there was any such social institution implicated in our national life.

In chapter xxii. the rapid growth of the Episcopal Church is urged as another reason why its claim to be the American Church should be allowed. But if numerical preponderance is to decide, it will be long before the Episcopalians overhaul the Methodists and Baptists, and when they do so, their church will be as far from being national as it is now, seeing that a national church is one which is formally united with the State, and this is something which no church in the United States will ever be.

Apart from its particular absurdity, Dr. Coleman's book has the disadvantage of being extremely dull—a chronicle of desiccated facts from which all of that moisture which is called humor has been pressed out, and, as far as possible, all human interest. Those who have read Dr. S. D. McConnell's 'History of the American Episcopal Church' will have no occasion to read this, and, if they attempt it, they will wonder how the later writer could feel called to write so flatly and heavily what was already written so well and so delightfully. The endeavor to minimize all differences has resulted in a lack of definite impression, and a monochromatic wash obscuring all the natural color of events.

The American Congress: A History of National Legislation and Political Events (1774–1895). By Joseph West Moore. Harper & Brothers. 1895. Pp. xii, 581.

THIS rather bulky and rather showy volume is rather a good book, but it cannot honestly be called very good. It recalls the classic endorsement of Artemus Ward's labors addressed to those who liked that sort of literature. It may be that some persons want a new History of the United States, written as if by one who had lived at our successive seats of government ever since the first Continental Congress, becoming familiar with the members of Congress and other public men, and the successive customs of the halls of state, competent to give neat personal descriptions and concise biographies, abstracts of great debates, and analyses of stirring public questions. Some of this work, whether recasting old and familiar matter, or bringing into light what has been forgotten, is well done. But as it is a familiar remark that persons who live and move and have their being exclusively in Washington know very little of the real state of the country and public opinion, so this history, written from the point of view of the Capitol, shows no true proportion in its insertions and omissions. There are several long lists of prominent Representatives and Senators at different periods in Congressional history, but these are so chosen as to combine members belonging to different national generations, and to leave out many quite as important. For instance, Charles Francis Adams is named only as the arbitrator at Geneva, though in his short Congressional service he was very conspicuous, and his diplomatic services in England are never alluded to, though those of the Pinckneys and others under Adams and Jefferson are detailed. The election and succession of Presidents is generally given, but Monroe's first election is passed over entirely, and likewise the succession of Fillmore by the death of Taylor. These are but a few instances of a general want of principle in selecting whom and what to commemorate.

In the same manner, while much of the book is scrupulously accurate, there are here and there very bad mistakes. As amusing a one as any is transferring Mr. Emerson's lines about the "embattled farmers" to the field of Lexington (p. 42); for which the author must be prepared to meet the shots of embattled Concord. Lyman Hall appeared as an independent delegate at Philadelphia from the Midway Parish before the Colony of Georgia made him her delegate (p. 51). Napoleon's Decrees are spoken of as if called out by the Orders in Council (p. 202); but the most offensive of these was in retaliation for the Berlin Decree. The British soldiers at Bladensburg are called "veterans of Waterloo," which was not fought till nearly ten months later (p. 208). The Holy Alliance was not formed till after the Bourbons were restored (p. 229). The signer of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was not Sir Edward Bulwer (Lord Lytton), but his brother, Sir Henry (Lord Dalling) (p. 233). The President's power of removal was seriously contested in Jackson's time, thirty years before Johnson (p. 419). A different kind of carelessness is shown in calling the columns of the old Hall of Representatives variegated marble (p. 212). Among other delicacies of style may be pointed out a most gratuitous change of "and to prove it" as written by Washington, into "and to prove which" (p. 155). Also, "avonched" for "averred" (p. 258), Narcisco Lopez (p. 351), and Conners (p. 428), are prominent misprints. The author has earnestly tried to betray no party leanings which might prevent his doing justice to all. But he cannot help calling the Mugwumps of 1884 "apostates" (p. 480).

The Source and Mode of Solar Energy throughout the Universe. By I. W. Heysinger, M.A., M.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1895.

DR. HEYSINGER writes charmingly, and has made a better book than any mere crank could ever make. Nevertheless, we do not read far in it before we find he has not the knowledge his difficult problem requires. The following undiscriminating sentence, which we come upon at the beginning of the third page, is conclusive as to that:

"The authorities cited in this work include many illustrious names: Proctor, Tyndall, Helmholtz, Langley, Huggins, Newcomb, Young, Flammarion, Balfour Stewart, R. Kalley Miller, Herschel, Nichol, Lord Rosse, Urbanitzky, Crookes, Fraunhofer, Ball, and many others, all of whom are known throughout the world as among the master minds of science."

The theory is not perspicuously stated, but some features of it are plain enough. Dr. Heysinger, while not utterly rejecting the condensation theory of the sun's energy, thinks that there are only slight condensations and expansions of the sun. These answer the purpose of a fly-wheel or governor to keep the radiation uniform. He holds that the instrument for the collection of energy in the sun is an electrical instrument. The total amount of energy spent is only that absorbed by the planets, for the rest is put in bank—that is, the thermal radiation into vacuous space becomes converted into electrical energy. How does that portion which is spent get replenished?

We should suppose by the retardation of the orbital motions of the planets, since Dr. Heysinger argues, and with no small force, that they must be influence machines. But he seems to think influence machines work at the expense of the energy of the air, though everybody who has ever turned the handle of one is conscious of doing more work as the machine comes into action. However that may be, the electricity thus collected flows, says Dr. Heysinger, to the sun, and its energy is there converted into heat.

This conflicts at several points with opinions that are backed by pretty solid considerations. It supposes, for example, the planetary spaces to be filled with ordinary vapors. Why, under those circumstances, the sun does not withdraw the atmospheres from the planets, is a problem the author ought to have worked out before coming before the public. That the resistances, mechanical and electrical, would not be too great to be admitted, is not shown. The calm way in which aqueous vapor at the temperature of the planetary spaces is talked of is startling. Its pressure might be something like that of Crookes's tubes—what are called "high vacua." In fact, the difficulties are multiform. At the same time, there is hardly room for doubt that electricity does play a part more or less important in the solar system, and speculations of the same complexion as Dr. Heysinger's, but more exactly reasoned, will be much heard of in the near future. The book is certainly not without interest as suggestive of points some of which may be sustained.

The last chapter but one is occupied with a minute verbal examination of the Hebrew form of the Chaldæan cosmogony.

In Stevenson's Samoa. By Marie Fraser. Macmillan & Co.

MANY more instructive and pretentious books of travel have been written than the little sketch called 'In Stevenson's Samoa,' but few so pleasing and unaffected. Miss Fraser happened to be among the last Europeans who saw Mr. Stevenson often and intimately, and this fortuitous circumstance may lead many to look at her book who will gladly read it through for other reasons. As a matter of fact, she touches the novelist lightly, rather avoiding the appearance of airing an acquaintance with a great man. What she does say about him is in the best possible taste, and confirms the impression that Mr. Stevenson's death is a greater loss to his friends even than to letters.

Miss Fraser has the happy knack of a clever, fresh girl who wants to tell people about what she saw in a strange and pleasant land, indulging in few reflections and not concerned to draw instructive inferences. She describes her search for a house at Apia; the house after it was found; the servants; the food and the manner of cooking it; her visitors, their manners and customs, or lack of it; the daily life of the people, and all the native feasts and functions that she happened to assist at. She enjoyed it all thoroughly, and makes us feel that no one is truly happy but the Samoan who squats in the sun, dressed in fresh-plucked flowers, smoking and gossiping all the year round.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Belley, U. J. Der Praktische Deutsche. Wm. R. Jenkins. $1.
Bertheroy, J. Le Roman d'une Ame. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Campbell, W. W. Mordred and Hildebrand: A Book of Tragedies. Ottawa: J. Durie & Son.
Chilton's Marriage. Hurst & Co.
Clementsen, G. B. The Road Rights and Liabilities of Wheelmen. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Deschamps, G. La Vie et les Livres. 2e sêrie. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Dix, Gertrude. The Girl from the Farm. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Gates, L. E. Selections from the Prose of Cardinal Newman. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Jackson, F. G. The Great Frozen Land: A Winter Journey across the Tundras, and a Sojourn among the Samoyads. Macmillan. $4.50.
King, Capt. Charles. The Story of Fort Frayne. F. Tennyson Neely.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 205. April—June, 1895. Boston: Littell & Co.
Muir, Sir W. Mahomet and Islam. 3d ed. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Nixon, Dr. O. W. How Marcus Whitman Saved Oregon. Chicago: Star Publishing Co. $1.75.
Ollé Laprune, L. Ce qu'on va chercher à Rome. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Rabbeno, Prof. U. The American Commercial Policy: Three Essays. 2d ed. Macmillan. $3.25.
Sameison, Moses. The Way Out: Exemplified Philosophy. The Irving Co.
Stuart, Esme. Harum Scarum: The Story of a Wild Girl. International News Co.
The Cathedrals of England and Wales. London: The *Builder.*
Weidner, Prof. R. F. An Introduction to Dogmatic Theology. Based on Luthardt. F. H. Revell Co. $2.
Wentworth, G. A. A Mental Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Winter, W. Shadows of the Stage. 3d series. Macmillan. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 18, 1895.

The Week.

THE State bankers' convention adopted a brief, concise, and intelligible statement of their views regarding the standard of value, saying that they represented an indebtedness to the public of nearly nine hundred million dollars payable on demand, which they desired to pay, as called for, in as good money as they received. They were, therefore, opposed to the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. They were opposed, also, to any other debasement of the currency. They were likewise opposed to having two different qualities of money at the same time, and they were in favor of a sound and elastic currency, as good as gold, "good everywhere, good by the standard of the world, good in the marts of the world, and as good in the hands of labor as in the hands of capital." They do not believe that the poor man needs poor money, any more than he needs water in his milk, sand in his sugar, or shoddy in his clothing. They consider it patriotic to support the best standard in the world for the best country in the world. All this seems quite logical, and pretty sure to win in the long run. A resolution was adopted also in favor of the appointment of a commission, under the authority of Congress, composed of experts and business men, whose duty it shall be to report to Congress for its consideration a comprehensive currency system adapted to the commercial needs and interests of the nation. Undoubtedly such a commission is necessary now, the last Congress having failed to take action of any kind on anything relating to the currency. That its failure to take action was due to ignorance of the subject and to unwillingness to take a step in the dark is now evident. It is probable that future Congresses will for the same reason be unwilling to move until they have expert testimony upon which they feel that they can safely lean for support.

If some future historian shall devote himself to the history of the free-silver movement in this country during the Cleveland administration, he will find a good deal of material that will border on the humorous. In fact, aside from the terrible losses which the threatened success of the demand for free silver has caused to the country, there is a funny side to almost every aspect of the question. One of these amusing features is the uniformity with which every Democrat of any prominence who has a grievance against the Democratic President is found in the silver camp. Missouri furnishes a pertinent illustration of this. The father of the idea to hold an early Democratic convention in that State is J. W. Farris. The origin of his silver craze is found in the documents of the Pension Bureau. Mr. Farris served in the army and was mustered out of service in August, 1865. Sixteen years later, in 1881, he discovered that he was afflicted with chronic diarrhœa, and that this was due to his army life. On the strength of this claim his name was placed on the pension roll. This, however, did not satisfy him, and a few months later he filed an application for an increase of pension on the ground that the diarrhœa and the debility consequent thereon had seriously affected his eyes. The medical referee of the Pension Office who examined his case reported that it was impossible to connect his weakened eyesight with his other ailments, and the application was refused. Thereupon his Representative in Congress, the silver apostle Bland, introduced a special bill in his behalf, increasing his allowance from the Government, and this was passed.

President Cleveland, however, was struck at once with the uniqueness of Mr. Farris's eye complaint, and with cold-blooded honesty he vetoed the bill, which the House on February 22, 1887, failed to pass over the veto. In giving his reasons for his disapproval the President said:

> "The ingenuity developed in the constant and persistent attacks upon the public Treasury by those claiming pensions, and the increase of those already granted, is exhibited in bold relief by this attempt to include sore eyes among the results of diarrhœa. I am entirely satisfied with the opinion of the medical referee, who, after examining this case in October, 1885, reported that 'the disease of the eyes can not be admitted to be a result of chronic diarrhœa.' On all grounds it seems to me that this claimant should be contented with the pension which has been already allowed him."

More distinguished men than Mr. Farris have been made active exponents of the silver cause for less weighty reasons than this, and Mr. Farris's gun has been trained on the White House ever since. He was among the first to lay the responsibility of the panic of 1893 at the President's door, and it was he who sent out a request to each county committeeman in Missouri asking him to demand a State convention to commit the party to free silver. His busying has proved so disastrous even to his own cause that the Missouri silver men lately informed him that they should be able to make more favorable terms with the State committee if he would stop writing and talking. As this is something, it is said, of which he is incapable, he is likely to play the part of Old Man of the Sea to the silver party of Missouri, and to be in at its death, he and his vetoed pension.

We have received a letter from a correspondent in West Virginia, who says:

> "We have just organized here a sound-money club to fight the 16-to-1 craze. I meet many intelligent men who think there is danger that the Rothschilds and others may *corner* gold. I have been hoping to see in your columns some exposition of the groundlessness of such apprehensions."

We would ask anybody who really fears that the Rothschilds may "corner gold" two questions: (1.) What is meant by "cornering gold"? (2.) What will they do with it when they have cornered it? We can understand what is meant by cornering wheat. That means buying all that comes into the market in order to make the "shorts" buy from the cornerers at such prices as they choose to ask. There is no recorded instance of a corner in wheat merely for the purpose of putting up the price on ordinary consumers, because, even if all the wheat were bought, the ordinary consumers would be too slow in taking it, and they might not take it at all—that is, they might substitute corn, rice, oatmeal, and other things as articles of food to so large an extent that interest charges would eat up the cornerers. Therefore a corner in grain, or in cotton, or in stocks is never undertaken except where a large number of people have sold the things for future delivery and must buy, or "cover," as the saying is, within a certain brief period. Now let us ask how anybody could have a motive to "corner gold." Nobody has sold gold for future delivery, except possibly the Rothschilds themselves. There are no consumers of gold except jewellers, dentists, etc., who are not of sufficient commercial importance to make it worth while for cornerers to "go for" them. The gold which exists in the form of money is not consumed from year to year. It is a growing mass, estimated at three or four thousand millions, to which is added $180,000,000 or more per annum. The magnitude of this mass and of the incoming supply suggests another question: Could anybody or any group of men corner gold if there were a motive for doing so? The attempt to corner copper a few years ago ruined one of the largest financial institutions in the world, besides a lot of the richest men in France, although they had to buy only the annual product of the copper-mines, not the accumulated copper of past ages. In this case the consumers of copper deferred their purchases until the incoming supplies broke the backs of the cornerers.

Probably owing to the influence of Mr. Bagehot, it has become the custom of those who watch the fluctuations of trade to regard the iron market as the best barometer. Iron is the great tool of almost all industries, and they cannot increase without supplying themselves with a larger stock of this tool. The present activity has

therefore been somewhat surprising, and apparently a little premature. It can only be explained as due to the recovery from paralysis caused by apprehension of governmental bankruptcy—a recovery which merely enabled industry to go on at its previous rate, and involved no great extension of business. But whether this explanation be accepted or not, there is no doubt that the iron market now shows unmistakable signs of coming activity. The production of pig-iron is increasing at the same time that stocks on hand are diminishing. The unsold stock on the first of May was about 780,000 tons, which was reduced on the first of July to 543,000 tons. The weekly capacity of furnaces in blast a year ago was about 86,000 tons, while it is now about 171,000 tons. This figure, it is true, was nearly attained last December, but a decline occurred both in production and in prices, which really continued almost till June. It is necessary to go back two years to find this record of capacity surpassed. The advance in price has more than kept pace with the production, and there are everywhere signs of a very large extension of business. So soon as the railroads have earned or borrowed a little more money they will come into the market with orders which have been kept back for a long time, and which will be on that account larger and more pressing. It seems probable, therefore, that the activity that is now manifest in the iron trade will continue for a long time to come.

At last, Commissioner Wright informs us, the conclusion of the census of 1890 is in sight. By the end of the present year he will have issued the final volume, and the country will have paid the last of the $11,500,000 which the census has cost. The cost of this enterprise was originally calculated at $6,000,000, and it was represented that its results could be presented in a few months after 1890 and within a moderate compass. We have not yet learned all these results, and they are contained in twenty-five volumes. As we have from time to time pointed out, the defects of this census are so numerous and so grave as to deprive it of value, and it is likely to work positive mischief by its misleading statistics. But even if it were trustworthy, it is impossible to estimate its value at any such sum as it has cost. The tenth census, under Gen. Walker's charge, was of much more value than that of 1890, and it cost less than $6,000,000. Yet even this sum is altogether in excess of the value of such a collection of figures. To number the population is a constitutional requirement; but the collection of statistics is, as a rule, better done by such agencies and bodies as can be held responsible for inaccuracy.

The spirit of Adam Smith might well be disturbed by the new anti-Trust law of Texas. Under this law an illegal combination is created whenever two or more persons combine their "capital, skill, or acts" so as to restrict trade or prevent competition, or so as to increase or reduce prices, or so as to fix the price of any article. There are other provisions of a specific character, but they may all be reduced to these. The penalties are correspondingly severe. Foreign corporations violating the law are prohibited from carrying on business within the State, and individuals are to be imprisoned in the penitentiary. This is certainly a *reductio ad absurdum* of the anti-monopoly theory, and it is perhaps for the best that this theory should be stated in its most extreme form. An insurance agent who should make his rates in accordance with an established tariff would violate the law and subject himself to imprisonment for a long term of years. But it is entirely impossible for an insurance agent to carry on his business except by offering rates fixed by the companies. Under the wording of the statute we do not see how it is possible for any agent to carry on business, for he must necessarily combine with his principal by his acts, or it would be impossible for him to make any contract for the sale of goods. Indeed, the law would seem to terminate all partnerships at a blow. A partnership is essentially a combination of two or more persons of such a nature as to require them to fix prices. If the partners in a retail shop had no agreement fixing the prices at which they would dispose of their wares, they would very soon have to stop doing business. Customers would be very quickly disgusted with a concern which sold the same goods at different counters for different prices. So, it would seem, all charges for professional services, such as are customary among medical associations, must now be left to individual determination.

The truth is, that the apprehensions generally aroused by the magnitude of the modern combinations of capital have degenerated into a popular craze. It is impossible to contend that there is anything morally wrong in an agreement made by a farmer with a dealer, by the terms of which the farmer is to sell his produce at a fixed price. No agreement more innocent or more necessary can well be imagined. And if the farmer, finding the dealer disposed to drive a hard bargain with him, gets his neighbors to agree upon the same fixed price as that at which they will sell their produce, it is hard to see the turpitude of the act. Such a combination may be for the advantage of all—of the farmers, of the dealer, and of the community. The time wasted in chaffering is saved, and the price fixed is as likely to be, upon the whole, as low to the ultimate consumer as if every farmer held out as long as he could for the highest price he could get. Commerce cannot go on without innumerable combinations of this kind, and legislation prohibiting them merely degrades the name of law. The danger which may really threaten the welfare of the community lies in the magnitude of trade combinations; but such legislation as this tends to exempt the great Trusts by placing them upon the same level with the smallest coöperative enterprises.

Senator Hill has put forth a frantic bid for the support of the liquor vote, which, we should suppose, he would feel confident of having anyway. He has never made any concealment of his belief that this vote was of far more value than that of the more respectable elements of society. During the seven years in which he was Governor he never failed to yield to the liquor interests whatever they demanded of him. In return they voted solidly for him at every opportunity, and will doubtless do so whenever he comes before the people, directly or indirectly. His appeals for continued support under these conditions seem unduly excited and indicate a panicky feeling on the part of the writer. He overdoes the thing in denouncing the Police Board as a "busybody and notoriety-seeking" commission, and in saying that the "Puritans are in the saddle" both here and in Albany, and that since Gov. Morton was born in Vermont, he "apparently inherits the illiberal tendencies and prejudices on the excise question which characterize the rabid Republicans of that State." This is the violent language of a "rattled" politician who is too badly scared to talk calmly. If Mr. Hill were calm, he would see the folly of appealing for votes which he and his party are sure of anyway, and of making his appeal in such tone and temper as will be certain to alienate votes which are absolutely necessary to success. The liquor vote is powerful, but Mr. Hill had the most of it last November, and yet he lost the State by 156,000 majority.

What a complex and puzzling affair the question of proper Sunday observance is was shown again at Boston on Sunday in the conference upon the subject held in connection with the Christian Endeavor convention. A delegate from the West, where Sunday is a holiday, longed for such a Sabbath as New England enjoys; but a Montreal delegate was horrified at the desecration of the Lord's Day to be seen on all sides in Boston. Americans, he maintained, were far behind Canadians in reverence for the Sabbath, and this, principally, because they "were not ready commercially to pay the price of the Puritan Sabbath." A delegate from Scotland strongly denounced the running of Sunday street cars. This is to go back to the attitude of Albert Barnes, who for years bore his testimony against the Sunday cars in Philadelphia, himself patiently walking his three or four

miles, if we remember, to church. But what would the Philadelphia churches do now for an audience if the trolleys and cable-cars were not allowed to carry worshippers? What is proper Sunday observance? Nobody is authorized to tell us. Kansas says one thing, Massachusetts another, Toronto another, Glasgow another; as for what Christians in Germany, or France, or Italy say, the only comment possible to the straitest sect is that of the severe old Scotchwoman when reminded of the Saviour's carelessness about Sabbath observance, namely, that she never did think the better of Him for that.

Mr. John W. Foster is a politician of sufficiently long experience to be cautious about being interviewed, but he seems to have committed the mistake of expressing himself freely upon his arrival in this country without considering the political consequences of his remarks. He was so rash as to tell a reporter in Washington that of all the countries diplomatically concerned in the contest over the terms of peace between China and Japan, "the United States has come out of it with better grace than any other." He added:

"Her interest has been recognized by both belligerents as purely disinterested, her only desire being to render such service as would bring about an honorable and lasting peace. The conduct of the State Department in its very delicate relations with both combatants has been marked by good judgment and by few mistakes, and the good offices of our Ministers and Consuls in China and Japan, where they represented the interests of both Governments, have been very useful, and are highly appreciated by both nations."

Mr. Foster ought to be subjected to discipline by the leaders of his party, and it would be an appropriate punishment to compel him to read the back numbers of some of our prominent journals. He would there learn that, so far from "coming out of it better" than other powers, the United States has from the beginning to the end occupied a most disgraceful and humiliating position. The conduct of the State Department, he would find, has not been marked by good judgment and by few mistakes, but has been a long succession of blunders, of most outrageous stupidity and folly. But while Mr. Foster has hopelessly ruined his reputation as a practical politician, his utterances will secure him the regard of his fellow-citizens as an honest man. It is not easy for us at this distance to form clear ideas of what is taking place in the East, and Mr. Foster's assertion that our country's position has been dignified and creditable must be accepted as the testimony of a well-informed witness who has no reason for manifesting partiality to the present Administration.

The motion made in the French Chamber for a permanent treaty of arbitration with the United States brings up the fact that our Government, first through Mr. Blaine, Secretary of State, and our delegates in the Pan-American Congress, and again by a vote of the House of Representatives, made overtures of the most formal character to all civilized nations of its readiness and desire to enter into such treaties, for the express purpose of avoiding war as a means of settling international disputes. We quote again the words of Mr. Blaine in closing the Pan-American Congress:

"If, in this closing hour, the conference had but one deed to celebrate, we should dare call the world's attention to the deliberate, confident, solemn dedication of two great continents to peace, and to the prosperity which has peace for its foundation. We hold up this new *Magna Charta*, which abolishes war and substitutes arbitration between the American republics, as the first and great fruit of the International American Conference. That noblest of Americans, the aged poet and philanthropist, Whittier, is the first to send his salutation and his benediction, declaring, 'If in the spirit of peace the American Conference agrees upon a rule of arbitration which shall make war in this hemisphere well-nigh impossible, its sessions will prove one of the most important events in the history of the world.'"

After the agreement for arbitration *inter se* had been reached, the delegates adopted another resolution, agreeing to urge its acceptance by the powers of Europe in their relations with the countries of North and South America. These things took place in the latter part of the year 1889.

From that time until we began to have difficulties with Chili there was much enthusiasm in Congress on the subject of arbitration as a permanent policy, and on the 5th of August, 1892, the House passed a joint resolution requesting the President to invite, in an especial manner, the nations of Europe to send delegates to a convention to be held at Chicago during the World's Fair to consider the subject. That being the last day of that session of Congress, the Senate failed to act on the resolution. The trouble with Chili came on early in the following year, and the enthusiasm for arbitration subsided. Still, our movements were taken seriously in Great Britain, and a petition to the Queen, in harmony with the principles of the Pan-American Congress, was prepared and signed by about two-thirds of the members of the House of Commons, and Mr. Cremer was sent as a delegate of the Peace Society to bring a copy of the document to this country as a preliminary response to our invitation. The coolness which set in when the Chilian disturbance took place, waxed colder when the Hawaiian imbroglio began. It was assumed by the Jingoists that England wanted Hawaii, or if she didn't want it France did, or if neither of them wanted it Japan did. In any case we must be prepared to fight. These conceptions were fed by the consciousness of a growing navy and the need of having something to show for it. So, in one way and another, all our fine words on the subject of arbitration as a means of settling international differences have thus far failed to bear fruit. We hope, however, that France will proceed on the line of finding out whether we mean what we said or not. We have no traditional enmities with France, but the contrary, for without her help we should not have gained our independence in the last century. Probably the best way to begin the work of which Mr. Blaine was so proud is to begin with France.

While the results of the English elections thus far declared show a strong tide running against the Liberals, it is too soon to affirm positively that they will be as badly beaten as now seems probable. Sporadic gains for them are to be discerned in the midst of the losses. In 1892 the early elections were jubilantly hailed by the Conservatives as foreshadowing their certain triumph, and it was not till Hodge, in the rural constituencies, began to show that the long scratching of his head meant plumping for Liberals, that Mr. Gladstone's majority hove in sight. This was a great triumph for Mr. Schnadhorst and his assiduous tillage of the country vote, but whether any such skilled cultivator is at work this year, or whether the parish-councils system of local self-government is going to help the Liberals as much as they hoped, time and the event alone can say. What the Irish are desperately striving for, meanwhile, is evidently a return to their old strategic position of holding the balance of power, and making and unmaking parliamentary majorities according to their own sweet will. It must be said that the chances are now uncommonly good for a Conservative majority over Liberals and Irish combined.

If Sir William Vernon Harcourt cannot hold his seat at Derby, what Liberal candidate can feel sure of returning to St. Stephen's? The effect upon his followers would have been disheartening enough had their leader in the Commons, himself the best stump-fighter of them all, been beaten for reëlection in a close and doubtful constituency. What will be the result when he loses Derby, which has been a Liberal stronghold time out of mind? In 1892 Sir William and his colleague led their opponents by 2,000 votes in a total poll of 13,000; now they are beaten by an average majority of 850 in an aggregate vote about 1,600 greater. Even in 1886 they had 2,000 more votes than their Unionist rival, while in 1885 their majority was almost 3,000. In 1880 the Liberals polled nearly three votes for every one cast for the Conservative candidate. Sir William's championship of the local-veto bill has doubtless played a large part in bringing about his defeat. Some nine years ago a Radical paper said that "Derby had been as Liberal as a Liberal firm of brewers can make it for years and years." Prohibition, even upon the local-option plan, is not likely to prove a vote-winning issue in such a constituency.

THE BANKERS AT SARATOGA.

THE State bankers' convention at Saratoga last week was notable for the general expression by the members of their belief that the silver craze in this country has been mastered, coupled with a determination to keep it down at all hazards. Many other valuable ideas have been put in shape for popular enlightenment. These bankers' conventions would do good, if in no other way, by merely showing that the highest interest of banks is the highest interest of the people. The highest interest consists first in preserving a sound standard of value, of uniform goodness; and, secondly, in substituting credit, as far as possible, in place of cash as a medium of exchange. The closeness of connection between these two things is not generally perceived. It is a general advantage to substitute credit for cash, because credit requires less capital for a given amount of work; but credit depends largely upon a sound standard of value and upon the assurance of its uniform goodness. Thus the two things lean upon each other, and it is the business of bankers to uphold them both. In so far as they are successful in this they serve the public interest at the same time that they serve their own interest.

It is sometimes well to get a foreign opinion of ourselves, and it is seldom that we get so candid or so valuable a one as that which Mr. Walker, President of the Canadian Bankers' Association, gave us on Wednesday week. We fancy that the ideas which he presented were new to many of his immediate audience, but not to all of them, since Mr. Cornwell of Buffalo is himself the author of a valuable commentary on the Canadian banking system. Mr. Walker first stated a fact of the highest importance, viz., that our currency system is unlike any other system in the world, and that even at the point where it approaches nearest to some other systems (the national bank-note issues), it is still far removed in principle from any of them. It is also far removed from the best of the older American State systems.

It needs no argument to show that our greenbacks and other fiat money (including silver dollars coined on Government account) are *sui generis*. They are the remains of a state of bankruptcy which was induced by war, which the people have become accustomed to, and which many persons are fond of because they have never known anything better. When we come to our national bank-note issues, we have to acknowledge that these too are unlike anything under the sun. They have an apparent resemblance to the Bank of England system, but it is only apparent. The Bank of England issues against Government securities an amount of currency which, it is supposed, will be in use at all times and never presented for redemption. The corresponding amount in this country is issued by the Government directly, in the form of greenbacks or other fiat money. The Bank of England then issues additional notes against deposits of gold, pound for pound. The national-bank system has nothing corresponding to this. Therefore it does not correspond to the Bank of England system at all. The latter is not the best system in the world, in our judgment, but it is better than ours. It does not admit the element of credit into bank-note issues, but it is self-regulating; the note issues rise and fall with the demands of trade, and they are always backed by gold. The credit element is equally excluded from our system, but the note issues do not rise and fall with the demands of trade, and they are not backed by gold.

Mr. Walker draws attention to the Scotch and Canadian systems, which he considers preferable to the Bank of England system. The vital principle of Scotch banking is credit, and its employment instead of capital as a medium of exchange. How far this system has been perfected may be seen by a glance at the statistics, which show that a deposit account of more than £80,000,000 is carried on a gold reserve of less than £5,000,000. It is carried safely, too. There have been only three bank failures in Scotland in one hundred and twenty years. The Ayr Bank failed in 1772, the Western Bank in 1857, and the City of Glasgow Bank in 1878, and in none of these cases were there any losses to note-holders, not even by depreciation. How is it possible for deposits to be kept at par with gold when the latter is only 6 per cent. of the former? The answer is found in the system of branch banks. The banks are ten in number and they have altogether 900 branches. The Royal Bank alone has 125 branches. Every hamlet in the country has its branch bank, or more than one. All discounts, all "cash credits," all depositors' checks, at the branches are paid in the notes of the bank, which are redeemable in gold at the head office. Therefore it is not necessary to keep gold at any other place than the head office; but, in practice, if anybody wants gold at a branch bank he can get it. The condition in this respect is very much as it was in New England under the Suffolk system, when all New England bank-notes were redeemed at the Suffolk Bank in Boston. Although the country banks were not relieved of the necessity of redeeming their notes at their own counters, it was found that as much gold was deposited in those banks from day to day as was called for by depositors or note-holders.

The Canadian system differs from the Scotch system somewhat, but they both have the advantage of branches, and are enabled thus to put the surplus capital of the business centres at the service of borrowers in the country districts. This is an advantage to the bank as well as to the borrower. If it were not so, the lending would not take place. It serves to equalize the rate of interest on equal security all over the country. That is the crying need in the United States. Mr. Walker makes the suggestion that all national banks having a capital of $5,000,000 or more be allowed to have branches. There is no objection to this that we can see. It is something for our bankers to think over.

THE SILVER CRAZE SUBSIDING.

THE total and tremendous overthrow of the silverites in Kentucky has had the expected effect. All through the South there has been a subsidence of the craze. So marked has been this tendency in Georgia that the Democratic silver convention called to meet at Griffin today, in imitation of the one held in Illinois a few weeks ago, is already doomed to failure. The meeting held at Atlanta to appoint delegates to this convention, after much advertising by the *Constitution* newspaper, brought out only forty-seven persons, including the colored janitor, one traveller from Ohio who happened to be in town, several Populists, and the staff of the *Constitution*. Several leading Populists were chosen as delegates. The previous evening a large meeting of sound-money Democrats in Atlanta was addressed by Congressman Patterson of Tennessee. The most interesting occurrence here was the enthusiastic and long-continued cheering when the speaker mentioned the name of President Cleveland. This was a casual and unpremeditated incident, and the response was as unexpected as it was gratifying to Mr. Patterson and the friends of sound money in Atlanta and everywhere. What took place at Atlanta is taking place in other parts of the State. The Savannah *News* says:

> "According to reliable advices, the Fulton County meeting was attended by forty-seven persons. It is claimed, and with reason, that Fulton County has over 100,000 population. The Clarke County meeting was attended by thirty-two persons. Clarke County has a population of some 20,000. The Floyd County meeting was attended by forty persons. Floyd County has a population of more than 32,000. The Morgan County meeting was attended by three men (two in favor of sound money and one free silverite). Morgan County has a population of more than 20,000. It is needless to pile up such facts with regard to the selection of delegates."

The change that has taken place in Georgia is showing itself in North Carolina, Florida, Mississippi, and Texas. Under these circumstances the Democratic silver conference called by Senators Jones, Harris, and Turpie to meet in Washington next month, if it takes place at all, will be a tristful gathering.

The subsidence of the silver craze is equally pronounced on the other side of the water. It has been evident all along that the German Government was extremely reluctant to take the initiative in calling a new international conference—not that the Chancellor and his entourage had any prejudices against bimetallism, not that they had any well-settled ideas on the subject. It was perhaps because they had no fixed ideas that they were slow to

move. The first step taken after the vote in the Reichstag was to submit the question to the Staatsrath, which, being composed chiefly of the Agrarian element, agreed to the conference. Only twelve members were of the contrary opinion. The Staatsrath, a kind of privy council, has no real power, and only gives advice to the Prussian monarch. The Emperor is said to be for the gold standard, but not disposed to take an active part in deciding the question. Notwithstanding the presence of some active bimetallists in the Government councils, it is evident that the majority would be glad to meet some insurmountable obstacle to the calling of a conference, first, because they have a dark feeling that it is all labor lost, and that Germany's prestige would suffer if a conference called by her should end in failure; and, second, because they do not possess sufficient knowledge of the special subject to feel entirely sure of their footing.

Meanwhile, the opposition among the commercial classes has been gaining strength. The Handelstag, the body which represents all the chambers of commerce in Germany, has followed up its first protest against bimetallism with a series of mass-meetings in the large commercial cities, at which resolutions have been passed protesting solemnly against any tampering with the monetary standard. A league for the preservation of the gold standard (*Verein zum Schutz der Deutschen Goldwaehrung*) has been formed, and is now prosecuting a vigorous campaign of education.

It is understood that a majority of the Federal Council has voted against calling a conference. It is certain that Bavaria and Würtemberg have pronounced against it strongly, and that even the Prussian Diet has voted that nothing should be done in the line of bimetallism without the coöperation of England. That the bimetallists consider the Government less favorably disposed than it was a few months ago, is evident from the fact that they are calling for help from France and England. In the latter country, where a general election is taking place and all the political forces are in motion, bimetallism is about the only issue that is not heard of. There is plenty of talk about home rule, about disestablishing the Welsh church, disestablishing the House of Lords, and about the cotton duties in India. The last-mentioned issue was the one on which Manchester and its outlying territory was lost by the Liberals. Yet the question of reopening the Indian mints to silver has not been mentioned on the hustings, still less that of opening the English mint to that abused and downtrodden metal.

It is probable that the silver craze will disappear from the world altogether in the course of two or three years, leaving the United States to deal with the problem of getting rid of fiat money and of amending their banking laws so as to give the people an elastic currency. Meanwhile, Bland and Bryan have passed out of public life, the former for ever and the latter until he learns some new lessons in politics.

NAVY-YARD REGENERATION.

Secretary Herbert's order directing the removal from the Brooklyn to the Norfolk Navy-yard of two officials who had violated the civil-service regulations in regard to the employment of men, will probbably mark the final uprooting of the old spoils system in the former yard. The Secretary's letter gives striking evidence of the tenacity of the system by showing that, four years after Secretary Tracy's memorable act in putting the laboring force of the navy-yards under civil-service rules, there still remained among the officials of the Brooklyn yard a conviction that the rules were not serious, and that there was no harm in "getting around" them in the interest of politics. Men were continued in the service indefinitely by suspending them or by transferring them from one kind of work to another, instead of discharging them when there was no work for them to do. Large numbers of them were carried on the pay-rolls under assumed names, either to conceal their bad records or to cover fraudulent conduct of some kind. When the officials responsible were called to account for their practices, they explained some of them by saying that they had been committed in accordance with the request of a naval official at Washington, and others by saying that their motives had been good and that no harm had been done. To these excuses the Secretary replied: "Officers must understand that the rules governing labor at the navy-yards are as inviolable as any other regulations issued by the department"; and this declaration, coupled with the transfer of two officials and the discharge of several subordinates, is likely to establish the conviction in the yard that the rules are serious and must be observed.

It is not surprising that it has been more difficult to establish this conviction in the Brooklyn yard than in any other. Secretary Herbert says that "in no other navy-yard has there been so inadequate a compliance with and so total a misconstruction of these regulations as at Brooklyn." This is because the spoils system was established on a more scientific basis in that yard than in any other. All the navy-yards, as everybody knows, were till within a very few years used openly for spoils. They were stuffed to overflowing with laborers on the eve of every election, and nearly every appointment to a place in their service was made for political reasons. During the seven years between 1871 and 1878, when Mr. Arthur was Collector of the Port of New York, the Brooklyn yard was "worked for politics" with a precision and effectiveness which made it a powerful aid to the Republican machine, of which Mr. Arthur was then the head. Regular books were kept of the employees of the navy-yard, with a certain number of "men" allotted to each Republican district association. No district was permitted to have more than its share, but when there was an increase in the number of employees as election day approached, each district could put in its claims for "riggers," "calkers," "plumbers," "carpenters," etc., and get its proportion of the new men. Few of these "riggers" had ever rigged anything more than a primary, or ever "calked" anything nearer to a ship than a beer-barrel, but they were enrolled on the books of the yard, and their records were closely watched. The standard of merit was not usefulness in the work of the yard, but in politics. Any man who was lax in his political work, or who failed to do his part in "keeping his district in line," was dropped, and a more competent man "put on" in his place.

This system was maintained in more or less perfect condition down to the time when Secretary Tracy issued his order placing the laboring force of the navy-yards under rules providing that laborers wanted in any trade must be taken from a list of applicants made up by a board of labor employment. In explaining these rules now Secretary Herbert says:

> "The rules were intended to make merit the sole test for employment and continuance in employment at navy-yards, and especial care was taken to exclude all opportunities for favoritism on the part of any person, and particularly on the part of leading men, foremen, or heads of departments at the yards. Lists of trades were furnished in which men could be employed; lists were made out for each yard suitable for its wants, and these lists, it was provided, could be added to upon application to the department. A board of registration was formed, and rules made to govern its proceedings. Methods by which labor was to be obtained in any department or in any branch of a department at a yard were carefully and clearly mapped out, and so also were the rules by which laborers were to be rerated, promoted, dropped, or discharged."

When this order reached the Brooklyn Navy-yard, it was received by many of the politicians in and out of the service as a huge joke. They did not believe for a moment that Secretary Tracy meant it to be enforced. They went to work accordingly to "get around" it, but one by one they have found out that it was a real and not a play law, that a new era had been ushered in, that the hated reformers had "downed" the old system, and that the navy-yard as an inexhaustible orchard of political "plums" had been blasted for ever. A few, down to the present moment, have clung to the hope that something might still be saved from the ruin, but they have now discovered their mistake. They either leave the dear old yard for another in which the hated rules hold unquestioned sway, or they depart from the service entirely, taking with them the final traces of the spoils system. Small wonder that as they go they fill the air with lamentations about "reform hum-

bug" and "ingratitude towards the men who saved the nation in its hour of peril." They must rig and calk exclusively in politics henceforward.

POLITICAL SYMBOLISM.

THERE seems to be springing up in America a peculiar development of half-educated love of country, to which it is not quite easy to give a name. Perhaps fetishism would come nearest—a kind of object-worship, which leads to setting up a purely material object and regarding it, or its mere representation in miniature, or possibly even its name alone, as something which ought to enlist our hearts in a species of crusade, with the difference that the Crusades were expeditions to rescue an actual city, somewhere within whose precincts Jesus of Nazareth certainly had been buried. This object-worship, however, is directed in many cases to a mere picture or abstraction.

A great deal of the talk about the national flag has run over into speeches that mean just nothing at all. The idea that any enterprise, however rapacious or treacherous, is consecrated if only the stars and stripes are hoisted by its perpetrators, and that to "haul that flag down" when once it is up is cowardice and treason, are absurdities that inspired many a speech in Congress on Hawaii, to say nothing of less important assemblies. So, we are told, English jurists attach a mystical importance to the great seal, and plead that it gives validity to any instrument to which it is put, although appended by a thief, a tyrant, or an assassin. Those who thus regard the flag as the visible symbol of divine favor are fond of bestowing on it the fantastic appellation of "Old Glory," a name, it is safe to say, unknown to hundreds of thousands who did their utmost to maintain its honor during the civil war.

At present the fashion is to dance a species of carmagnole round the "Little Red Schoolhouse"; as if the tremendous problem of national education, and its connection with religion or severance from it, were going to be solved by putting up small structures of wood painted scarlet. Thousands of those who make it their war-cry never saw a "little red schoolhouse" at all; to thousands more it was a place where they were at once half stifled and half frozen, made to drudge through antiquated manuals under the charge of an under-fed teacher who knew but little more than the pupils. In such places, what education was imparted to such as had the brain and the will to acquire it in spite of all its faults and drawbacks, awakened in them, if they were true to even such training, a determination that their children should not have to put up with such a wretched substitute for schooling, but be trained in proper buildings, with proper courses and proper teachers. Whatever the "little red schoolhouse" did eighty, forty, or even twenty years ago, to parade it now as the symbol of a force which shall defend American liberty of thought and speech against ecclesiastical tyranny is like symbolizing our public opinion by Franklin's hand-press, or the potential military force of the nation by

> "The old Queen's arm that Gran'ther Young
> Fetched back from Concord, busted."

The intensest of all these pathetic fallacies, erecting an inanimate object into a sentient being, is in the eternal talk about friendship to silver. We have so often laughed at this in our columns that there would be no object in slaying the slain, if it were not that Senator Morrill, in some recent utterances full of common sense as to the "crime of 1873," thinks it necessary to declare that the Republican party is not "hostile to silver." In the name of common sense, wherein Senator Morrill, for all his eighty-five years, far exceeds most of his colleagues, how can anybody be a friend or an enemy to a metal? How does he set to work to be one? How does he cultivate it? How does he demonstrate his affection to his intangible friend? For, be it observed, the friendship is not to any particular coins. A child, a miser, a coin-collector, may conceivably break into ecstatic baby-talk over his beloved pieces. But your sixteen-to-one man is a friend to all the silver, coined or uncoined, that the world contains, the vast mass of which he never saw and never can see. How is his love to be reciprocated? Or, alas! shall it die unrequited? Will the beloved metal appear responsive at his call in his hour of impecuniosity, in return for all he has borne and suffered for it at the hands of the hostile gold-bug? Just now silver hides itself in the Treasury vaults, and charges a great deal for its safe keeping, and will not come out to rejoice its friends with its company.

It is sad to see such a man as Senator Morrill, who has been the object of touching confidence at the hands of one of the soberest communities on earth, thus giving in to one of the silliest pieces of fiction that ever filled a demagogue's trumpet. It ought in justice to him to be remembered that Mr. Cleveland, in his great message of August, 1893, recommending the repeal of the purchasing clauses of the Sherman act, talked of silver and "its friends."

Such leaders of the people, to whom millions of thoughtful men are looking for direction of their thoughts, should avoid such language. They should concede nothing, even in phraseology, to the juggling arguments of false prophets, who seek to import sentiment into matters which rest wholly on reason, and abuse the lofty name of friendship to influence our action in matters where the coolest and most unemotional temper is needed. American sentiment is a grand thing when aroused for some truly noble cause; it may be a terrible thing when swept away by some fancied demand of the hour, which the next hour may prove a delusion; but it is neither noble nor terrible, but simply silly, when it turns things into persons, when it worships unreal abstractions, and gushes over empty names.

ANTONIO RAIMONDI, THE SAVANT OF PERU.

SCHOOL OF MINES,
ROLLA, MO., June 10, 1895.

THE honor which has fallen upon the name of Antonio Raimondi, exalting him as much as he has distinguished the country in whose service the labors of his life were given, is an example of the just reward of self-sacrificing devotion to a high ideal, notable because the merits of his services were recognized before their fruit had fully matured in the sight of the world, and because he had done his work with heroic courage in the face of innumerable difficulties and perils, with no prospect of fortune, and uncertain of success and fame.

Considered on the side of his visible works, Raimondi stands before us as a scientist, as a certain type of scientist, bringing down into our own times the spirit of those past generations of *savants* and philosophers who challenged Nature in all her moods, having not yet developed into specialists content with mathematics, or chemistry, or botany. He was, in fact, such a man as we should suspect of charlatanism if he were to arise to-day, and for this reason many who have not known much of Raimondi and his contributions to science have not hesitated to express this suspicion concerning him. But he was born at a time when the old *savant* was still the highest type of scientist, when Humboldt, perhaps the crowning genius of them all, was in the zenith of his glory; and he early emigrated to Peru, where conditions were ripe for a man of this peculiar character.

It matters not what rank we may assign him in the galaxy of scientists, whether we admit or not that he imitated Humboldt, or whether we measure him by the rule of originality, since he has become the chief scientific luminary of South America; and it may pass as an evidence of greatness that so many think it worth while to question whether he was great or not. Certain it is that Raimondi possessed the spirit of unremitting toil in an extraordinary degree, and that he collected a vast store of knowledge concerning the natural history, geography, and ethnology of one of the most interesting countries in the world, for which students of all nations owe to him a lasting debt of gratitude. It is a debt, moreover, upon which some payment can and should be made, not only by way of tribute to Raimondi, but in the interest of science itself, for the larger part of his accumulated data remains still unpublished and even unedited.

Antonio Raimondi was born in Milan, September 26, 1826. From his earliest years he manifested a strong predilection for natural history, devoting himself with assiduity to his studies, and haunting the Botanical Garden of Milan like a devotee before his shrine. The marvellous beauty of the tropical flora which he saw there chiefly excited his childish admiration, and largely determined the direction of his future career. This naturally encouraged an interest in travel, so that while yet a boy he had read the reports of all the important scientific expeditions which had been sent out

from Europe to South America, following their itineraries upon the map, and familiarizing himself with every detail of the countries visited. His boyhood embraced a period which was peculiarly rich in scientific exploration, serving to turn the attention of learned men in Europe strongly toward South America. The famous expeditions sent by Charles III. of Spain during the latter part of the eighteenth century had performed a valuable work, supplemented immediately after by the immortal labors of Humboldt, which fairly electrified the scientific world, seeming to open up endless realms for original investigation. In quick succession followed Alcide d'Orbigny (1826), Henry Lister Maw (1827), Pöppig (1827-32), Claudio Gay (1829-42), Darwin in the voyage of the *Beagle* (1835), Von Tschudi (1837-42), Dana in the Wilkes expedition (1840), and Castelnau (1843-47). This is a most extraordinary list, and it embraces only a part of the scientific exploration in and around South America undertaken during the early half of the present century. It was part of the spirit of the time in learned circles to expend intellectual energy, to say nothing of the attendant costs, in the study of the natural history and ethnology of Latin America. The infection was in the air, and Raimondi was one upon whom it exerted its full effect, fixing the destiny of his life.

At the age of twenty-one he had matured his plans for a journey to Peru, intending to devote ten years to the acquisition of material for a work on the natural history of that country. He purposed spending two years in special preparation for this enterprise, but fortune ordered differently. The ferment of revolution was disturbing Italy, and the young naturalist entered with zeal into the common cause against Austria, temporarily abandoning his scientific ambitions in the struggle for political freedom. Thus it was that when Marshal Radetsky scattered the Lombard patriots at Custozza, on July 25, 1848, Raimondi found himself rudely thrust forth, an exile from his native land, wholly unprepared in all save spirit and intellectual ability for the cherished aim of his early life. Undaunted he set out for South America, reaching Lima in July, 1849. If not actually penniless, he was at least dependent now upon his own efforts for support, and he enjoyed the good fortune to win immediately the friendship of Dr. Heredia, Director of the College of the Independence at Lima, now known as the School of Medicine, who engaged him to classify and arrange the cabinet of physics and natural history in this institution. Two years later he was promoted to the professorship of natural history, including in his chair the subject of analytical chemistry. Thus situated, he was enabled to commence the studies for his *magnum opus*, and his enthusiasm so won the favor of his patrons that an arrangement was made in 1852 whereby he might undertake explorations, his duties in the college being fulfilled by a substitute during his absences. The confidence of his friends was soon repaid by the fruits of his labors. In the beginning these consisted of monographs and memoirs, contributed to the transactions of learned societies in France and Italy, and they at once acquired for Raimondi honorable recognition in Europe, while they reflected high credit upon the country and the institution which favored and assisted efforts of such a character. Among these monographs were a careful study of the guano deposits on the Peruvian coast, and of the birds which produce it; a new method for the determination of specific gravity; and a cleverly constructed mercurial barometer adapted to the vicissitudes of mountain travel in such a region as the Sierra of Peru. Whoever has attempted to transport such delicate instruments through the highlands of South America can appreciate the importance of even an approximately accurate mercurial barometer, which can be packed in small compass and be easily renewed if broken; for no one having had experience of the freaks of the aneroid would trust to one of them for serious work at high altitudes.

In his ready inventive genius, and in his ability to utilize even the crudest means available at the moment, Raimondi possessed a rare adaptability for exploration. By careful observations, for example, he was able to use as a valuable check upon his determinations of distance the simple Indian measurement known as the *cocada*. This is the distance that an Indian cargo-bearer can walk under the stimulating effect of the coca-leaf (*Erythroxylon coca*). He found that the nervous excitation began in eight to ten minutes after introducing a fresh quid of leaves into the mouth, and lasted from thirty-five to forty minutes. In this time the Indian would pass over three kilometres on a level road, and two kilometres on ascending ground. At the end of each *cocada* the Indian stops to rest and regale himself with a fresh chew of coca. Along the Peruvian highways are definite resting-places, established by this custom, also called *cocadas*, so that it was an easy matter to obtain an average of these stations. These, taken in conjunction with careful measurements over important courses, with determinations by triangulation, by latitude and longitude of prominent points, and by elevations ascertained barometrically, constituted the basis of the great map of Peru which has been partially completed as an accompaniment of his work, 'El Perú.'

The first book of Raimondi's which appeared was on the Department of Ancachs and its mineral riches, published through the munificence of Henry Meiggs, in 1873. In the succeeding year the first volume of 'El Perú' appeared, bearing the imprint of the national Government, and this was followed by the second and third volumes in 1876 and 1879, respectively. Another work, entitled 'The Minerals of Peru,' was also published by the Government in 1878. These, with sixteen sheets out of thirty-four of the map of Peru, constitute the entire list of his important publications. But these were only the beginning of the compendious work which he contemplated. As he proceeded with his studies, accumulating such rich and diversified stores of material, his original project broadened until it embraced geography, geology, mineralogy, botany, zoölogy, and ethnology.

This is the circumstance most open to criticism in Raimondi's plan. His own friends in Peru, in the midst of their praise, do not hesitate to point out that he set for himself a task that would tax the powers almost of a whole academy of *savants* to complete in a single generation. Making due deductions from this exaggeration, it is nevertheless true that Raimondi projected more than one man could possibly finish in his lifetime, but it does not appear that he seriously expected to finish it. It is one mark of his greatness that, rather than content himself with a completed work narrow in its scope, he preferred to lay deep and broad the foundation of a monumental structure, and to provide the crude materials which others should afterward take and fit and fashion into a perfected whole.

The first three volumes of 'El Perú' were published by a special arrangement with the Government. It was not until 1886 that the expense of editing as well as publishing was undertaken by the state. Raimondi was placed in charge of it, but the funds were so inadequate, Peru being crippled by the war of 1879, and harassed also by an overwhelming foreign debt, that Raimondi was unable to call to his assistance the scholarly aid which he needed. How much has been lost to the world because of this can scarcely be estimated. The results from the working up of his collections and data by a corps of trained students under his direct guidance would have been invaluable. Raimondi felt this keenly, and it required moral courage of a high order to refuse the offer of the Italian Government, made during the war between Peru and Chili, to return with his collections to Italy and produce his work there, with every facility of money and talent freely at his disposal. But these temptations of fame and pecuniary ease were set aside by his feeling of obligation to the country which had so long sustained him in his chosen sphere, and, as he said, it would be still more ungrateful to desert Peru in this hour of her misfortunes.

No further volumes appeared as a result of his arrangement with the Government. He continued collecting new and collating old material, until his death at San Pedro, near Pacasmayo, on October 26, 1890. He was interred with imposing obsequies, such as have rarely occurred in the history of Peru. His is the name which stands forth preëminently honored, revered, unsullied by calumny, a name which calls up no memories of division in politics or faith among his adopted countrymen.

In September, 1891, the task of proceeding with the preparation of 'El Perú' for publication was placed in charge of the Geographical Society of Lima, in consequence of the favorable report upon the Raimondi archives submitted by a special examining committee, of which Ernesto Malinowski was chairman. According to this report, the materials fully warranted the publication of the work in six grand divisions as planned by Raimondi. In addition to the matter contained in the introductory volume, and the two volumes relating to the geography of Peru already published, there is ample material for the completion of this section. The separate sheets for the great map of Peru are well under way, sixteen having so far been printed by the house of Erhard Frères of Paris. These have been drawn by Baluarte of Lima, and it is doubtful if more exquisite examples of the cartographer's art have ever been produced. Their accuracy, of course, leaves much to be desired, but they are so nearly correct that there is no occasion for a competing map of Peru until a painstaking geodetic survey shall have been made.

In the department of geology some maps and cross-sections have been drawn, and the notes are ample for the rest. There are folios in the Raimondi archives describing 708 samples of rocks, with many analyses, and, in spite of the well-known paucity of the Andean rocks in fossils, Raimondi has gathered 2,000 specimens. A considerable number of these have been described and illustrated by William M. Gabb, in an article forming Part 3 of vol. viii. of the Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia.

In the section of mineralogy much has appeared in print in the volumes on Ancachs and the Minerals of Peru. In addition five folio volumes are written, describing 2,994

specimens. A number of boxes of unclassified specimens still remain unopened in the Museum of the School of Medicine. The botanical department is especially rich. The herbarium contains 149 folios, with 20,000 specimens, besides which there are 160 boxes full, of unknown value, and 500 specimens of seeds, barks, gums, resins, etc. This is the portion of the work nearest ready for publication, a large number of colored sketches for illustration being also prepared. The zoölogical collection comprises 1,500 examples of birds, reptiles, and mammals, 4,000 insects, and 500 molluscs. Some of the birds have been figured and described in Ladislao Tavzanowski's work on '1,349 Birds of Peru,' but Raimondi's collection includes many species still unknown to science.

The ethnological department may appear somewhat scanty in materials, containing only 300 objects, but it is peculiarly interesting, and includes 72 skulls which are representative of almost as many different types and epochs. The difficulty of securing craneological specimens, by no means small in any part of the world, is extremely great in Peru, where the Indians regard the sepulchres of their ancestors with a superstitious veneration, and also with a sort of superstitious horror, which extends itself to the persons of those who have been known to enter the caves which, in the Andes, have frequently been selected as repositories for the dead. They will seriously tell of the baleful influences of the "vapores de los difuntos," describing the rheumatic pains and gradual drying up of the body of the desecrator of tombs, ending in death. But it is interesting to note how the greed for gold can assuage even the superstitious Indians' fears, for they will often search these old caves for buried treasure, at the same time seeking to pacify the anger of the "difuntos" by placing fresh quids of coca-leaves between their grinning jaws. They will, however, remain steadfast against explorations, even in the face of liberal offers of pay, and the scientific investigator will often require a guard of soldiers to protect him from the rage of the populace.

The Raimondi archives also contain seventy copious volumes of notes — jottings taken throughout the course of his studies, and written to a large extent in a most abbreviated form. The editing committee of the Geographical Society of Lima, with Dr. Francisco Rosas at the head, began very properly with the work of classifying and writing out in full this chaos of notes, and by the end of 1892 sixteen of these volumes had been thus classified. A systematic plan for continuing the work had also been reached, according to which 'El Perú,' when complete, would consist of twenty volumes.

Unfortunately, the bright prospects which had been encouraged by the arrangement of the national debt with the Peruvian Corporation, Limited, in 1889, began to darken as the financial depression of 1891 spread over the world, and the Government of Peru was forced to withdraw its support of a purely scientific enterprise such as the publication of the works of Raimondi, and the outlook for halcyon days when Government bounty may flow again for the advancement of knowledge is certainly not encouraging. It is a fair question to put before the scientific world, whether the labors of Raimondi, the most exhaustive that have been made within the equatorial belt of South America, shall lapse into a mere record of fruitless effort, or whether they shall be rescued before time has swallowed them up in oblivion. It is matter of history, which should not be repeated, how the studies of a decade by Jussieu, the naturalist of the classic company of Academicians which visited the equatorial Andes near the middle of the eighteenth century, were swept away in a single night by a pilfering wretch in Buenos Ayres; and again how the noble efforts of Charles III. (who found time in the midst of putting down Jesuits, and bridling inquisitorial courts, and striving to undo the mischief of centuries of war and adventurous voyaging after enchanted isles and El Dorados by encouraging habits of industry, to send a scientific expedition to Peru) were frustrated, leaving nothing but four quarto volumes and a mass of moldering material in the Botanical Garden of Madrid to show for it all, in spite of the fact that the people of Spanish America had generously contributed 50,000 ducats towards the completion of the work.

It must be admitted that a like fate seems to threaten the labors of Raimondi, unless aid shall be extended from beyond Peru. Rather than encourage some new enterprise, would it not be a more fitting thing for one or more of our great scientific associations to join hands with the Geographical Society of Lima and the Peruvian people, and secure for the good of the world the fruits of a great life-work, which only needs to receive the finishing touches to render it available? It would surely be an appropriate act of that universal brotherhood of science of which we are wont to hear so much, and which needs to be quickened ever and anon by such deeds of generosity.

COURTENAY DE KALB.

BARRAS'S MEMOIRS.—IV.*

PARIS, July 4, 1895.

THE second volume of Barras's Memoirs is full of details respecting what may be called the domestic life of the government of the Directory; its gossip makes one think at times of the conversations and stories of the servants in some great house. It is instructive, however. The Minister of Police insists on knowing what is said at the most private dinners: "Minister Cochon, whose zeal is never wanting, informs us that Gen. Brune, Talleyrand, Bishop of Autun, his former vicar Desrenaudes, Maret, Semonville, and others have had a mysterious dinner. The guests deplored the severity shown to the émigrés. . . . Talleyrand pronounced himself against the émigrés, and said that they must be shadowed; that examples must be made of them. Maret and Semonville spoke in the same spirit. These three men think of creating for themselves a national title, and of getting indemnities and offices from all the succeeding governments." These words explain Talleyrand's attitude at the time of the tragic event of the arrest and execution of the Duke d'Enghein. Barras and Carnot were not as hard on Talleyrand as Rewbell, who said of him, Maret, and Semonville: "They are three miserable intriguers, enraged liars. . . . I don't believe much in the reports of the police, but there is nothing so bad that I do not think them capable of it."

The police of the Directory were as active in Italy as in France. One of their agents was Clarke, a nephew of Shée, an Irishman who had been secretary of the Duke d'Orleans, and who became minister under the Empire. "Instead of remembering that he was the agent of the Directory, Clarke began by making himself the agent of Bonaparte; he showed him his secret instructions. He addressed to the Directory a list of the generals employed in the army of Italy, with his notes. The observations which accompanied this list represented Augereau, Masséna, and Lannes as robbers capable of all possible exactions." Bonaparte was very careful of the press. "He was, through the intermediary of Regnaud de St.-Jean-d'Angély and other agents whom he had in the army, in relation with all the papers of Paris, as he was the master of all the papers of Italy." Some police reports sent to the Directory by Cochon, the Minister of the General Police, are given at great length in the Memoirs. They show how preoccupied the Directory was with the movements of the royalist agents and partisans.

The Minister of Justice was Merlin de Douai, a former member of the Convention.

"It must be confessed," says Barras, "that he was a very valuable minister of justice, and a wonderful help in the difficult times when it is necessary to give to the judiciary all the resources of its forms and even of its subtleties. This homage was more than once rendered to him by Bonaparte, when he was Commander of Paris, after the 13th Vendémiaire. Bonaparte had already no scruple about proclaiming that the laws were only an embarrassment, and that it was impossible to govern without arbitrary measures. He once said at my table as a pleasantry of the dessert: 'Whenever I do something arbitrary by night or by day in my command, and when I am obliged to overstep my authority, I go and see Merlin; I ask him to find me some law, ancient or modern, to cover me; he reflects a moment, and in less than no time he finds an answer in his head or he puts his hand on the volume and the page. This excellent Merlin never leaves me embarrassed; he is Merlin the Magician.'"

Bonaparte did not forget this extraordinary merit of Merlin when, later, he had to build up his despotism.

After the battle of Rivoli a new campaign was prepared against Prince Charles of Austria. The Directory sent to Italy a division of the army of the Rhine, which, under Bernadotte, crossed the Alps. Bernadotte's troops had the severe aspect of the army of the Rhine, "while," says Barras, "the soldiers of Bonaparte had the aspect of enriched banditti, living in luxury. One of the noisy chiefs of this army, who became afterwards King of Italy, did not content himself with the *sans-culottisme* of manners and of dress; he wished to bear honorific Jacobin names; he added to his own name of Murat the name of Marat." This curious detail has lately been confirmed by the publication in a French paper of a letter found in the archives of the ministry of war, a letter in which Murat asked permission, after the death of Marat, to change his name to that of Marat. He was obliged to content himself with the addition of it. Bonaparte's soldiers called Bernadotte's *messieurs*, which was then an insult. "Gens. Masséna and Augereau proclaimed, in their orders of the day, that whoever in their divisions used orally or in writing the term *monsieur*, should lose his grade and be declared incapable of serving in the armies of the Republic. These orders were read at the head of each company."

The army crossed the Tagliamento, and Barras will have it that this passage, one of the decisive feats of the campaign, was the work of Bernadotte. It is a little childish to try constantly to minimize the merits of Bonaparte as a general. History has a crushing answer to make to Barras; his spite reminds one of the serpent gnawing the file. At Venice, Bonaparte seized the correspondence of a royalist agent, D'Antraigues, and sent it to the Directory. D'Antraigues, whose life has recently been published, served in Venice

* 'Memoirs of Barras, Member of the Directorate.' Volumes i. and ii. Harper & Bros., 1895.

at the same moment Louis XVIII., the King of Spain, the English Cabinet, and the Russian Government. Barras seems to believe that his arrest was not quite involuntary, as he thought more money was to be got from the French commander in Italy. "Conducted to Milan, he was treated there with marked politeness; he had several interviews with General Berthier, and was afterwards received by the General-in-chief. Bonaparte at once saw in this intriguer an excellent instrument for the execution of his satanic combinations against his personal enemies. It was under the dictation of Bonaparte that D'Antraigues wrote the memoirs which Berthier had copied, and which Bonaparte afterwards flaunted as having been found in the portfolio of D'Antraigues." It is, alas! the misfortune of exiles to use unworthy instruments; D'Antraigues was not the worst of those men who, consciously or unconsciously, paved the way for the misfortunes of Pichegru, Moreau, the young Duke d'Enghien.

When the Directory received the portfolio of D'Antraigues, great alarm was felt; in one of the reports was read the conversation of two royalist agents, Fauche-Borel and Courant, with Pichegru, at his headquarters at Altenkirchen. Fauche was said to have offered to the commander-in-chief of the Republican army the grade of marshal of France, the two cordons, red and blue, the governorship of Alsace, the castle of Chambord, a million in cash, 200,000 francs income, a hotel in Paris, without counting many minor favors. It was said in the report that Pichegru had patiently listened to all these offers, and had finally said: "I will cross the Rhine, raise the white flag, unite my troops to the Imperial army and that of Condé. I will march on Paris. But if you want my men to scream 'Vive le Roi!' you must give them wine and money." Barras does not believe that Pichegru meditated treason; he sees in that report only the assertions of subordinate agents; no paper has been produced bearing the signature of Pichegru. "Shall we believe," he asks, "in accordance with the version of Fauche-Borel, that the Prince de Condé, in negotiations of this importance, refused from the beginning to qualify Pichegru as general? It is not proved any more than the rest, though the incapacity, one might say without exaggeration, the political stupidity, of the Prince de Condé would allow us to credit many traits of this sort, exhibited by men living with their heads in a bag, ignorant of human affairs, following only their fixed idea, which is the idea of their own inviolability and of the world's respect for their august station."

The Directory was divided as well as the two councils. A change of ministers was imminent, and Talleyrand was watching for his opportunity. He had been elected to the Academy, he had founded a so-called Constitutional Club. "He told the Constitutionals that he had always been one of them, the Bishop of Autun, the friend of Mirabeau; to the Girondists he professed to have been a Girondist, to the Dantonists to have owed his life to Danton at the time of the 10th of August; to the partisans of Robespierre he said also, but in a low voice and in their ear, that there was something good, even excellent, in Robespierre, that he was, after all, a part of what was most estimable in the Revolution." Talleyrand always had active lieutenants; he had then Desrenaudes, who took care of his private affairs; he had, for the press and the general public, a very gifted man, Benjamin Constant, who was ambitious to rise in the political world; he had Madame de Staël, the most ardent and active of friends, who had given Constant to him. It had become the dream of Madame de Staël to make a new ministry. She had often seen Barras between the 9th Thermidor and the 13th Vendémiaire. Her first care had been to have the name of Necker, her father, effaced from the lists of the émigrés. "So far it was all filial; nothing more legitimate and sacred. Now Madame de Staël wished to make a minister." She was sent to Barras by Talleyrand; she had often spoken to him of Talleyrand, and finally she asked leave to present him to him. "They were introduced together. Madame de Staël came forward, followed by the limping Talleyrand. I had never seen this personage, already famous under two régimes, and who was to be so under many others." Barras was not happy, it would seem, in finding resemblances. We have said that the first time he saw Bonaparte, he thought of Marat. Talleyrand's face made him think of Robespierre—"a sharp-boned, short face, an up-turned nose, a wicked and dry mouth, and, with these natural features, the like accompaniments of art—the powdered hair, the stiff and motionless attitude."

Mme. de Staël, after this first interview, with her usual ardor, pressed Barras to employ the gifted Talleyrand, describing him as particularly devoted to him. In a moment of enthusiasm, she said, "He has all the vices of the old and of the new régime; he will always have a footing in all parties; you could not have a more useful agent. As for you, Citizen Director, he has for you an affection, an esteem, a regard, which makes him look upon you as something 'superhuman.' Who is there better and greater than you? You are a great politician without pretending to be one; you are a great soldier—you proved it at Toulon and in Paris, in battles more terrible than those of the frontiers, and which would have terrified Turenne and Condé; . . . you are a true statesman, and, above all, you are a simple and modest man, who does not vaunt himself. Barras, you are not only great, you are handsome, you are like the Apollo Belvedere, from head to foot." The rest of the conversation must be read in the text; it is almost nauseating. How much truth there is mixed up with voluntary error, it is difficult to say or even to imagine. Mme. de Staël made several such attempts. One day she told Barras that Talleyrand was going to throw himself into the Seine if he was not made Minister of Foreign Affairs, that he had only ten louis left, no house of his own, was forced to seek the hospitality of his friends. "Talleyrand will drown himself if you don't make him Minister." Talleyrand did not drown himself, and was made Minister. The student of history will do well to compare with Barras's account what Talleyrand says himself in his Memoirs. "While Mme. de Staël was crying and stamping her feet, I knew," says Barras, "that the phlegmatic and motionless Talleyrand was waiting in her carriage."

Mme. de Staël has suffered much of late from various publications; but nothing has hitherto appeared more detrimental to her character as a woman. Fortunately for her, Barras is an enemy whose utterances must always remain more or less suspicious. His Memoirs will be a perpetual riddle to historians of the documentary school.

Correspondence.

NORDAU'S INACCURACIES.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: While denying that I am worth answering, Dr. Max Nordau devotes nearly nine pages of the current *North American Review* to an answer to my five-page criticism of him in the June number of that periodical. My original characterization of him was that he is violent, arrogant, inaccurate, and inconsistent, and that he is deficient in humor, and unable to comprehend art. His answer is in itself an exemplification of most of these defects, and I shall not trouble myself to say anything further about them. As, however, he has tried to show that it is I that am inaccurate (ignorant and untruthful is his way of putting it), a few words more from me may be excusable.

The instances of his inaccuracy which I cited were seven in number. As regards only one of these does he make out any case. He quotes, from a poem of Rossetti's, lines which imply that Rossetti was baptized by the name of Dante. W. Bell Scott states in plain prose that Rossetti signed himself in 1847 Gabriel Chas., and that he adopted the Dante later. In this instance there is a conflict of authorities, and the question is one of the credibility of testimony. Let us see what Dr. Nordau's defence amounts to in the other instances.

"In the year 1843 . . . Ruskin *began to publish the feverish studies* on art which *were subsequently* collected under the title of 'Modern Painters'" ('Degeneration,' p. 78).

This has now become a statement that the book "grew out of individual studies," which is very different. The first volume of 'Modern Painters' was published in 1843. When was the "subsequent" collection?

"The Pre-Raphaelites . . . got all their leading principles from Ruskin" (p. 81).

The proof of this, now given, is that Holman Hunt read 'Modern Painters,' and was much impressed by it. Who denies that? But it is well to remember that Ford Madox Brown was the master of Rossetti and the first Pre-Paphaelite, although he never accepted the name, and that his first great picture, "William the Conqueror," was exhibited in London in 1843, the year that 'Modern Painters' appeared.

"They, however, raised it to the position of a fundamental principle that in order to express devotion and noble feeling the artist must be defective in form" (p. 81).

Here the proof offered becomes truly amazing. In the book itself Nordau quotes certain passages from Ruskin, and says: "The Pre-Raphaelites . . . *went further*. They misunderstood his misunderstandings. He had simply said that defectiveness in form can be counterbalanced by devotion and noble feeling in the artist." And then follows the passage I have already quoted. In the face of this accurate statement of what Ruskin did say, he now has the assurance to quote these identical passages from Ruskin as proof of his own assertion that the Pre-Raphaelites believed something else.

His statement that Rossetti "soon exchanged the brush for the pen" he defends by the new statement, almost equally inaccurate, that in his later days that artist "scarcely ever painted and never exhibited." Surely every one but Dr. Nordau knows that Rossetti painted to the end of his life, and sold his pictures as fast as they were painted, not needing

to exhibit them. Nordau also maintains the accuracy of his description of Hunt's "Shadow of the Cross." I am accustomed to judge of pictures by looking at them and not by reading of them, and hence our difference. If Dr. Nordau will look at the picture, he will see that the Christ is palpably *stretching himself* as a rest from his labor, and that the shadow, cast by a nearly level sun, is not on the floor, but on the wall. Will he kindly quote the passage in which "the painter . . . maintained that Christ was painted in an Oriental attitude of prayer"?

Dr. Nordau denies that he spoke "of the 'P. R. B. Exhibition' of 1849 as if it were a separate exhibition of the brotherhood alone." Let us see. His account is as follows:

"In the spring of 1849 they exhibited in London a number of pictures and statues, all of which, in addition to the signature of the artist, bore the common mark P. R. B. The result was crushing. Hitherto no hysterical fanatic had tyranically forced on the public a belief in the beauty of these works, nor was it as yet under the domination of the fashion, invented by æsthetic snobs, of considering their admiration as a mark of distinction, and of membership of a narrow and exclusive circle of the aristocrats of taste. Hence it confronted them without prepossession, and found them incomprehensible and funny. The contemplation of them aroused inextinguishable laughter among the good-humored, and wrath among the morose, who are nettled when they think themselves made fools of. The Brotherhood did not renew their attempt; the *P. R. B. exhibition* was never repeated; the league broke up of itself. Its members no longer added the shibboleth of initials after their names."

I submit that the words I italicize imply that there was a distinctive "P. R. B. exhibition" in 1849. That, however, is a question of little importance. What is more important is, that the paragraph given above is a tissue of misstatements from one end to the other. Since Dr. Nordau has accused me of being ignorant, among other things, of M. de la Sizeranne's recent volume on 'La Peinture Anglaise Contemporaine,' I will take from that book some authentic facts about the Pre-Raphaelite movement. In the spring of 1849 Millais and Hunt sent to the Royal Academy their pictures of "Isabella" and "Rienzi," and Rossetti exhibited his "Childhood of Mary Virgin" at the Chinese Gallery. So far from arousing "inextinguishable laughter" or "wrath," the pictures of Millias and Hunt were well placed, the artists "received many felicitations," and the *Times* "était bienveillant." "Leur réalisme ne choquait nullement le public," and they found buyers. "Personne n'avait remarqué . . . les mystérieuses lettres P. R. B." It is so far from true that "the experiment was never repeated" that it was repeated the very next year, and it was apropos of the pictures exhibited in 1850 that the paroxysm of execration really broke forth. The art which had been admired when "confronted without prepossession" was now damned when the existence and name of the Brotherhood were revealed. In 1851 the Pre-Raphaelites again exhibited (always with the exception of Rossetti) at the Royal Academy, and "le déchaînement ne connut plus de bornes." It was then that Ruskin came to their defence and turned the tide effectually in their favor. The artists of the Brotherhood soon took and retained their place among the most successful of British artists. It was in 1856 that a real "P. R. B. exhibition" was held, "une exposition exclusivement préraphaélite qui venait de rassembler les principales œuvres de la confrérie," and at this exhibition Rossetti reappeared before the public and "fut salué d'enthousiastes applaudissements."

The first sentence of Dr. Nordau's account of Pre-Raphaelism is absolutely all that remains of it as a statement of fact.

Dr. Nordau concludes his answer to me by saying that my "arguments" are "hair-splitting" and "do not even touch his thesis." I made no arguments and did not combat his thesis. Personally, I am inclined to share his ill opinion of many of the "new movements" in art. My effort was to show that a person so ignorant or so reckless has no right to express any opinion whatever on matters of art, and in this effort I think I have succeeded.

KENYON COX.

JULY 10, 1895.

DAVIS'S EGYPTIAN BOOK OF THE DEAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Late last year there appeared from the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons a large work entitled 'The Egyptian Book of the Dead,' by Charles H. S. Davis, M.D., Ph.D. The only portion of this book which lays claim to being original consists of the first four chapters, containing a treatise on Egyptian religion. A large portion of these ostensibly original chapters is a flagrant plagiarism, taken chiefly from Renouf's Hibbert Lectures of 1879, but also from Maspero's 'Études de Mythologie et Archéologie Égyptienne,' Paris, 1893. The following is an example:

(Davis, p. 20.)	(Renouf (2d ed.1,884), pp. 113–114.)
Horus also is one of the names of the sun, and had his myths quite independently of Râ or Osiris. An ancient text speaks of him as "sitting solitary in the darkness and blindness." He is introduced in the royal ritual of Abydos, saying, "I am Horus, and I come to search for mine eyes." According to the 64th chapter of *The Book of the Dead*, "his eye is restored to him at the dawn of day."	But Horus also is one of the names of the sun, and had his myths quite independently of Rā or Osiris. . . . An ancient text speaks of him as "sitting solitary in the darkness and blindness." He is introduced in the royal Ritual at Abydos, saying, "I am Horus, and I come to search for mine eyes." According to the 64th chapter of the Book of the Dead, "his eye is restored to him at the dawn of day."

Many columns of equally convincing examples could be added if space permitted and the book were worth the trouble. Any one who is not convinced may compare the following parallel passages, which are not less striking than the above. (D.—Davis, R.—Renouf). D. p. 24—R. pp. 110-111; D. p. 15—R. p. 109; D. pp. 23-24—R. pp. 116-117; D. p. 57—R. p. 176; D. p. 46—R. p. 148; D. p. 47, foot-note—R. p. 149, foot-note (in this foot-note, Davis mistakes Renouf's ii—*i. e.*, Roman 2—for 11, and thus makes Lepsius's 'Denkmaeler' contain eleven parts. The veriest tyro knows that it contains only six, but Mr. Davis makes the same mistake in the very next note, showing that it was not an oversight). This is not the only instance in which foot-notes have been adopted bodily from Renouf, *e. g.*, D. p. 61, foot-note—R. p. 173-174. I have a copious supply of further references, but the above will suffice.

In conclusion, these chapters are simply a compilation from various hastily and carelessly consulted sources—a compilation which for lack of critical judgment, for inaccuracy, and superficiality, has never been equalled. It swarms with blunders so incredibly numerous on every page as to beggar description; even the hieroglyphic title of the Book of the Dead on the cover, though it contains but three words, has one of them written incorrectly; and the name of Pierret, from whom Davis's version of the 'Book of the Dead' is taken, is many times spelled Pierrot.

Very truly yours,

JAMES HENRY BREASTED.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, July 4, 1895.

A "CHARACTER" OF THOMAS PAINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the extensive series of facsimile documents now in course of publication by Mr. B. F. Stevens, appears a paper of characterizations of prominent Americans, prepared quite possibly in 1778 for the guidance of the British Commissioners of Conciliation. The "revival" of Paine gives interest to following, although there relegated to a vertical position in the margin:

"Mr. Payne—The Editor & part author of Common Sense, should not be forgot. He is an English man, was a School-master in Philad[a] must be driven to work—naturally indolent —& led by His passions."

H. A. CUSHING.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

Notes.

E. & J. B. YOUNG will shortly bring out 'The Bible and the Monuments: The Primitive Hebrew Records in the Light of Modern Research,' by W. St. Chad Boscawen.

D. Appleton & Co. publish this month 'Gustave Flaubert, as seen in his Works and Correspondence,' by John Charles Tarver.

From Henry Holt & Co. we may presently expect 'Kafir Stories,' by William Charles Scully.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, will soon publish 'Twenty-five Letters on English Authors,' an unconventional text-book, by Mary Fisher.

The fifth volume of the Works of Edgar Allan Poe, edited for Stone & Kimball, Chicago, by Edmund C. Stedman and Prof. Woodberry, is composed of tales of adventure and exploration. The frontispiece is a photograph of the portrait of Poe by Oscar Halling.

From Macmillan we have a new volume in the delightful Defoe series edited by George A. Aitken, being 'The Life, Adventures, and Piracies of the Famous Captain Singleton'; and a reprint of James Morier's 'Adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan,' a novel of Persian manners dating back to 1824, and called by Mr. Curzon, who supplies an introduction, an "immortal book." Mr. Curzon furnishes a key to some of the contemporary historic personages of these pages.

We gladly note the appearance of that admirable book of reference, 'Burdett's Hospital and Charities Annual for 1895' (Scribners). It has been thoroughly revised, as usual, and one turns to it not only for statistics, including the personnel, of the various foundations all over the world, but also for valuable information regarding hospital and charities economy.

The value of Foster's 'Physiology' and the convenience of a single volume are attested by the existence of unauthorized American reprints of the work in that form. Macmillan & Co. have recently issued a volume revised by the author, and containing in its 1183 pages the illustrations and the text of the five-part edition, omitting, as stated in the preface, "all the histological matter and all discussions of a

too theoretical nature." There is also omitted the Appendix, constituting Part V., on the "Chemical Basis of the Animal Body," by A. Sheridan Lea. It is interesting to compare this portly volume with its prototype of 1876. That the physiologist is affected, perhaps unconsciously, by the present tendency toward improvement of anatomical terminology appears in the chapter on the spinal cord, where the ambiguous *anterior* and *posterior* are replaced by *ventral* and *dorsal*, and the latter itself by *thoracic* as designating the intermediate region of the organ. The index is less complete than is desirable for a text-book. A search therein for the half-dozen pages in which are admirably discussed the behavior of a decerebrized frog, commonly known as the "Goltz balancing frog," was vain so far as concerned those three words and several others that would naturally be employed.

The curators of the Taylor Institution at Oxford have recently responded to a memorial asking that the University afford opportunity for a systematic study of the works of Dante, by appointing, as lecturer on Dante, Dr. Edward Moore, Principal of Saint Edmund Hall.

The first instalment of an exceedingly important work, 'Il Codice Diplomatico Dantesco,' is about to be issued under the auspices of the Italian Dante Society. The entire work, which will appear in about twenty parts, at the price of fifteen lire each, will consist of photographic facsimiles of all documents bearing on the life of Dante and his family, together with critical notes by Guido Biagi and G. L. Passerini, and reproductions of various works of art that have close relations to the same subject. The larger part of the first instalment is taken up with the much discussed document relating to Dante's embassy to San Gemignano. Subscriptions for the series should be sent in care of E. Loescher & Co., Corso 307, Rome.

'The Influence of Dante on Modern Thought' is the attractive title of an essay by H. Oelsner, which took the Le Bas Prize in 1894, and is now published by T. Fisher Unwin. Interesting as the subject is, however, and capable as it is of brilliant treatment by one versed in the history of literature and alive to the vital points of Dante's influence, it becomes in Mr. Oelsner's hands a mere opportunity for the display of the scattering results obtained from industrious but desultory reading. The subject should still recommend itself to thoughtful students.

Two parts have already been issued of the first volume of a 'Bibliografia Universale del Teatro Drammatico Italiano, con particolare riguardo alla storia della Musica Drammatica,' compiled by Carlo Salvioli, on the basis of a large body of notes left by his father, supplementing and correcting the 'Drammaturgia' (1755) of Leone Allacci. The work, which is to be completed in four or five volumes, aims to give full bibliographical information (alphabetically, by titles) of all plays printed in Italian from the earliest times to the present day, including the opera and similar musical productions. A supplementary volume will contain the necessary indexes and other important matter. The price of the first volume is twenty-five lire. The paper and printing are not particularly good, and the work is not sufficiently advanced to be judged in detail; but an examination of the parts already published shows it to be of value to libraries and to students and collectors of dramatic and musical literature.

The 'Jahrbuch der französischen Litteratur' (Zittau: A. Haase), which is the work of Prof. M. Mayr, consists of brief notices of the various novels, volumes of poetry, and plays which have appeared during the year in France. It is a useful little work within its range.

'La Nouvelle Sorbonne' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.) is a detailed account of the planning and building of the new edifices required by the increased needs of the famous old institution. The book is written by the architect himself, M. H. P. Nénot, and is of great interest to others than professional men. It is plentifully illustrated with plans and cuts.

The third volume of M. Gustave Larroumet's 'Études de littérature et d'art' (Paris: Hachette) opens with an article on the now famous theatre at Orange and the superb performances of "Œdipus Rex" and "Antigone" given there last summer. M. Larroumet, like all true artists, wants the theatre restored and consecrated to the performance of the immortal Greek tragedies and also of the finest of the French classical tragedies. The article on Victor Hugo is interesting in its exposition of the poet's influence on decorative art, and is based on a full description of Hauteville House. The chapter on Dumas *fils* treats of the continued interest of the master's work, and places him above all other dramatic writers in France in the nineteenth century. There is also a careful study of Paul Bourget, fuller and more satisfactory than most of those which have as yet appeared. The critical appreciation of the work of Puvis de Chavannes has an immediate interest for American readers in view of the share about to be taken by the painter in the decoration of the new Public Library of Boston.

We have already commented on Mr. Samuel A. Green's list of early American imprints in the library of the Massachusetts Historical Society. This list may now be studied in the new volume of Proceedings of that society, of which it fills 130 pages. Other salient matter is in the nature of obituaries of a large group of eminent deceased members—Dr. O. W. Holmes, Prof. H. W. Torrey, Robert C. Winthrop, Rev. George E. Ellis, Judge E. R. Hoar, Henry Wheatland, Edwin L. Bynner, and Edward J. Lowell. Portraits of most of these are given; and the likeness of Mr. Lowell to the poet can hardly fail to be remarked.

Mr. John T. Hassam, a member of the same society, has reprinted from its Proceedings for May a paper on "The Confiscated Estates of Boston Loyalists" (the Society's building stands on one of these). Mr. Hassam has compiled and tabulated his data from the records in the Suffolk Registry of Deeds. His alphabetical lists of the absentees in 1778, and of the despoiled Loyalists, accompanied by descriptions of the property, the names of the purchasers, and the Liber and folio of the record, are certain to be much consulted.

The Quinquennial Catalogue of the officers and graduates of Harvard University, 1636–1895, marks by its bulk the steady growth of the university, and this increased size compels a higher charge—for a paper copy $1.50 (or $1.65 postpaid); for a bound copy $2.00 (or $2.20 postpaid). The Catalogue can be had of the Publication Agent of Harvard University. The asterisk is so cautiously applied to those alumni whose death cannot certainly be established, that it is refreshing to find a member of the class of 1842 resuscitated in an inserted correction.

In the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for July, Judge Richardson discusses the question of the proper title of the presiding Justice of the Supreme Court. He concludes, as between Chief Justice of the United States and Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, "that both titles are correct, or that neither is wrong. They are synonymous." But Chief Justice Fuller was the first person to be nominated, confirmed, and commissioned as "Chief Justice of the United States." The investigation throws a curious light on Chief Justice Chase's sense of his own importance, as "always a watchful guardian of the dignity and powers of any office which he held." An obituary notice of the late Daniel Ravenel of South Carolina, member of a Huguenot family for six generations in that State, recalls Mr. De Forest's lively war-story, 'Miss Ravenel's Conversion from Secession to Loyalty.'

The annual address of Mr. C. R. Markham before the Royal Geographical Society, which is published in the *Geographical Journal* for July, is mainly devoted to showing the intimate relations between history and geography. Incidentally he suggests the adoption of a scheme of geographical education, England being still behind other countries in teaching this science, and he closes with an urgent appeal for the despatch of an Antarctic expedition, "a necessity from the point of view of terrestrial magnetism alone." There are also in the *Journal* the usual records of the Admiralty and Indian Surveys for the past year, and a report of the interesting addresses at the Franklin commemoration, to which we have already directed attention. Pure science is represented by Dr. H. R. Mill's paper descriptive of his bathymetrical survey of the English lakes, which is illustrated by maps and pictures.

—Mr. Andrew Clark of Lincoln College, who has just abandoned Oxford for the rural quiet of a college living, has uttered his "swan's song" as an antiquary in the form of a volume of "Addenda" to his 'Wood's Life and Times, 1632–1695,' issued by the Oxford Historical Society (New York : Macmillan). It opens with a more complete set than has hitherto seen the light of the documents connected with the suit for libel in which Antony Wood managed to involve himself by his free comments on the conduct of the first Earl of Clarendon ; and as this, curiously enough, seems to be the only suit of any importance in the Chancellor's Court for which the papers have been preserved, it has some general interest as indicating the form of procedure in academic tribunals. Next follows a heavy sheaf of "additional notes," taken from the yearly accounts of the Vice-Chancellors and Proctors, up to this time unutilized for historical purposes. And then the greater part of the volume is occupied by a systematic catalogue of Wood's MS. authorities, which it must have cost infinite patience to disentangle from his very imperfect references. The book is a fitting conclusion—we hope not a final conclusion, after all—to labors which have given us not only the three volumes of 'Wood's Life' collected from his diaries, and the new edition in two fat volumes of Wood's 'History of the City of Oxford,' but also the four "Parts" of the University Register for 1571–1622—the only trustworthy authority for Elizabethan Oxford. Mr. Clark deserves a place as an Oxford antiquary—and to him there can scarcely be higher praise—by the side of and on a level with Antony Wood and Brian Twyne.

—Another Oxford book of much the same character is lying upon our table. For many years past every one who has engaged in palæographical work in the Bodleian Library has been in the habit of falling back in any difficulty of deciphering upon the kindly courtesy

and learning of the "Special Assistant in the MS. Department." Mr. Macray represents a type now almost extinct in Oxford—the scholar who from boyhood to advanced age has worked within academic walls. Speaking of Magdalen College chapel, he tells us it was his "delight as a clerk to take part in its inspiring services, his honor as a chaplain to lead them." A few years ago his college did him the proper honor of election to a fellowship, and he has now undertaken the congenial task of preparing (upon the basis of material gathered by Dr. Bloxam) a register of the members of Magdalen College from its foundation in 1458. The first volume (London: Frowde; New York: Macmillan) begins with the Fellows, and brings the list down to 1520. It is really a collection of biographical notes, gathered chiefly from the college records; and as the list happens to include few men of mark, except Wolsey and Starkey, this part of the work appeals but little to the outside world. It is preceded, however, by an abstract of the proceedings in the Visitations of the college in 1506 and 1520, which gives one an insight into the internal life of a great clerico-academic foundation just before the Reformation. The charges of gross immorality which we here find so freely made seem to have had little or no basis; but we cannot help feeling that even under the shadow of Magdalen's wonderful tower there was a great deal of petty spite and simmering irritation. That this would not be an uncommon case with little societies of celibates, thrown together half-a-dozen times a day, may be guessed by any one who knows anything of human nature; and that it did not cease with the sixteenth century will occur to every reader of Mark Pattison's 'Memoirs.'

—Despite the fine scorn of the Levites of culture for "Greek through English," there is really no reason why those who are compelled to admit with Mr. Spencer that they know nothing of the Greek and Latin classics in the original should reëcho his boast, "and very little in translation." Reading Homer or Plato in Butcher and Lang or Jowett is not the same thing as reading them in the text, but it is far better than not reading them at all—better, perhaps, as some of us are finding courage to say, than reading the original without intelligent enjoyment, and using it only as an exercise ground for grammatical pedantry. But the student of translations is liable to be baffled by allusions and puzzled by turns of phrase which the scholar takes for granted, and for the elucidation of which he has no learned apparatus at hand to consult. A good translation, moreover, necessarily sacrifices something of the meaning of the original to the exigencies of English idiom. In such cases the frigid stream of the commentary may act as a sort of condenser to recollect a portion of the evaporated sense. Mr. Walter Leaf's 'Companion to the Iliad,' published a year or two ago, was designed to meet these needs in the case of students of Homer, and the success of that work has induced Mr. Bernard Bosanquet, favorably known as the author of a 'History of Æsthetics,' to prepare a similar 'Companion to Plato's Republic' (Macmillan). The best judges of such a book would be the readers for whom it is intended, or some teacher who has actually worked through the 'Republic' in translation with a class unacquainted with Greek. The work appears to have been judiciously and conscientiously done; the commentary is free from pedantry and irrelevant metaphysical subtlety, and presents, in the language of the preface, about "the sort of interpretation which a tutor at Oxford or Cambridge would probably lay before his pupils."

—Mr. W. H. Forbes's edition of Thucydides, of which parts i. and ii. have lately been issued by the Clarendon Press (Macmillan), will furnish, within certain limits, a very complete and satisfactory apparatus for the study of the great historian in the original. It is meant for the use of "readers in the universities and the upper forms of schools"; but it promises to turn out a highly serviceable and convenient edition for the library of any gentleman and scholar who is more interested in the interpretation and illustration of the author than in questions of textual criticism. Mr. Forbes does not pretend to offer a new text, adopting Bekker's with few changes; but in all questions as to the meaning of his author, the style and construction, the antiquities, topography, and history, he has availed himself with judgment and thoroughness of the latest and most valuable sources of information. For example, the discussions of the topography of Platæa and of the fortifications of the Peiræus are based upon personal inquiries and the reports of the most recent explorations by the British and American schools. Notwithstanding the praiseworthy endeavor to sift and condense as much as possible, the scale of the illustrations in these earlier parts is certainly a generous one: the notes and apparatus to book i. occupy 169 pages, the introductory essays, 132. These latter treat, in a sober and judicial spirit, of the life and mind of Thucydides, his trustworthiness as an historian, and the characteristics of Greek prose literature previous to and contemporary with his era. The last of these contains specimens of the early chroniclers, as well as of Gorgias, Hippocrates, and Democritus, which reveal to a certain extent the contrast and resemblances between Thucydides and the writers of his own epoch. Mr. Forbes does not bring out the strong probability that the contortions of Thucydides's periods must sometimes be referred to a perverted rhetorical taste deliberately and painfully piling up oddities of expression. If Dionysius were not our witness for this, we might negatively infer as much from such transparent narrative as the episode on Pausanias and Themistocles "where the lion smiled." The excellent maps that accompany this volume complete the usefulness of an edition which offers more than its modest pretensions, and which is worthy of a collaborator and pupil of the late Master of Balliol.

—The stately volume of nearly 750 pages in largest octavo, 'Le Centenaire de l'École Normale' (Paris: Hachette), has reached us. M. Paul Dupuy's 'L'École Normale de l'An III.' (recently mentioned in these Notes) and 'Précis Historique' cover one-third of the whole work. M. Georges Perrot, the present director of the School, furnishes an introductory chapter of forty-five pages. The administrations of the seven former directors, from Guigniaut to Fustel de Coulanges, are commemorated in brief essays by Jules Simon (Guigniaut), E. Vacherot (V. Cousin), Th. Froment (Nisard), and others, about eighty pages in all. Nearly twice as much space is devoted to famous teachers, Michelet, Caro, Riemann, Pasteur, etc., etc.—delightful reading, these sketches by former pupils or associates, evincing warm sympathy as well as keen appreciation. Excepting the same author's 'Les Maîtres de l'Histoire' (Paris, 1894), we know of nothing heretofore published on Michelet that gives such a true and complete picture of the man and scholar as Gabriel Monod's monograph of twenty pages, fascinating as a novel, interspersed with specimens of notes from the lectures, or rather "causeries géniales," of that remarkable teacher "qui inspirait à ses élèves la passion d'un amant pour sa maîtresse." As might be expected, the sciences are given their full share in this memorial volume; there are articles on "The Laboratory of M. Pasteur," by M. E. Duclaux; on "The Teaching of Mathematics at the School," by M. Jules Tannery; on "The Scientific Annals of the School," by M. D. Gernez, etc. Among the *Variétés* (200 pp.), contributed by a score of eminent graduates, Pasteur's few notes on his humble origin and early life in Paris are charming by reason of their unaffected modesty. Francisque Vial's "L'École en 1893" and Jules Lemaître's "L'Esprit Normalien" may be recommended as initiatory reading to those not already deeply interested in the institution which Nisard, in conversation with the Empress Eugénie, once defined as "l'école de précision de l'esprit français." Lemaître, in his usual bright way, denies almost totally the existence of a peculiar Normal spirit, and effectually combats Zola's brutal characterization of the graduates of the school as "pions! tous des pions! rien que des pions!" The book is of the highest interest, and replete with suggestions especially to all in any way connected with higher education. The illustrations, some thirty in number, mostly plate pictures, are all of a high grade, the delicate etchings of Nisard and Michelet and the fine photogravures of V. Cousin and E. Bersot being especially striking and attractive.

EDWARD A. FREEMAN.

The Life and Letters of Edward A. Freeman. By W. R. W. Stephens, Dean of Winchester. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

Dean Stephens has performed his task in a workmanlike fashion, and Freeman was a considerable figure in the intellectual and political history of the last half-century; yet we put down the two volumes of the 'Life and Letters'—*Letters and Life* they should rather be named, since the letters form their larger and more interesting half—with a certain unreasonable disappointment. Recent biographies have accustomed us to expect, in works of that kind, some revelation of men's private lives—of those feelings, too sacred or too petty, which most of them in their lifetime have instinctively withheld from exhibition to the world. Whether it be the wise judgment of Mr. Freeman's family, or the good taste of Mr. Stephens, or a singular unity in Mr. Freeman's public and private life, or all three, to which it is owing, it is certainly the case that these volumes reveal no privacies and tell us scarcely anything of their hero as a son, a husband, or a father. And we are bound to acknowledge that we have no right to look for more. Interest is a good thing, but it may be purchased at too high a cost.

Then, again, Mr. Freeman's life was what people call "uneventful." He failed in his efforts to enter Parliament: a welcome and stalwart ally in more than one public movement—as in the agitation occasioned by the Bulgarian atrocities—he was not exactly a leader in any: his professorship he obtained only when he was too old and too set in character and opinions greatly to influence academic thought. Even the promise of the preface, that the reader will find herein "a re-

cord of the growth of his opinions," is hardly realized. Some opinions, it is true, he came to hold a trifle more loosely, as the years went on, and he certainly became aware of the existence of fields of thought outside his own and yet bordering upon them; but in the main he arrived at his opinions in early life, and pretty quickly, and held to them to the end.

In these volumes, then, we have the Freeman of the printed books which had already come from his pen. He is here looking around for his materials, rather than presenting results; he is indulging freely in playful exaggeration; he is giving never-ceasing expression to the affection he felt for some of his fellow-workers, like "Johnny" Green, and the respect in which he held others; still, it is everywhere the Freeman (though with his coat off, so to speak) that we knew already. The "unity of history," the "Eternal City," the "unspeakable Turk," the never-to-be-allowed Austrian "Empire," Earl Godwin and Harold and the battle of "Senlac," the *Landesgemeinden*, and primitive Aryan institutions—they are all here—only in a briefer and usually a more jocular form; for the letters are very commonly articles in brief. And so, though these volumes may, perhaps, soften some hearts that have been hard to him, by making them realize how intensely conscientious he was and how desperately hard he worked, they are likely to leave unaffected the attitude the world is inclined to take towards his work as a scholar.

This is not the place, and indeed it were much too early, to attempt to estimate Freeman's career as a whole, to add to the many essays thereat by Mr. Bryce and others which appeared at the time of his death. But it may be worth while to take this opportunity to set down some of the causes which tended, especially in his earlier years, to secure public attention for his work, and some of those, especially in his later years, that diminished that attention; and to seek our illustrations from these new letters rather than from the books already in our possession. Of course the main reasons why Freeman has deservedly won a considerable reputation are that he possessed learning and talent and style; while the reasons why he will doubtless not be reckoned in the future among the great historians are, that he was devoid of genius, and that his style was not of the first order. But there is a harmony or want of harmony between a scholar's work and the *Zeitgeist*, which, to no slight degree, adds to or detracts from the applause of contemporaries. Taken at the flood, the tide leads on to fortune in the world of ideas as well as the world of affairs.

Freeman began his serious study of history in 1848; the last volume of the work which has done most to give him fame, the 'Norman Conquest,' appeared in 1876. This was the period during which "the movement of nationality" reached its high-water mark and changed the face of Europe; and Freeman was both touched by, and gave expression to, the enthusiasm of the time. A fervid belief in the rights of nationalities to govern themselves gave purpose to much of his writing. With Liberals all over the world the principle had won its most glorious recognition in the resurrection of Italy; Freeman insisted upon applying it to the less evidently attractive cases of Greece and Servia, and supported the bare assertion by a profusion of historical reminiscences. Nothing could more delight those who were inclined to shout for freedom, nothing more irritate "practical" politicians. Unfortunately, however, for Freeman's hold upon men of a later generation, the problem of nationality where it now presents itself is hardly so simple as it used to be. Nationalities are so inconveniently mixed! And in such cases even Freeman was inclined to give it up as a bad job. As he writes to Prof. Ihne in 1880, when working at his 'Historical Geography': "The Czechs are a nuisance. I think I could draw a map as I should like to see things, but for them" (ii., 209).

Freeman's nationalist enthusiasm was both deepened and banked-in by the intellectual influences that just then no English historical scholar could escape. It was a time when almost the only solid work in the field of history was being done by German investigators. It is not so now: Freeman wrote very justly in 1891 that "the French of Paris have been lately doing work much better than they had ever done for some ages." He hits the point of time, if not of cause, when he jokingly adds: "I always fancy that in the war the Germans knocked some of their *Geist* into the Frenchmen's heads, and so lost some of their own" (ii., 437). And he had long been alive to one of the weaknesses of the German professorial historian: "Don't be angry if I say," he writes to Prof. Ihne, "that so many of your German scholars write as if history was a matter of theory, as if they never saw any of it going" (ii., 262). Nevertheless, he could not escape from the wave of Teutonist enthusiasm; and, as every one knows, it reached its height in his treatment of Old English history. Even a Welshman would smile at his raptures at Anderida. Referring to the oft-cited entry in the English chronicle under the year 491, he writes to Prof. W. Boyd Dawkins in 1868: "At Anderida to-day I well-nigh forgot William, and thought mainly of Ælla and Cissa, and *that jolly smiting of Brets*, leaving not one remaining" (i., 415). With so incorrigible a boy we cannot be cross; but it was hardly a judicial frame of mind.

His Teutonism happened to fit in well with another tendency of public thought. The period was one in which parliamentary government was making headway in western Europe generally, and in which parliamentary reform was seldom out of the public mind in England. Now, Freeman was to all intents and purposes a good Liberal, but he gave much more to the Liberal cause than his personal adhesion. He satisfied that deep-rooted craving of the English mind for precedent—for some assurance that the claims of reformers are only for the restoration of ancient rights. "We have made changes from time to time," he wrote in 1872 in his 'English Constitution'; "but they have been changes which have been at once conservative and progressive. . . . They have been the application of ancient principles to new circumstances; they have been the careful repairs of an old building." This may or may not be true; it was undoubtedly comforting. We will not quote again the well-known *Landesgemeinde* passage; but there is a reference to it here that sounds a little pathetically now. "To stand," he writes, "with the clear heaven above and the snowy mountains on either side, and see the descendants of the men of Sempach and Morgarten discharge the immemorial rights of Teutonic freemen, is a sight which may well make us doubt whether we are in the common world or in some historical paradise of our own imagination" (i., 296). Unluckily, the recent investigation of the sources seems to show that the popular assembly of Uri has grown out of, and cannot be traced earlier than, the manorial courts of the middle ages. As an example of "immemorial democracy" it is only too likely to be relegated to the "paradise of imagination."

To large learning and a vigorous style, then, add enthusiasm for nationality and for "immemorial" democracy, and Freeman's earlier reputation is in large measure explained. In noticing the more recent currents of thought that have dealt hardly, too hardly, with that reputation, we shall be more brief.

By the two great intellectual movements, conveniently indicated by the terms Evolution and Socialism, that have in these latter days, for good or for ill, shaped and colored men's thoughts, Freeman was entirely untouched. Take the latter first. We now concern ourselves far more than we ever did before with the economic condition of the masses of the people, and this necessarily reflects itself in historical literature. Freeman used to quote with amusement the remark of Green, "Freeman, you are neither religious, literary, nor social"—meaning that he gave little space in his writings to the history of religion, of literature, or of society; but he hardly realized how enormously this limitation of range lessened his interest for men at large. Freeman always maintained (i., 108), following his master Arnold, that "history was the biography of a political society," and, putting external relations and wars on one side, that it was "primarily concerned with forms of government, institutions, and laws." "History is past politics." This was a view natural enough and interesting enough in Arnold's time, when all the world was bent on constitution-making, but it has to be very liberally interpreted indeed to make it equally interesting now. An easy illustration may make this clear. Freeman maintained as a young man—and seems to have held much the same view to the end—that the story of ancient Greece was of "incomparable" value because its "institutions developed and decayed" with "astonishing rapidity." "Thus the history of a few generations became an epitome of the history of political society, and was *a sufficient school for instruction* in all the principles of an historical philosophy" (i., 122). But when once the fact of ancient slavery is driven well into our heads, this incomparable value of Greek history insensibly disappears. With almost all the manual labor of society done by slaves, the freest Greek democracy was a narrow oligarchy. With the manual laborers *within* the citizen body, as to-day, the problem of government is fundamentally changed.

And then as to Evolution. It is a word we are perhaps getting a little tired of; but whether we use that word or not, there can be little doubt that the thought of slow but never-ceasing change, of the appearance of new conditions out of the bosom of the old, a thought set before us in different forms by Hegel, Darwin, and Comte, is dominating the most typical historical work of the day. But Freeman was contentedly ignorant alike of philosophy and of biology, and was never possessed by the idea of development. And this it is which, added to the limitation of his view to "politics," makes his application of the idea of the "unity of history" seem sometimes so mechanical. One large fragment of the drama of history he saw clearly enough, in some of its aspects—the rise and long-abiding influence of the Roman Empire. But, for the rest, the continuity of history was very apt to be with him only geographical. Such and such things had happened centuries ago in such a place, and accordingly—so the argument might seem to run—we ought to regard with such and such views events happening there now. "The

enslavement of Greece," says his biographer, "by the alien and infidel Turk was to him the most melancholy and distressing event in all history" (i., 107). How it came about that Greece was enslaved, he made no serious attempt to answer. History to him was full of the irrational or the unrational; and to a generation that sees, or thinks it sees, more and more meaning in the world outside man, his utterances concerning mankind could not but be unsatisfying.

And yet we would not leave the matter thus. Freeman was moved too greatly by the intellectual fashions of his early manhood, he was moved too little by the intellectual fashions of the present day, to obtain many eager readers just now. He wrote so very much that his style inevitably suffered—Mr. Stephens's vindication of him from the charge of "diffuseness" rests on an odd confusion between diffuseness and minuteness (ii., 473)—and he has probably left nothing that will live as literature. He produced, however, a vast amount of solid work; and a future generation, not quite so *blasé* as our own and not quite so familiar with his catch-words, will find that it can hardly take up a bit of it anywhere without being instructed and stimulated. And, after all, his everlasting insistence on the great external facts of the history of the western world erred chiefly in going no further. To have a firm grasp upon them is, indeed, the beginning of wisdom; and if some of us have grumbled in the past because he kept us at the "vile rudiments," we cannot help seeing that only too many people nowadays are ready to skip the necessary preliminaries. We are inclined to say that, if we had our way, we would set every student who was about to take "a course in Sociology," through a pretty stiff examination in Freeman's 'General Sketch of European History.'

CLASSICAL ANTI-SEMITISM.

Fontes Rerum Judaicarum. I. Textes d'auteurs Grecs et Romains relatifs au Judaïsme, réunis, traduits et annotés par Théodore Reinach. Paris: Leroux. 1895.

In the history of prejudices, not one, perhaps, will be found to be wider spread and stronger than the prejudice against the Jews. We meet with it in the early and the recent literature of every modern nation, we look back upon it in the daily life of the past, and we see it still surviving even in this liberal country and in these free-thinking days. There is an explanation of it ready for every man who goes no deeper than the surface—an explanation "much received by Christians" (as old Sir Thomas Browne said when exploding that "vulgar error" about the unsavoriness of the whole nation)—"that it is the badg or brand of a Generation that Crucified their Salvator." But when one searches further, one finds that this explanation no more explains the origin of the prejudice against the Jews in general than it accounts for the said "error." In fact, "it is a conceit without all warrant, and an easie way to take off dispute in what point of obscurity soever." The truth is, that the prejudice began long before Christianity was heard of, and that anti-Semitism is to a great extent an inheritance twenty-two centuries old.

Such, at least, is the conclusion to which M. Théodore Reinach comes after a study of all the passages in the Greek and Latin pagan writers in whom allusion is made to the Jews. He has gathered over two hundred extracts from more than a hundred authors, and this without including legal texts or inscriptions, all of which he reserves for other volumes. Each extract is printed in full, and in a parallel column we have a French translation, while brief but excellent foot-notes complete the page. Such a collection is valuable from two very different points of view. In the first place, as M. Reinach remarks, ancient Jewish history, as written by the Jews themselves, stops with Nehemiah. It proceeds again, in an intermittent fashion, with the books of the Maccabees, the 'Embassy' of Philo, and the 'Wars of the Jews' by Josephus. For the rest of the four centuries, from Alexander to the great uprising against Rome, Josephus in his 'Antiquities of the Jews' was for the most part a mere transcriber from pagan authors of general histories or of monographs. After the death of Josephus, and down into the fifth century, the investigator of Jewish history must have recourse to the pagans or to the Christian chroniclers who utilized them. The actual remains, therefore, of the pagan writers, sought out from all sides and brought together in this book, form the best, because they are the earliest original, sources of study for this period of Jewish political history.

But it is to the other point of view that M. Reinach in his notes and introduction chiefly turns. The main interest in his book lies not so much in any new discovery which his collection makes possible in the field of political history, as in the opportunity which it gives us to watch the variations in Greek and Roman and Greco-Roman opinion about the Jews themselves. We can here trace that opinion step by step for six centuries, and see how attraction changed to repulsion, and how repulsion developed into an antipathy which found expression in many of the same terms that are familiar in Europe to-day. 'Telle phrase méprisante de Tacite, telle accusation de Posidonius ou de Molon, trouve encore aujourd'hui son écho dans la polémique courante; Apion ressuscité écrit de gros pamphlets et de petits journaux, et le préjugé, mis en circulation il y a deux mille ans, suggère encore des lois d'exception dans tel pays et fait des victimes dans tel autre."

Though the Greeks of the Attic age must have known something of the Jews, as we can see from one or two allusions in Herodotus, yet they have left us nothing about them in their works. In Greek, as we know Greek, the Jews begin to attract important notice in the writings of the philosophers of the Alexandrine age. At first, no hostility was felt towards them. Nearly all the philosophers were free-thinkers, led by their philosophic reflection to a sort of vague monotheism which tended to make them respect a race that, merely by the effect of religious evolution, had arrived at a conception of divinity so elevated and so like that of Hellenic philosophy. "La simplicité et la pureté morale des croyances des Juifs, l'austère grandeur de leur culte spiritualiste, leur étude constante et passionnée de la Loi, qui, à un examen superficiel, se confondait avec la spéculation métaphysique, tout cela excita d'abord au plus haut degré la curiosité, l'admiration des philosophes grecs." Theophrastus calls the Jews a race of philosophers; Clearchus traced them back to the gymnosophists of India; later writers said that Pythagoras and other Greek philosophers had borrowed much from them; Strabo eulogizes Moses and his earliest successors; Varro compared their horror of graven images to the Roman worship in its early and purer days. Even Tacitus, in the midst of his passionate invective against Judaism, admits: "Judaei mente solum unumque numen intellegunt . . . summum illud et aeternum neque imitabile neque interiturum." The curious inquiries of the philosophers into the particulars of the Hebrew religion, its sacrifices and its sabbaths and its taboos, prove that the Greeks, always hospitable to foreign divinities, felt a longing that this new god also should be added to their pantheon. Under the early Roman Empire, when, in the abandonment of the old faith, all sorts of superstitions were eagerly adopted, there was evidently a flood of converts at least to the outward observances of Judaism; and the allusions of Horace, Tibullus, Ovid, Persius, Seneca, and Juvenal, sarcastic and sneering as they are, would show, even without the persecutions under Domitian, how widely the Jewish religious movement had spread in Rome.

But, on the other hand, there was that in the character and institutions of the Jews which repelled the pagan world as strongly as the broad principles of their religion won them respect and esteem. The charge of heathendom against Judaism was laid in two counts, which M. Reinach calls *Religious Exclusiveness* and *Social Exclusiveness.* For the first, the very fact that the Greeks and Romans were so hospitable themselves to foreign divinities made it well-nigh impossible for them to see how any nation could be so presuming as to believe that it, and it alone, worshipped the one true God. That a nation should have its peculiar national god, preferred to all others, they could easily understand, for such they had themselves. But to deny absolutely the existence of other divinities; to refuse to bow down in the House of Rimmon, whether before the statue of an Olympian or of an apotheosized Roman Emperor; to throw down the images of the gods of the State or city, thus refusing to let Greeks and Romans enjoy the worship of their own divinities while forbidding them even to enter the temple of the Most High—that any nation should venture upon such a policy passed the comprehension of Greek and Roman alike. Even the philosophers revolted at the pretension that their own highest conceptions were but the successors of a revelation given centuries before and exclusively to the little tribe in Palestine. As a result, wounded vanity joined outraged patriotism and loyalty to pour upon the self-devoted heads of the *gens contumelia numinum insignis* every sort of insult that mankind knows for those who dissent from established religions; and if the Jews were called atheists and worshippers of false gods in one breath, it only shows the blind rage into which their accusers had fallen. Moses is now an Egyptian priest, now even a woman. The god of the Jews was the sky, the clouds; again he was Sabazius or Bacchus. The Jews never, their slanderers said, had a graven image; they said also that their chief idol was a golden ass in the Holy of Holies. The customs of the Hebrew religion, among which the pagans knew best circumcision, the observance of the Sabbath, and the taboo of pork, became the subject of a hundred jokes. Sometimes wholly gratuitous and imaginary rites were attributed to them. Such, for instance, was ass-worship. Here the pagans, as M. Reinach seems not to know, were on pretty ticklish ground; for the Jews might have pointed to the sacrifice of the ass to the winds in Tarentum, to Apollo of the Hyperboreans; or, coming closer home, to the prescription of such a victim in more than one amphictyonic decree of Delphi. But the most outrageous charge of all was that of the septennial sacrifice of a Greek, kept and fattened up for the purpose, at the altar of the Jewish God—a charge

well known in its mediæval form to students of the "murder ritual."

As for "social exclusiveness," the Greeks, who applied the term βάρβαροι to every nation, however civilized, that was not Hellenic, were the last people in the world that could with consistency object to the Jew's struggle to maintain his individuality. For when Hellenists preached social unity, they meant unity which should conform to an Hellenic pattern. There was very little of their own which they were ready to give up for the sake of universal agreement. The Jews, of course, had the same ambition that their ways should become the ways of all the world; but, as they stood in the merest minority against the propaganda of Hellenism, they were obliged to insist the more strongly upon uniformity among themselves with their own institutions and to surround themselves the more closely with jealous barriers, if they were not to be utterly overwhelmed and their individuality effaced by the rising tide. As Haman said to Ahasuerus: "There is a certain people scattered abroad and dispersed among thy people in all the provinces of thy kingdom; and their laws are diverse from all people; neither keep they the King's laws; therefore it is not for the King's profit to suffer them." "The Jews," said Philostratus, "set themselves apart not only from the Romans, but from all mankind. Their manner of life is unsocial—they will meet us neither at the table nor in libations, nor prayers, nor sacrifices. In fact, Susa, Bactria, and even the dwellers in Ind are nearer to us than they."

Here was a kind of exclusiveness which pagan antiquity found it harder, perhaps, to understand and to forgive than even the refusal to commune in religion. The social life of the Greeks and Romans was, paradoxical as it may seem, mainly a public life, and it was lived in the open air. Festivals, banquets, games, theatres, state gatherings of every sort, were essentials of it. From all such the Jew held himself aloof; and as for private functions, he would neither eat nor sleep under a pagan's roof, nor receive a pagan into his own dwelling; his daughters might not marry with the leaders of the social world. This systematic exclusiveness, which would have been abhorrent to the ancients even in a nation of conquerors, was all the more hateful because it was displayed by a mere handful of men coming from a corner of the earth that had never had any political importance whatsoever. But there was another thought that rankled in the heart of the Greek *bourgeois*, and that made him hate the Jews bitterly enough to satisfy the most orthodox Christian merchant. There was one department of life in which Jews came out of their shells, as it were, and mingled with other men. This was commerce, and herein they actually had the impudence to be the rivals of the Greeks themselves! Commercial privileges were granted them everywhere, by Macedonian kings and Roman emperors; they received the Roman citizenship at Rome and became Greek citizens at Antioch, Ephesus, and Alexandria. It was in this last city, which had become the Greek mart of the East, that the first important Jewish colony grew up; it was here that Greek rancor against the Jews found its most savage and unjust expression; here are to be discovered the germs of almost all the slanderous accusations which the Jewish race has had to bear. Libels of every sort, slanders of every variety, on individuals, on the whole race, its institutes, its manners and customs, its physique, and its morals, *quidquid Græcia mendax audet in historia*—all these found here skilful inventors and eager retailers. The spot could not have been better chosen for the purpose. Alexandria was in Egypt, and the Egyptians, easily fraternizing with the Greeks, had nothing but hate for the Jewish despiser of their superstitions, who boasted of a time when his ancestors under Moses had gone out of Egypt with a mighty hand.

And the first systematic attack of Greek literature against the Jews was the work of Manetho, an Egyptian priest who had accepted Hellenic civilization. It is true that in Hecatæus we find the earliest of the Egyptian versions of the Exodus, but it is also the most impartial of them all. The story that they were expelled from Egypt for leprosy is not to be found in Hecatæus (on the contrary, the Egyptians themselves are sufferers from pestilence and the Jews are expelled as unbelievers in the Egyptian gods), and he has no bitterness against the Jews, but only praise for their lawgiver and their institutions, save for their ξενηλασία and μισοξενία. This earlier version seems to have been set aside purposely and never really lost, for we find it cropping out in Trogus Pompeius in the Augustan age. But with Manetho, in the third century B. C., begins the long list of professional detractors, taking up and amplifying the tale until it grows savage enough to satisfy the veriest Jew-baiter that ever lived. The whole race of the Jews was leprous and mangy; the very word sabbath meant ulcer; the Jews were dirty, of a foul savor, stupid, over-clever, brutish, never producing a man of intelligence nor a useful invention; their civilization was of the lowest order, or it was high but recent and borrowed; they were servile and always in revolution, obstinate and yielding, cowardly and rash even to enthusiasm; they were pirates, wreckers, avaricious hoarders of gold (see Cicero for Flaccus, where it looks as if there was a "Jewish vote" in Rome which had to be dealt with gingerly), fakirs, beggars, magicians, fortune-tellers. In fact, they were an accursed race, the scum and dregs of the nations.

Such a wholesale onslaught and such contradictory accusations were probably never made against any other people. We have attempted little in this notice save to sum up the conclusions and the inferences which M. Reinach draws from his study of the extracts. He has a thesis to defend, of course, the honor of Israel, and so far forth one must be on his guard. But the cool observer cannot but grant that under all this excessive virulence of invective and insolent disregard for rejoinders (not wanting), there lay an individual and national jealousy and a wilful misunderstanding, fostered for selfish ends. It was time that some scholar like M. Reinach should put together the evidence upon which the prejudice of the ancients rested, and, having in a few brief words indicated its flimsy, contradictory nature, should vindicate thus the fame of the Jews in pagan times. We shall look with interest for the promised volumes which are to contain the inscriptional and legal texts which bear upon this topic.

A Vagabond in Spain. By C. Bogue Luffmann. Scribners. Pp. 360.

THE author of this book accomplished the feat of walking across Spain, a distance of 1,500 miles, in 145 days, crossing, on his way from Biarritz to Malaga, as many as ten mountain barriers. He started in midsummer, and consequently had to suffer a great deal from the scorching noonday sun, while in the elevated regions the nights were often uncomfortably cold. He carried a bundle weighing twenty pounds, and once walked thirty-five miles in a day. He went deliberately as a tramp, begging his food and lodging wherever he could, except in the large cities, where he played the gentleman for a while. He had a special pass which, in case of difficulty, always insured attention from the alcalde of the place he happened to be in, but he did not like to make use of it, as it betrayed the fact that he was not a vagabond, and, by making a newspaper hero of him in some places, frustrated his intention of being a genuine tramp for the time being. His object was to come into close contact with the people, as one of them, and it appears that he was also making agricultural studies, of which, however, few details are given in this volume.

Nine persons in ten—such is the force of tradition—will, on hearing of such a trip, think first of all of the risk involved. Mr. Luffmann was, indeed, duly impressed, at the French border-town of Biarritz, with the idea that every other Spaniard he should meet on the road would prove to be a villain or a cut-throat. He did see many of the stone mounds, surmounted by a cross, which it is customary to erect at spots where a murder has been committed; and once, near the end of his trip, he had an adventure in a roadside inn near a river, which cost him a sleepless night of suspicion; but, apart from this, he tramped for nearly five months "alone and unarmed, without a single interruption or insult." He declares that the Spanish blade is a bogey, adding:

"It is a big pocket-knife, nothing more. Rest assured, the Spaniard dreads the knife more than we do! I have lived with my fellow-countrymen on more than one continent, and I am ready to maintain that the Spaniard fears strife and is far slower to enter into it than the average Englishman. True, the blade is his weapon of defence as much to-day as ever it was, but he is not led to take action without cause, and the best of all proofs of his harmlessness is the extreme orderliness of every Spanish crowd."

A tramp is not treated with much ceremony, even in Spain, where begging is not considered disgraceful. The lodgings Mr. Luffmann had to put up with, night after night, tested his endurance and courage more than anything else. He admits that his nose soon became an "insentient excrescence," but the filth and parasites were sometimes unendurable, and once he fled from an infested den to a hole by the roadside, although he had been warned that there were wolves in the neighboring hills. Once he slept among mules, expecting every moment to be stamped on; pigs were his roommates at other times; in some places the alcalde sent him to the hospital; once in a while a soaking wet floor was his mattress; and at Toledo he fell asleep on his bundle at the city gate and lay there till morning. Such trifles do not disturb a born traveller like Mr. Luffmann, and he found consolation in the fact that the midsummer nights were always cool and balmy.

His gastronomic experiences were even more varied than his lodgings. But inasmuch as "the greatest thing in the world" is, in his opinion, "a tramp's appetite," he did not suffer as much as might have been expected. Indeed, he, an Englishman, admits that a midday meal such as he had at Zaragoza—half a dozen courses, hot and cold by turns—though an odd mixture, "results in far less indigestion than the heavy, lumpy dishes of England." The bread he always found hard, heavy, and vil-

lanous, but in soup it is as delicious as the finest biscuit. One of the oddest dishes he tasted was a couple of eggs whipped up with tomatoes, vinegar, and oil, all fried together, which, he declares, was "not bad." At Calatayud he bought a meal for himself in the shops; it included cooked fish, bread, cucumbers, a pear, chocolate, and white wine—all for nine cents. He saw schoolboys eating raw potatoes with brown bread and tomatoes for lunch, and beggars greedily devouring decayed fruit thrown out of the stalls. One of his meals consisted of the fried spines of beet-leaves, served in the pan on a small stool, "the only dining-table known to the Spanish peasantry." His English ideas as to table manners were frequently shocked, especially by the Oriental custom, still widely prevalent, of fishing a choice morsel from the plate with the fingers and putting it into your neighbor's mouth, as a special compliment and mark of attention.

As regards the natural attractions of Spain for a traveller, our author's statements are somewhat inconsistent. Thus, on page 212 he tells us that "Spain, as a whole, is ungenerous, ugly, churlish, brutalizing; and he who sees it in its fulness, remembers few natural glories"; yet in the preface he remarks that "the road across Spain is long to him who takes it on foot, but it repays the toil. It reveals wonders in nature and in art which will with difficulty be rivalled elsewhere." Probably the explanation of this inconsistency lies in the fact that the first of these opinions was written before he had seen Andalusia, the second after. All Spaniards swear by Andalusia; not only is it scenically the most interesting part of their country, but Mr. Luffmann found that south of Madrid cleanliness becomes more general, the home instinct keener; and the farther he journeyed south the more apparent this became to him. Yet, all in all, he holds that Spain is far from being "the most magnificent country in the world." Of her seventeen millions two-thirds are shamefully underfed, and fuel is so scarce that few can afford to keep comfortably warm in winter. Coal and water are as scarce as timber. But he admits that, great as are the natural disadvantages of Spain, much more could be done for the comfort of the inhabitants if they would cease to consider labor degrading and imitate the Moors, under whom Spain was a fertile garden. Some amusing illustrations are given of the laziness and unpracticalness of the laboring men—on page 100 the case of a contractor who first swore at his men for being so late and then treated them to cigarettes all round; on page 116 the case of some masons who carried an enormous stone up a ladder forty feet high and then squared it down to the weight of a few pounds, throwing over the chips. Yet when one reads (p. 54) of a man receiving only $1 for a week's hard labor, one hardly wonders at such lack of energy and common sense.

Mr. Luffmann is not a literary artist in the higher sense of the word: he does not arrange his facts with a view to perspective and light and shade; but he jots down his observations in such a straightforward, epistolary manner that one often gets a vivid impression of what he attempts to describe. Though not of the æsthetic persuasion, he has an eye for female beauty, and notes its occurrence with satisfaction, its absence with sorrow. The finest women he saw were in Zaragoza, Madrid, and Andujar; of the cigar-girls in Seville, he says that "a plainer or more unkempt lot it would be hard to find." On the way to Granada he found many women dressed in male attire. They were not specimens of the "New Woman," but simply olive-pickers, who chose that garb to facilitate the climbing of trees. At Andujar, however, Mr. Luffmann found evidence of modernity in the fact that prizes were awarded by fair women to knights contending, not on steeds, but on bicycles.

Papers and Addresses. By Lord Brassey, K.C.B., D.C.L.: Imperial Federation and Colonization, from 1880 to 1894. Arranged and edited by Arthur H. Loring and R. J. Beadon, A.M. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. x, 322.

It may be taken as evidence to indicate that the Imperial Federation movement is still alive, notwithstanding the dissolution of the League, that men are anxious to put on record for the benefit of posterity some account of the services which they have rendered to the good cause. Mr. F. P. de Labilliere's 'Federal Britain,' which was published last summer, and this book of Lord Brassey's seem both of them to have this as the main reason for their existence, though incidentally they record something of the history of the movement. The claim advanced for Lord Brassey's share in Imperial Federation before the organization of the League is far more shadowy than that which Mr. Labilliere makes for himself. His one recorded effort, a speech in 1880 before the Bradford Chamber of Commerce on "Our Colonial Empire," is really a speech on Imperial Defence, and not on Imperial Federation, though the editors indicate very well the spirit of the book by saying of it that "neither Lord Brassey himself nor others who have been taking part in the same movement ever since, have added very much to the knowledge of facts or recognition of principles to be seen in this paper." But in the case of neither book is the justice of the claim of as much importance as the fact that the claim is made.

For the early history of the movement, before 1884, the date of the formation of the League, the book is of no value. It is incomplete and inaccurate. It says, for example, that Mr. Edward Jenkins's article in the *Contemporary* of January, 1871, had "the actual title of 'Imperial Federation.'" It does, however, give much of the history since that date, and it performs the still more important service of bringing together in easily accessible form a considerable amount of the most valuable documentary material of history. Besides Lord Brassey's speeches, there are those of other leaders of the League, like the Earl of Rosebery, and, most important of all, perhaps, we have in full Lord Salisbury's answer to the deputation to request the calling of a second colonial conference, in which he suggested that the League ought to formulate a plan of federation, and the actual plan proposed by the committee which the League appointed in consequence of this suggestion.

It is surprising that the experience of the American colonies in striving for union, say from 1750 to 1789, has not been more carefully studied by those interested in advancing the cause of Imperial Federation. In spite of the difference of time, the American conditions were in many ways similar to those now existing in the British Empire, especially in the matter of difficulties to be overcome, and the history of that period has many suggestions to make to the leaders of the later movement. For example, the most serious specific criticism to be made upon the plan of federation proposed by the committee of the League is in regard to its method of raising revenue. This is by requisitions upon the States—exactly the plan adopted in the American Articles of Confederation, and the failure of that plan should not be forgotten. There is no reason to suppose that it would work any better now in the British Empire; indeed, if we may judge by what seems to be the disposition in the colonies in this matter, we can hardly doubt that it would lead to the same failure. This is not the place, however, to criticise the plan itself, and Lord Brassey has conferred a favor upon students of the movement by republishing these documents and his own speeches.

The Golden Pomp: A Procession of English Lyrics, from Surrey to Shirley. Arranged by A. T. Quiller Couch. London: Methuen; Philadelphia: Lippincott.

From Herrick's splendid line, "The golden pomp is come," an echo of Ovid's *aurea pompa venit*, Mr. Quiller Couch has taken a title for an attractive volume. He has confined his selections to short lyrics, somewhat arbitrarily excluding the ode. This exclusion appears to have come rather from a wish to avoid long poems than from any theoretical scruples regarding the essential nature of a lyric or the "sustained and progressive" treatment which, according to the preface, distinguishes the ode and the ballad. In a few instances the editor has presented as a lyric a passage torn from its context in a longer poem. We do not quite like this, nor does Mr. Couch himself feel quite easy in his mind about it; at least, he always apologizes or deprecates. The arrangement of the book is ingenious. From spring and youth at the beginning to winter and death at the end, the object has been to conduct, as it were, a continuous procession of the year and the life of man. Pretty and fanciful as this arrangement is, and ingeniously as it has been carried out, the idea was hardly felicitous. The natural order of time would be less confusing, and would have afforded greater variety as one passed on from page to page. Besides, if pretty fancies were to determine the succession, this variety might be held to relate itself more closely than Mr. Couch's regular procession to the real *pompa* of man's existence as well as to the shifting year. "Now it shineth, now it raineth fast."

Though Mr. Couch's aim, as he tells us in his preface, "was not to instruct, but only to amuse," still he has written a considerable number of notes, and these, we presume, are meant to be instructive. We should like to praise the editor's scholarship as unreservedly as we can commend his taste, but the truth must be told. Though most of the notes are good enough, and some are excellent, some of them are mere blunder. How could Mr. Couch define "the clear in highest sphere" to which Lodge likens Rosalind's hair, as "the extreme, surrounding crystalline ether of the old cosmography"? Even if he knew nothing of the matter, poetic feeling should have kept him from this dreadful slip. Again, what shall we say to "imberbis Apollo" as a gloss on "the god unshorn"? Mere carelessness, of course. (*Sic tibi sint intonsi, Phoebe, capilli.*) A perverse comment is that on Wyatt's request to his lady to have done with her nonsense, or, as the poet puts it, to "leave her bourdes" (p. 146). Mr. Couch prints *boards* (!), and explains the word as "tackings to and fro." Is it possible he does not know so common a word as bourd? Worse than all is a fantastic piece of misinformation at p. 356. Commenting on "The Character of a Happy Life," Mr. Couch remarks that the lines "are said to be almost identical with a German poem of the same

age," and adds that Sir Henry Wotton "may have seen the original in one of his several embassies to Bohemia on behalf of Elizabeth of Bohemia." It is hard to forgive an editor for such a note as this. The facts are well enough known. The poem Mr. Couch is thinking of is by Weckherlin, and no one doubts that it is a translation of Wotton's verses.

Au Pays Russe. Par Jules Legras. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

M. LEGRAS is an observant and open-minded Frenchman who has made, he states, three prolonged sojourns in Russia since 1892, with the object of learning the language in order to teach it. His book consists chiefly of detached sketches, often not exceeding a paragraph in length. Many of them are no more than impressionist pastels of a bit of scenery, a winter's night, a birch forest. Others narrate an illustrative incident, a conversation, sometimes without comment, often with judicious remarks which compare French manners and customs or explain the Russian point of view. Most of his experience was gained in Moscow, and he frequented the bourgeoisie and the lower classes, regarding them as more representative for his purpose than the aristocratic and official classes. He pays very brief attention to Count Tolstoy, St. Petersburg, Odessa, Archangel, Warsaw, and to Kieff. In this last town he found the monks very inquisitive, and amusingly ignorant of geography, as noted by Miss Hapgood in her recent volume. He gives an interesting and comparatively long account of his stay in one of the most notorious of the famine districts, in the Nizhni-Novgorod Government. The outlines are dim, so far as the famine, pestilence, and peasants are concerned, but clear and suggestive in what touches the characteristics of land-owners, governor, doctors, and the country.

The author avoids politics, and confesses to cherishing a tender love for "this land of Russia, formless, colorless"; and of Moscow he speaks with enthusiasm as well as with tenderness. Very rarely are his observations, or his deductions therefrom, erroneous, except on matters pertaining to religion, where his Roman Catholic sentiments, hereditary rather than personal, if we may judge from his tone, lead him into a lack of appreciation. To a Protestant observer the comments which he offers on the services and the effect produced thereby, would seem more applicable to the Roman Catholic service. His aversion to the long hair and beards of the priests leads him into the injustice of calling them all, without distinction, dirty. On the other hand, he does full justice to the self-sacrificing toil and zeal of an army of Russian philanthropists, who not only erect enormous institutions and maintain them without expectation or desire of public notice, but give their own services and lives in modest simplicity. This simplicity, one of the striking characteristics of Russians, is repeatedly referred to with enthusiasm. Our author expresses his surprise at the manner in which intelligent Russians keep abreast of all scientific and literary interests abroad as well as at home. He seizes the nature of the peasants almost equally well, and gives rational explanations of many things which are apt to confuse temporary visitors—such as the difference between the peasant of the manufacturing towns and the peasant of the fields, pure and simple.

Some of his experiences were amusing, some rather alarming and annoying. One of his best anecdotes narrates how the peasants of a certain village came to the priest of their village, and asked him to pray for rain, that their harvest for the next year might be saved from utter destruction. "I am very sorry for you, my lads," said the priest, "but I haven't got my oats in yet, and rain would ruin them." The peasants offered money for his prayers. "How much will you give?" After consultation the peasants mentioned a sum. The priest argued and bargained, and, at last, a price was agreed upon. "Very good. I will have the prayers; but I will ask for only a little rain, so that my oats may not be completely spoiled," said the priest. The prayers were said. On the following day rain descended for several hours, just enough to wet the soil and not to injure the priest's oats, which were standing in sheafs in the fields. The amusing sequel was that the peasants, instead of being angry at the priest and cutting off his financial supplies for the future, drew the conclusion that "he gets everything he wants, does our priest!" Therefore, they gave him larger contributions than ever when he made his periodical rounds.

It is impossible to quote the many charming and sympathetic passages, both impressionist and realistic, which we should like to bring to our readers' notice. But the justness of several remarks on the subject of Count Tolstoy calls for their reproduction. In speaking of those disciples of the great writer who obey, to the letter, his precepts, he says that

"they become as intolerant, as harsh, in their new humanitarian faith as the worst inquisitors of the middle ages. Many sectaries of the great Mystic act only from demonstrative reason (not from the heart), and in the name of a *principle*. Tolstoy's celebrity has, perhaps, injured the cause of charity in Russia far more than it has served it; too many hearts, moved by his great voice, have not comprehended that he was not preaching a gospel, and that he has no idea of prescribing either formulæ or rules of conduct; they have copied him externally, and have thus merely dried up his doctrine, instead of fertilizing it by action. Russia naturally produces, in all ranks of society, many of those souls who are attracted by suffering, and who thirst for self-devotion; they would have followed their bent without Tolstoy's pamphlets; the sole effect of these pamphlets probably will be to render some of them repulsive fanatics. . . . Tolstoy energetically denies that he desires to play the part of an apostle. 'If I write,' he said to me, 'it is not for the purpose of preaching charity, non-resistance of evil, manual labor, vegetarianism; it is simply for the purpose of saying to my brethren: "Behold! these things have done me good; if your heart impels you, make a trial of them in your turn."'"

It is rather surprising to learn that during the brief Archangel summer a dramatic troupe plays translations of all the pieces in fashion in western Europe—those of Sudermann, Dumas, Ibsen, Sardou, Blumenthal, with "Orphée aux Enfers" for their greatest success. In the winter the troupe disperses, to Astrakhan, and to Omsk, in Siberia, which is the leading-lady's ideal of a theatrical paradise, for balls, promenades, showers of flowers, and the like.

For those readers who are already familiar with the general traits and the history of Russia and her life, this book furnishes a multitude of dainty and valuable details, and the style is, throughout, extremely sympathetic and charming.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' Dictionary of New York and its Vicinity. 18th year. Appletons. 30 cents.
Balzac, H. de. The Chouans. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Crue, F. de. Notes de Voyage. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Down the Lane and Back in Search of Wild Flowers. T. Nelson & Sons.
Greene, Prof. T. H. Lectures on the Principles of Political Obligation. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Hallward, Prof. N. L., and Hill, Prof. S. C. Lamb's Essays of Elia. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Ingersoll, Justine. Chronicles of Teapot Town. New Haven, Conn.: Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor.
Kingsley, Charles. Hypatia. Pocket Edition. Macmillan. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 25, 1895.

The Week.

AMONG the many striking consequences of the Government bond-syndicate experiment one seems to have quite escaped notice. This is the precedent which a successful conclusion of the operation in exchange will set for the future. So far as their sales of sterling are concerned, it is probable that the syndicate bankers will lose nothing, and it is possible that they may make an actual profit. The foreign exchange drafts, through the sale of which they have supplied the regular demand, have been sold at the very top notch. The problem of the future is now, as it was at the beginning of May, whether the regular market for exchange will decline between now and October sufficiently to enable the syndicate to buy exchange, and thus repay its own drafts on London without forcing rates back above the gold-shipping point. How this problem worked itself out last May is known to everybody. Under the heavy sales of sterling bills against Europe's purchase of American securities, demand exchange broke in a fortnight from 489 to 486⅝. Presumably the syndicate, which had been selling "short exchange" through April, was able in the ensuing month to buy back an equal quantity. What profit it made, if any, is of course doubtful. It had at least an opportunity. It may happen that a similar and perhaps larger opportunity will offer itself next month, when heavy foreign drafts to pay for American grain exports will depress the sterling market. If the result should be that the syndicate makes a handsome profit on its mere operation in exchange, a precedent will have been established which may be followed, independently and without connection with the Government, by other banking houses in other years.

Meantime, however, the "grain bills" still remain a question of the future. It would be wholly erroneous to suppose that the bankers of the syndicate had in advance a "sure thing" in their operation. When their contract was signed, the corn had not been planted. Nobody could be sure that another harvest disaster such as that of 1894 would not intervene. In such event, neither the foreign grain purchases now expected nor the foreign security purchases which were realized in May would have been heard of. And while the syndicate might have guarded itself from loss, exchange bankers are well aware of the risk incurred of "saturating" the London market with American bills drawn by a single firm or combination. This was the hazardous possibility, for facing which the syndicate was properly paid by the Government. And since the danger will not be wholly past until the crops are safe, the bankers cannot be criticised for maintaining maximum rates, even though special facilities enable one or two remitters to ship gold in spite of them. Indeed, there is sometimes almost a comic aspect in the hysterics over a moderate export of gold. Great Britain exported in May $7,900,000 gold. It has been shipping gold to France for two weeks past. A large part of the gold placed by the syndicate in our Treasury was taken from the Bank of England, and indeed there is nothing to prevent withdrawal of gold at any time against Bank of England notes, any more than gold withdrawals here against legal-tenders. Such withdrawals happen every week. The London papers say, "the Bank has been selling gold"—meaning for notes—and pass it with indifference. If any one asks the explanation, it is ready. England has the single gold standard. Its bankers know that the gold which leaves their country will return in the regular course of trade—as it would do here but for our currency inflation and silver talk; as it did do here before the ill-fated silver-purchase act of 1890. Who ever heard of alarm over gold exports from New York in 1889, in 1888, in 1887, in 1886? The gold went in the spring; it returned in the fall; and so it will do again when common sense once more prevails in our currency deliberations.

No one will question the honesty of the London *Economist*, but its reiterated attacks upon the credit of our Government are no longer justifiable, and they cannot fail to be mischievous. They are as injurious to English investors as they are to American investments. Owing to a variety of circumstances, our greatest borrowers, the railroad corporations, have for years been unable to get their accustomed revenues. In so far as these circumstances consisted in their unbridled and crazy competition with one another, and the pitiful cheating which marked their "agreements" to charge their published rates, there has not been so much reformation as could be desired. But in so far as the trouble arose from doubts whether the money lent upon the gold standard would not be repaid in silver, there has been very substantial reformation. These doubts are no longer justifiable. The Government has gold enough in hand to insure confidence, it has an increasing revenue in sight, if not in hand, and it has the power and the will to buy more gold if any more is needed. The hundreds, or even thousands, of millions of loanable capital in London which now commands perhaps a half of one per cent., can safely come to this country at four or five per cent., so far as any danger from the silver craze is concerned. It will be a good deal safer here on the whole than in African diamond mines or in Chinese loans.

The arguments of the *Economist* do not bear examination. It says that the revenue of the Government is insufficient, and that Congress will refuse to supply any more. This may be true or not. But it goes on to say that although the time of year is at hand when gold generally flows to the United States, imports are increasing, and with rising prices are likely to increase still more, so that, after all, the movement of gold may be checked. The *Economist* here involves itself in a dilemma. If imports increase, the revenue of the Government increases, and it can thus maintain its reserve. If they do not increase, then gold will flow into the country, and this will help the Government to maintain its reserve. Hence it does not follow, as the *Economist* concludes, that "there may not improbably be as serious troubles before the Treasury as those it has already had to face." The London *Statist* equally fails to appreciate the change in the situation of affairs in this country. It denounces a despatch recently sent by Mr. Smalley to the London *Times* in which that correspondent declared that this country was prosperous, that confidence was restored, and that before long the silver agitation would collapse. The *Statist* lays it down that predictions are worth nothing, and that no one can tell how the voters will decide at the next elections. But there are predictions and predictions. He is a very poor investor or guide to investors who does not act with reference to the future, and no one can so act without trusting to predictions. The only question is whether the evidence justifies the predictions. The *Statist* says that it is "absurd to say that in the course of four or five months the country has passed from a state of extreme alarm to one of full confidence." If it is true, it is absurd to deny it, and investors who wait until all critics are agreed that confidence is restored are likely to buy at dangerously high prices. To American observers the evidence is overwhelming that the silver craze has all but spent itself. The Kentucky campaign was nearly conclusive of itself.

It is necessary for a leader of Labor to keep himself in evidence. For this reason, doubtless, Mr. Sovereign has issued a circular boycotting the national banks. He says that these banks are responsible for the destruction of the greenbacks (which have not been destroyed, although they ought to be). For this and other reasons equally conclusive, he commands all loyal Knights of Labor to refuse to receive national bank-notes. If they are forced on the workingmen, "as they are by law

made a legal tender," then he says, "We will establish a redemption bureau and through existing laws force the Secretary of the Treasury to unload the locked-up greenbacks for the benefit of the people." Mr. Powderly, who was displaced as Master Workman in favor of Sovereign, said and did many foolish things in his time, but nothing so foolish as this. National bank-notes are not legal tender, and a redemption bureau already exists, having been established by law expressly to secure the prompt redemption of those notes. So Mr. Sovereign's labors are needless on this score. It is only necessary for the Knights to refuse national bank-notes. Perhaps a better way to get revenge on the banks would be the one suggested by an Irish patriot to get revenge on the Government, and that was to burn every Bank of England note that could be found in the country.

There is matter both amusing and instructive in the confidential letter sent out by the silver Senators of the West inviting their friends to help them buy a newspaper organ in this city to convert the East to their views. The signers of this letter, it will be noted, all come from silver-producing States. Not one of the Eastern Senators, like Cameron and the Southern contingent, whose zeal in behalf of free silver is so intense, joins the invitation to "chip in" in this deal. The explanation of this is found in the letter itself. The persons addressed, it is stated, are those "who are pecuniarily interested in the restoration of silver." The subtle minds of these statesmen have grasped the idea that while a Cameron or a Blackburn may be willing to fight for silver in Congress or the lobby, and to die (politically) for it in a convention, a man must be not only patriotically but "pecuniarily" interested (in a silver mine) before he will come down with the cold cash to purchase an organ. The business calibre of these Western financiers is shown in the very idea that the publication of an obscure daily newspaper in New York with a silver tone to its editorial columns would have any influence on Eastern opinion, and that the money invested in such an enterprise would in their "best and deliberate judgment be paid back with interest within three years." This little incident will be of some value as showing how the silver-mine owners are trying to work off their property on the country at large, just as the owners of any other kind of mines might try to sell their property to investors. The opportunity for this little game has passed.

Gov. Hastings of Pennsylvania, like Gov. Greenhalge of Massachusetts, vetoed a bill giving public offices to soldiers without competitive examination. For this he has been censured by the Union Veterans' League of Philadelphia, but he seems to bear up under it very well. In fact, the public are getting tired of old-soldiery in politics. The war ended thirty years ago. While the ravages of time have done nothing to mar the honors or dim the glory of any man who faced bullets in order to preserve the Union, they have done much to detract from the physical and mental powers of the veterans. The state is entitled to the best service that can be had, and if a man of thirty can do better service than a man of sixty, as is generally the case, the man of thirty should be chosen. This is one of the commonplaces of the civil-service reformers. The vetoing of the veteran-preference bills by Greenhalge and Hastings is conclusive evidence that the public have at last accepted these views, for if there were not a strong body of public opinion back of them, no aspiring politician would expose himself to the censure of the G. A. R.

The Grand Army of the Republic has another case for discipline before it which appears to be more aggravated than that of Col. Waring. According to report the Superintendent of the Soldiers' Home at Quincy, Ill., has issued orders that any veteran under the care of the Home who shall marry shall be dishonorably discharged. The ground of this extraordinary order is a still more extraordinary law, which makes veterans and their families a county charge, on the order of any Grand Army post. With the aid of this statute the veteran presented a combination of attractions which made him irresistible in matrimonial competition. What with the United States pension, with its possibilities of future increase, the advantages of the Soldiers' Home, which relieves the wife from the care of her husband, and free rations from the county, the old soldier, it must be admitted, becomes a good deal of a prize. Very few young men can offer such inducements as these, and the Superintendent of the Quincy Home found that its inmates were arousing the tender passion in the breasts of the surrounding female population at such a rate as to be alarming. "Wholesale matrimony" was going on, and the Superintendent undertook to arrest it. Whatever his motives may be, it is evident that he is opposed to the policy of the statute, and as the statute was undoubtedly passed through the influence of the Grand Army, he must be hostile to the Grand Army, and is probably a copperhead and traitor. Judging from Col. Waring's experience, he is at all events likely to be characterized with much freedom of speech, if not to be driven from his position. The incident is especially noteworthy in connection with the law passed in Massachusetts giving the veterans a first lien on public office. When the pension debauchery is checked at Washington, it breaks out with all the more violence in the State legislatures.

No student of the conflict between law and law-breaking which our Police Board is waging will arrive at its true nature unless he gets down to its fundamental financial aspect. The hue and cry against the action of the Police Commissioners finds its most practical explanation in such sentences as these: "How the brewers are affected; loss each Sunday over $165,000." The most strenuous effort is making to give the impression that the Police Commissioners, by enforcing the law, are imperilling the cause of reform, endangering the election—we were going to say of any President next year; driving the Germans almost out of politics, etc., etc. When it comes down to a question of evidence to support all these allegations, what do we find? People interested in reform in this city have held a great many mass-meetings during the last year to express their views. Are New Yorkers holding any mass-meetings to denounce the Police Board? The most influential and respected German citizens of this city have met and extended their heartiest support to the men who are upholding the law and discouraging blackmail. The editor of the *Wine and Spirit Gazette* bears his testimony to the fact that the half-hearted enforcement of the law under Tammany rule meant a constant trade of monetary blackmail and political support, and testifies that Gov. Hill told him when in office that, if he should recommend the passage of a law opening the saloons on Sunday, *it would ruin the Democratic party* in this State. Even the bartenders have found their voices, and are asking why they should be compelled to work seven days in the week when other people make a living by working six. The longer this subject is discussed, the plainer will it become that the real opposition to the enforcement of the law is incited by the men whose income this enforcement lessens, and by the journals whose columns they can control.

Conan Doyle has been giving interviews to English newspapers about his recent lecturing tour in this country. He frankly admits that, in a pecuniary sense, the business is not what it is cracked up to be. Those huge bags of good American gold which Dickens and Thackeray waved so jauntily over the rail to their welcoming friends on their return from wandering on this foreign strand, are no more to be picked up at the bottom of the American lecture-rainbow. Of the kind words of the people in this country Dr. Doyle speaks with much appreciation, but the non-buttered parsnips seem a real disappointment to him. Yet we should have thought the astuteness of Sherlock Holmes would have prevented his creator from cherishing illusions on this subject, even if his self-love had not restrained him from publicly mourning over the fact that his net returns amount to a less sum than he could easily have earned in his own study at home. With us, at least, it is a matter of common knowledge that the rich harvests of lecturers,

native or foreign, are gone never to return. Matthew Arnold's second lecturing tour in the United States was a distinct failure financially. He told his friends that his object in coming back was the apostolic one of confirming the churches in the faith; but he found the faithful very well content with their first visitation, and at any rate not at all anxious for confirmation at one dollar per head.

Why lecturing, either as a domestic or imported article, should have suffered such a depreciation in price in the past forty years, is an inquiry not easy to answer satisfactorily. Despite done to silver can scarcely account for this depressed industry, though we know it is cause sufficient for every other. The spread of the reading habit, the building up of the great magazines, the disappearance of the slavery question with its galaxy of brilliant lyceum lecturers, the growth of the people in fixity of character and habit, so that they do not now so easily run agape after every new curiosity—these are doubtless some of the reasons, if not entirely adequate reasons, why Phillips, and Beecher, and Chapin, and Gough, as well as Dickens, and Thackeray, and Tyndall, have no successors to-day on the lecture platform. Conan Doyle is much read and well liked in this country, but the day has gone by when any author, except the very greatest, can get people to go to hear him read from his own works. Sweet charity still leads some faithful souls to go, in true martyr spirit, to those authors' readings where the little great ones become inarticulate over their own poetry or prose; but this form of torture cannot much longer survive in these humane days.

Lord Rosebery, in his speech at Albert Hall on July 5, made an important announcement respecting the policy of the British Government towards Afghanistan. Referring particularly to the recent occupation of Chitral, he said that his Ministry had never had an opportunity of making public officially the decision at which they had unanimously arrived. This was involved in instructions given to the Governor-General of India, that at the earliest possible moment consistent with safety and dignity the British should withdraw from Chitral. The ex-Premier spoke of this decision in order to express the hope that Lord Salisbury would, in that respect as well as in the case of the Armenian difficulty, preserve through a change in the Ministry that continuity of foreign policy which alone could make England respected and secure abroad. Lord Salisbury will doubtless feel free to do pretty much as he pleases, and will have little difficulty, provided he wants to remain in Chitral, in finding an excuse in Lord Rosebery's phrase, "consistent with safety and dignity." How many years is it since England was going to withdraw from Egypt? All this time her obstinate safety and dignity have compelled her to remain. Still, it is something to have got on record the decision of the Government to withdraw from Chitral. It will distinctly repress the zeal of those army officers who have been so ably proving that it would never do to give up such a strategic point in the face of Russian aggressions.

The believers in bimetallism have always referred to the condition of the finances of British India as showing the destructive effects of demonetizing silver. There was a country, they said, having to meet heavy obligations in gold, and collecting all its revenue in silver. So long as silver was sustained by international agreement, no difficulty was experienced, but when silver was discarded, trouble for India began. In order to make this out it was boldly asserted that in India the prices of commodities, measured in silver, had not increased, and that the Indian Government therefore got no more revenue than before, while it was obliged to convert its silver into gold exchange at a terrible discount. Evidence has been from time to time offered showing that prices had advanced in India, but the whole question was so technical and recondite that almost the only fact apprehended by the public was that the revenue of the Indian Government was insufficient, and that it had constantly to sell silver at a ruinous loss in order to meet its European obligations. But at last a return has been presented to Parliament which conclusively disposes of the assertion that the financial difficulties of India are due solely to the fall in exchange. This return shows the income and expenditure of the Government for the decade ending in 1894. Without going into details, we may say that during that period the net revenue, exclusive of that from opium, has increased by 22 per cent., or from RX 46,800,000 to nearly RX 57,000,000. During the same period the expenditure has also increased from RX 47,180,000 to RX 58,540,000, or 24 per cent. Of this increase RX 6,800,000 took place in the department of military services. On a careful scrutiny of the items the London *Economist* computes that the actual expenditure has increased during the decade to the extent of RX 6,360,000, while the fall in exchange has entailed an additional outlay of about RX 5,000,000. The whole outcry of the bimetallists, therefore, is over an annual loss considerably less than the increased military expenditure, and less than double the increased cost of the civil service. Considering the scandalous charge for entertaining the Afghan Prince now in England, to which we recently referred, it is highly probable that a severe investigation of the financial mysteries of the Indian Government would disclose the possibility of economies amply sufficient to offset the loss in exchange. The gold standard is a very convenient scapegoat not only for individuals who do not want to pay their debts, but also for governments that do not want to restrict their expenditures.

The murder of Stambuloff is an event of far more than local or temporary importance. Horrible as it seems in its present details, its future results promise to be fraught with the direst evils to his country. So long as Stambuloff lived, it is not too much to say that the independence of Bulgaria was protected by a mighty bulwark. It is true that his influence was broken last year by the desertion of his prince and his own political downfall. But, like Bismarck, he was not overshadowed by the interposition of diminutive figures, and, unlike him, he was in the prime of life when he was displaced. It is possible that his murder was the result of a blood-feud. Civilization in eastern Europe has not yet passed out of the stage when private warfare is tolerated, and Stambuloff had not spared his enemies. But Russian diplomacy in Bulgaria has been such as to make it difficult for the Russophil party entirely to escape responsibility for this assassination. It is in line with their previous measures, and it was necessary in order to defend their position. With Stambuloff alive there was no telling what might happen. They did not dare to let him leave the country, and they did not dare to let him live in the country. There was but one solution for such a problem—the solution resorted to by King Henry in the case of à Becket, by the Commonwealth in the case of Charles, by Richard III. in the case of the children in the Tower, and by hundreds of other rulers at all periods in the world's history, who have felt that while their rivals had life their own power was insecure.

Stambuloff had played in Bulgaria the part that Cavour played in Italy. Russia had set Bulgaria free, but it was the intention of the Russians to free Bulgaria from Turkish rule in order to subject it to their own. It was the policy of Stambuloff to accept the gift of freedom without the subsequent condition of dependence. Bulgaria was rescued from the outrage of the Turk, but she was not, therefore, to submit herself to the lust of her rescuer. To pursue this course was necessarily to incur the charge of ingratitude. As the French hate the Italians as ingrates, so the Russians were bitterly incensed against the Bulgarians, and against Stambuloff as the arch-ingrate. They have steadily plotted against him. They have exhausted fair means, and, after repeated attempts, they have at last succeeded by foul. On a superficial view they have now the game in their own hands.

SECRETARY CARLISLE AND CONGRESSMAN BLACK.

CONGRESSMAN BLACK of Georgia has written a brief letter of eleven columns to the Augusta *Chronicle* in reply to Secretary Carlisle's speech at Memphis on the silver question. He begins by defining the position of Mr. Carlisle and of all who stand on the same platform with him. "If I correctly understand the theory," he says, "of those who insist on the single gold standard, it involves the *expulsion* from our system of everything but gold as real money." This is the present condition of our monetary system, and it has been so legally for twenty-two years and practically for sixty years. There are some people (a diminishing number, however) who hesitate to avow themselves in favor of the single gold standard, although they are opposed to any change from the present system. There are others (also a diminishing number) who think that because a certain limited number of silver dollars are in circulation, we have bimetallism or the double standard in this country. This is a totally false conception, as false as it would be to assume that we have a paper standard because a limited number of greenbacks are afloat.

Of course, Mr. Black does not entertain any such false notion, yet he charges Mr. Carlisle, and those who agree with him, with the fell purpose to bring about a new condition of things in the United States—namely, the single gold standard; whereas that condition exists now. We have to assure him and all others like-minded that the "gold-bugs" have no changes of standard in contemplation. They are satisfied with the present posture of affairs, so far as that goes. The "expulsion" of everything but gold as real money took place in 1873, and continues unabated. Mr. Black might have learned this from 'Coin's Financial School.' The author of that book says that after the passage of the coinage act of 1873 silver "had changed its position from redemption money to token money." So when Mr. Black charges Mr. Carlisle and others with an intention to expel silver from the position of real money he comes in direct conflict with "Coin" on a question of fact, where, let us say, Coin is right and Black is wrong.

Mr. Black's next point is that silver is constitutional money, and he quotes a long list of authorities, including several judges of the Supreme Court and Daniel Webster, to prove his thesis. If this means that Congress has the constitutional right and power to make money of silver, nobody will dispute him; but if he means that Congress has no right to desist from making money of silver, he advances an argument that never was heard before in this country. We acquit him of anything so foolish, and assume that he makes his long series of citations from lawyers and judges in order to show that Secretary Carlisle is wrong in holding the opinion that the attempt to have money of both gold and silver at the same time is a physical and metaphysical absurdity.

If this is what Mr. Black means by his quotations from Webster, Clifford, and others, we must say that the mere fact that silver is constitutional money when Congress chooses to have it, does not militate in the least against Mr. Carlisle's contention. Mr. Carlisle merely expressed the opinion he entertained on a question of fact, against which laws and constitutions are as unavailing as the fables of Æsop. What Mr. Carlisle said was true, and although he was slow in perceiving it himself, it was true all the time—true from the days of King Solomon or King Rameses to the present, namely, that when two kinds of money of different value are equally current, the one of less value will drive the one of greater value out of circulation. This is merely saying that when a man can discharge an obligation with two things of different value, he will pay the less valuable thing and keep the one of greater value in his pocket. This is what happened to gold and to silver alternately for hundreds of years during the historical period, and to silver and copper also. It was precisely in order to get rid of these mutations and inconveniences that the nations one by one dropped silver out of their currencies except for subsidiary coins. It was merely a recognition of this fact that led Mr. Carlisle to make the remark which Mr. Black batters with such an array of legal lore.

Mr. Black next considers the platforms of the Democratic party from 1880 to the present time in order to confound and confute Mr. Carlisle. These platforms, he shows, call for the use of both gold and silver as money, while Mr. Carlisle says that this is a physical and a metaphysical impossibility. This looks like a poser for the Secretary, and would be so but for the fact that the platforms are a lot of rubbish and humbug devised to catch votes. Mr. Carlisle has apparently concluded that the time has come to put aside false pretences and utter a few words of plain truth. When these platforms spoke of using gold and silver as money, the men who prepared them meant to catch the votes of one side by coining dollars on Government account, and pretending that that was the remonetization of silver, and to hold the votes of the other side by not coining silver for private persons, and not coining enough to depreciate the whole mass. The Republican politicians played the same game for the same reason and with the same purpose. It is much to Mr. Carlisle's credit that he refuses to be a party to such deception any longer. It is equally to his credit that he acknowledges that his earlier opinions on this subject were wrong and that he has gained something by time and experience. Perhaps the time will come when his critics can say the same thing.

TRUSTS AND OTHER CORPORATIONS.

THE *Journal of Commerce*, a newspaper whose opinions are always entitled to respect, has lately published articles denouncing Trusts, with the warning that these combinations are distinctly un-American and are leading us straight into socialism. Readers of our columns will acquit us of any intention to defend trade combinations as such if we say that the arguments of the *Journal of Commerce* do not seem to cover the whole situation. Many of its assertions need definition. That paper, for example, says: "If a few great monopolistic combinations can arrogate to themselves the right to tax the great body of consumers for their own benefit, it will become easier to convince people that the business so conducted should be done for the profit of the commonwealth." It immediately occurs to the reader to ask, first, Are these Trusts committing commercial robbery after this fashion? and next, if they are, Would the state get the same profits if the business were made over to it?

The question of the profitableness of huge Trusts or corporations and its equity is one fiercely disputed and not capable of exact settlement as yet. Mere denunciation helps but little. Is the Standard Oil making too much money? It is a grasping monopoly with an unsavory history, but under its control the price of refined oil to consumers has been reduced to but a fifth of the old quotations, and meanwhile the cost of refining (the difference between crude and commercial oil) has declined from seventeen cents in 1870 to less than five cents in recent years. Could individual refiners have accomplished so much? and if not, should our complaint be against the combination as a business enterprise or against its legal form and old methods?

A further question involved is the commercial right of a corporation to a large profit in any case. Upon this point many of us are still in bondage to the old idea that what is equitable for a partnership is unlawful for a company doing the same work, and that the profits of the latter should not be allowed to exceed the usual rate of interest on loans secured by safe collateral. This right of a company or combination of companies to a profit is the more readily granted as the public is proportionately benefited, and this is one of the main tests of the soundness of what the *Journal of Commerce* denounces as commercial un-Americanism. Let us suppose that all the shoe-manufacturers of New England form a Trust; if done under legitimate conditions, and if thereby we all could buy shoes at $1 less per pair, should we be warranted in denouncing that combination as commercially unjustifiable? We are asking the question, and not at the moment trying to answer it, merely to indicate that there is another side to this perplexing corporation problem which many writers overlook. We would remind our readers of the English gas companies,

whose charters allow of larger dividends only as the price of gas to consumers is reduced. While we cannot formulate an arithmetical ratio which shall constitute a standard in such cases, it is a question whether the principle is not at the bottom of much of our industrial progress.

"Four-fifths of the capital stock," continues the *Journal of Commerce*, speaking of huge corporations, "usually represents their ability to crush out competition, and has no other value whatever." If our supposed combination of shoemakers, while reducing the price of shoes, makes a good profit, it is foreign to the argument whether that profit takes the form of high dividends or small dividends on watered capital. We much prefer the former plan, but that need not blind an observer to the fact that a large part of the "water" in corporations is due to the wish to pay to shareholders a profit which the owners believe to be but commensurate to the risks. The "crushing out of competition" is also a matter to be settled by the evidence in each case, as, for illustration, whether the crushing as done by the large corporation is worse in its effects than would have been the relentless competition between individuals in their strife for the survival of the fittest. Then, again, the question is always proper whether competition is really crushed or merely made so severe that only those with exceptional capital and skill can enter into it. If the latter, then there is evidence that the combination has really cheapened cost and in so far has offered a good excuse for its existence.

The case of the American Cotton Oil Company is an example. Without entering into any examination of this company's affairs—once a Trust, now a corporation—it is but fair to say that it is in no proper sense a monopoly. So long as we grow 9,000,000 bales of cotton yearly, so long will it be impossible to "corner" cotton seed. Anybody can buy the seed, crush it, refine the oil and sell it; nor could the Cotton Oil Company stop him except by underselling him. The United States courts have decided that no monopoly exists where nothing prevents the establishment of a rival plant; and the decision has some worth as a commercial as well as a legal opinion.

But, it will be said, these huge corporations tend to suppress individualism, and are, therefore, opposed to the theories for which our country stands. There is something in this as things are now, and yet it may be that the evolution of the corporation will in time distinctly favor individualism. The greater the company, the more diverse its operations, the more dependent its success upon popular favor, the more sensitive it may grow to individual merit among its officers and employees, and the more amenable its huge interests to the demands of the people at large. Upon the whole, the proper attitude of thinking men towards our corporation problem should not be one of denunciation or of flattery, but rather of expectancy, a waiting for developments, with a readiness to act when action seems beyond a doubt to be necessary, but with a refusal to attack on insufficient evidence or on narrow grounds.

LORD SALISBURY'S SOCIAL PROGRAMME.

THE only real programme of the Conservatives in the English election was to get a smashing majority. That they are now assured of, with a free hand to do what they please with it. But there has been vaguely lurking in the background something that was called a "social programme." What it was, nobody seemed exactly to know or to be able to explain. It was there, like an article of faith, to be the more devoutly received the less it was understood. On certain occasions, when ribald doubters like Mr. Asquith and Lord Rosebery had questioned the very existence of the sacred mystery, it was angrily reasserted by the Conservative orators. They *had* a social programme. It was big with blessings for the country. In due time it would be enunciated in detail. Just now the important thing was to see that none but good men and true were returned to Parliament.

Lord Salisbury's most explicit statements were made in a speech in the House of Lords on July 6. After banging the Liberals in noble style for a column and a half, he devoted a quarter of a column to explanation of the problems which a wise and truly able government would set about solving. One of these was agricultural depression. It was not for him to say how much this was due to natural causes. Let no man suspect him of having a panacea for the evil concealed about his clothes. All he asserted, in the teeth of his opponents and in the face of the world, was that the subject deserved "the deep attention of Parliament" (loud cries of "Hear, hear!"). Then there were the questions of industrial competition, the homes of the poor, accidents to workingmen, and old-age insurance—all of them "worthy of the most careful study." But let not the country expect too much. Great and wise as a Conservative Government would be certain to be, it could not pretend to destroy or withstand "the action of great economic laws." Above all, said the noble Marquis, no "panaceas" for him. Thought as deep as you please, attention as strained, the time of Parliament taken up as fully as you like, but no panaceas if you loved him.

This is really as amusing as Lord Rosebery found it at the time, and puts the Prime Minister of England on the same level with our own late Secretary of Agriculture, "Uncle Jerry" Rusk. He was the first man to advance the theory that the way to improve the condition of the farmer was for the whole country to sit down and "think" intently about it. Pure thought, he maintained, thus anticipating Lord Salisbury by several years, was what agriculture needed. Fertilizers, diversified crops, better tax laws were all very fine, but the thing that was really keeping the farmer down was lack of reflection. This is the remedy the Conservative chieftain now commends to the distressed agriculturists of England. Their crops are fearfully bad this year again, but by taking thought, especially by getting Parliament to give "deep attention" to the matter, they can easily add ten bushels to the acre and five shillings to the quarter. As to the remaining features of Lord Salisbury's social programme, they mean whatever you please—or nothing. Lord Rosebery asked the noble Marquis if he really proposed old-age pensions. The *Times's* report says: "The Marquis of Salisbury made no audible reply." He was doubtless looking out of the window and admiring the view.

But if Salisbury is cautious and noncommittal, surely the bold Chamberlain can be relied upon to speak, whether men will hear or forbear. He is the real author of the social programme. He has forced the Conservatives to take it up, albeit with the air of men handling a dynamite cartridge which may go off at any moment. From him we shall get something explicit. But alas! the responsibilities of office, the difficulties of an alliance with the Tories, the uncertainties of politics, have suddenly hushed the resounding Joseph in a remarkable way. In a speech at Lambeth he outlined his idea of the social programme, which was clearly modelled after the most expert methods of American platform-building. He was for temperance, let there be no doubt on that point; but it was for the kind of temperance which would not "ruin the publican." He was going to do great things for the working classes: give them "the protection they are entitled to," "better their conditions in life," "generally elevate their situation"; but he was going to do it "without destroying the industries upon which their livelihood depends." In fact, the abounding benevolence and power of Chamberlain were to be devoted from that day on to "raising and elevating all classes in the community," while at the same time he would not tolerate an "injury or injustice to any class, or even to any individual." "Slippery Joe" must have winked to himself, at least with the eye protected by his famous monocle, when he got this off. Never was there such a devout longing for the millennium, mixed with a delicate consideration for the feelings of the devil, who must be duly consulted about the chaining-up process.

It is clear, in short, that the Conservatives are committed to no social programme at all, except such as they may see fit or find it necessary to take up in the future. They will doubtless at-

tempt something. The very goadings of the Opposition, who have a pretty considerable social record of their own to point to in the last three years, will compel them to make a show of doing something. But it is likely to be little but a show, and a dumb show at that. Even Sir John Gorst's ante-election exposition of the Conservative social programme, in the July *Nineteenth Century*, really promises nothing, when carefully read. "It is hoped" that this, that, and the other scheme might do good, though it is admitted that "the cost" might be "an objection" to almost every scheme. The cost will be, in fact, the rock on which socialistic schemes, Conservative or other, will go to wreck. With a vast plan for naval expansion already under way, with the increased expense attendant on a vigorous foreign policy—almost certain to be Salisbury's chief "lay"—the millions needed to carry out social legislation will have to be whistled for. Moreover, Salisbury's thumping majority, and his assured independence of the Liberal-Unionist alliance, will make him very niggardly in sending water to Chamberlain's mill. If there is any Conservative social programme, Chamberlain is the author of it, and his would be the glory of its enactment. The Tory Prime Minister will have other kinds of glory to think of than that of the man who was once his bitterest and most unscrupulous Radical opponent, and who has for nine years been holding the cold steel of the Liberal-Unionist vote to his throat.

THE LEIBNIZ DAY OF THE BERLIN ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

BERLIN, July 6, 1895.

IT is eminently fitting that the Berlin Academy should annually celebrate the memory of Leibniz—not only because Leibniz was the virtual founder of this, the foremost of Germany's learned institutions, but chiefly because he was the first great representative among the Germans of what is implied in the somewhat unfortunate term, modern culture. Leibniz stands midway between Luther and Goethe. He first reduced to philosophic reasoning the individualistic view of the universe which had been at the bottom of the Reformation movement, and which was to find its fullest artistic expression in the classic epoch of eighteenth-century literature. At a time when the Thirty Years' War and its disastrous consequences had crushed all national hopes, his philosophy formed a rallying-point for higher-striving minds, and opened up the prospect of an ultimate, though distant, resurrection of the German people.

If Descartes, Locke, and even Spinoza look at the world as a huge mechanism in which there is little room left for spontaneous activity and self-assertion, Leibniz considers it as an aggregate of an infinite multitude of independent intellectual forces. There is mind in everything. The body is nothing but mind contracted into form: "Omne corpus est mens momentanea." Between plant, animal, and man there is a difference of degree only, not of quality. The whole world is engaged in a process of continual change, transition, perfection. There is an unbroken line of development from the sleeping life of a seed corn to the free consciousness of a full-grown man; from the gloomy egotism of the savage to the broad, enlightened charity of the sage. God is the supreme wisdom and the supreme love. From an infinite number of possible worlds he has chosen the actual world as the best. He has created it, and is therefore outside of it: but he has constituted it in such a manner that it needs no guidance except through its own intrinsic laws. He has so arranged it that all individual forces work together harmoniously and for a common end. Evil itself is only a less perfect good. An admiring insight into this harmony of the universe is man's highest happiness and virtue. It is happiness, because it gives us trust in the reasonableness of things and makes us accept all that may befall us, pain no less than pleasure, as the dispensation of a divine providence. It is virtue, because it helps us to overcome all littleness, puts before us the ideal of a complete existence, and teaches us through self-perfection to take part in the betterment of the race.

Strange and enigmatic as this curious mixture of scientific ideas and mythological images must appear to an age which has accustomed itself to approach all questions without the bias of the supernatural, it is none the less clear that the leading thought of the nineteenth century, the idea of organic evolution, is here at least foreshadowed. And however well deserved the fame of Leibniz the antiquarian, the linguist, the mathematician, the exact investigator, may be, his true significance lies in this divinatory conception of the world as a living whole.

Both the environment and the spirit of the assemblage which, the day before yesterday, gathered in the modest hall of the Berlin Academy of Sciences to do homage to this great man, were thoroughly characteristic of the prevailing tendencies—patent or hidden—in modern German life. Perhaps the most conspicuous thing about it was the complete absence of anything even approaching public interest in the matter. Suppose there were some stated day on which the memory of Locke or Hume was celebrated at Sanders Theatre—a day on which men like William James, John Fiske, Brinton, Gildersleeve, Child (to take at random a few names suggested by the thought of a possible American Academy) could be heard or seen—a day, moreover, which would lend itself naturally to the most delightful afternoon teas and receptions—a day on which the latest spring gown could be worn to the best advantage; then all the elements necessary for a most emphatically social time in the electric cars between Boston and Cambridge would be given. The Berlin public evidently are so saturated with intelligence and culture that they are above the vulgar desire to see and hear distinguished men. And thus it happened that the Leibniz day of the Royal Academy, an occasion in which men of world-wide fame, like Mommsen, Curtius, Virchow, Harnack, DuBois-Reymond, were sure to participate, attracted, apart from the friends and guests of the Academicians themselves, not more than a little group of students and foreign visitors—all told, an audience of some three hundred people; while in the daily press it was hardly mentioned, either before or after.

Another characteristic feature of the meeting—and a most agreeable one—was its absolute simplicity and freedom from formality. The only official representative of the Government present was Dr. Bosse, the Minister of Public Instruction, and he was a few minutes late. That Mommsen, the presiding officer, did not wait for him in opening the proceedings, seemed to me an incident of almost symbolical significance. Bureaucracy and militarism have not yet penetrated into the sanctuary of science, thank God! Not a single uniform was to be seen in the audience; not a single lady whom one would have felt tempted to address with "Gnädige Frau." The predominant types were earnest, unpretentious, and determined-looking men, and simple and benevolent-looking housewives. Even boys and girls were there, sitting quietly and modestly with their parents. It was altogether a family affair of Berlin's best men.

To me the most interesting figure was Mommsen. He sat by the side of Curtius, and the two together appeared an almost perfect embodiment of the ideal scholar. Curtius, though he has rallied from his recent accident with wonderful elasticity, yet gives the impression of one whose thoughts do not dwell any longer on this earth. The far-away look of his eye and the melancholy smile that plays around his lips—these characteristic expressions of his essentially lyric temper have been accentuated by the approach of the end, and surround him more than ever with a curious dreamy charm. Mommsen, on the other hand, seems to have been only steeled and invigorated by old age. His voice is as keen and penetrating as ever, his eye has still the same inexorable, sibylline glance as of old; and the sarcastic lines that run from nose to chin are perhaps even more marked than they used to be. But, at the same time, there is spread over his face a certain softness which was formerly absent, and the nervousness of his manner has entirely disappeared.

The exercises of the day consisted in an opening address by Mommsen, in the initiation, also by Mommsen, of some newly elected members, among them Erich Schmidt and Adolf Erman; and in a memorial address on Helmholtz by Du Bois-Reymond. While the latter was in the main biographical, and offered little that was either new or of universal interest, there was a terseness, a poignancy, a freedom in all that Mommsen said, which was simply irresistible. The central subject of his remarks was the relation of the specialist to the whole system of human knowledge. "Are we truly assembled here in the spirit of Leibniz?" he asked. "Can we truly call ourselves his disciples?" The answer to this question seems at first sight to be a negative one. To Leibniz the individual fact had no significance except as a link in the whole of a well-rounded and complete view of the world; and he himself mastered all the details of a systematic view of the world which was the fruit of his own thought and his own researches in nearly every domain of science. To us the isolated fact is only too often the final goal of investigation; and as for mastering the system of knowledge as a whole, none of us is a master, we are all journeymen. "*Unser* Werk lobt keinen Meister; nicht wir beherrschen die Wissenschaft, die Wissenschaft beherrscht uns." If, then, through specialization of work we have lost the universal culture and true humanity which for Leibniz was still attainable, it would yet be a grave mistake to condemn on that account the tendency of specialization. On the contrary, it is the specialist—*i. e.*, the specialist who looks beyond the isolated fact—who is to lead us back to culture and humanity. Only from him can we expect the elucidation of the organic unity of all knowledge; only he can penetrate to the one source of all life. It is, therefore, he, and not the compiler, who truly represents the conception of science as an or-

ganic whole; and of him more truly than of any one else can it be said that he walks in the footsteps of Leibniz.

While this was the general trend of Mommsen's discourse, it was perfectly apparent that through it all there ran an undercurrent of protest against recent political developments, against the autocratic rule of the present Emperor and the constantly growing overbearance of Prussian officialdom. It was undoubtedly intended for the ears of the Minister of Public Instruction, who, by the way, sat directly opposite him when Mommsen remarked that the time seemed for ever gone when a distinguished scholar like Wilhelm von Humboldt could at the same time be a Prussian Minister of State. It was an unmistakable reproof of the Emperor's scandalous treatment of the venerable Von Sybel when Mommsen spoke of the relation of Frederick the Great—"Friedrichs des *Einzigen*"—to the members of the Academy as something which would be simply impossible at present. It was a direct condemnation of modern Byzantinism and a plea for a freer and nobler view of life than that held by Bismarckian worshippers of might, when, in the words of welcome addressed to Erich Schmidt, he called it the task of the historian of German literature "to lead the age of William back to the age of Schiller and Goethe." And thus there was heard even in this peaceful gathering an echo of the conflict which is dividing modern Germany into two hostile camps—a conflict of which we thus far have witnessed only the beginning. KUNO FRANCKE.

Correspondence.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND JEFFERSON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The influence upon Jefferson of the social and economic condition of France, as seen by him during his sojourn in that country between 1784 and 1789, is a matter of general acceptance, and is observable in much that he wrote in those years, as well as in his subsequent writings. But the most marked expression of the extreme to which his opinions tended, under the direct pressure of what he saw about him while in France, has just come to my attention, being a letter addressed by him to his friend, Rev. James Madison, never yet printed; and as it is received too late for publication in its proper place in my edition of Jefferson's Writings, it deserves publication in your columns. Jefferson made a curious slip in the date, for he evidently wrote 1795 while intending 1785 (as he was never in France after 1789), an error that would seem almost impossible for a man to make had he not made the same slip in other letters of his, and constantly misdated his letters at the beginning of each year. PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

BROOKLYN, July, 1895.

FONTAINEBLEAU, Oct. 28, 1795.

DEAR SIR: Seven o'clock, and retired to my fireside, I have determined to enter into conversation with you. This is a village of about 5,000 inhabitants, when the court is not here, & 20,000 when they are, occupying a valley thro' which runs a brook and on each side of it a ridge of small mountains most of which are naked rock. The King comes here, in the fall always, to hunt. His court attend him, as do also the foreign diplomatic corps, but as this is not indispensably required & my finances do not admit the expense of a continued residence here, I propose to come occasionally to attend the King's levees, returning again to Paris, distant forty miles. This being the first trip I set out yesterday Morning to take a view of the place. For this purpose I shaped my course towards the highest of the mountains in sight, to the top of which was about a league. As soon as I had got clear of the town I fell in with a poor woman walking at the same rate with myself & going the same course. Wishing to know the condition of the laboring poor I entered into conversation with her, which I began by enquiries for the path which would lead me into the mountain: & thence proceeded to enquiries into her vocation, condition & circumstances. She told me she was a day laborer at 8 sous or 4d. sterling the day: that she had two children to maintain, & to pay a rent of 30 livres for her house (which would consume the hire of 75 days), that often she could get no emploiment, and of course was without bread. As we had walked together near a mile & she had so far served me as a guide, I gave her, on parting, 24 sous. She burst into tears of a gratitude which I could perceive was unfeigned because she was unable to utter a word. She had probably never before received so great an aid. This little attendrissement, with the solitude of my walk led me into a train of reflections on that unequal division of property which occasions the numberless instances of wretchedness which I had observed in this country & is to be observed all over Europe. The property of this Country is absolutely concentred in a very few hands, having revenues of from half a million of guineas a year downwards. These employ the flower of the country as servants, some of them having as many as 200 domestics, not labouring. They employ also a great number of manufacturers & tradesmen, & lastly the class of labouring husbandmen. But after all there comes the most numerous of all classes, that is, the poor who cannot find work. I asked myself what could be the reason so many should be permitted to beg who are willing to work, in a country where there is a very Considerable proportion of uncultivated lands? These lands are undisturbed only for the sake of game. It should seem then that it must be because of the enormous wealth of the proprietors which places them above attention to the increase of their revenues by permitting these lands to be laboured. I am conscious that an equal division of property is impracticable, but the consequences of this enormous inequality producing so much misery to the bulk of Mankind, legislators cannot invent too many devices for subdividing property, only taking care to let their subdivisions go hand in hand with the natural affections of the human mind. The descent of property of every kind therefore to all the children, or to all the brothers & sisters, or other relations in equal degree is a politic measure, and a practicable one. Another means of silently lessening the inequality of property is to exempt all from taxation below a certain point, & to tax the higher portions or property in geometrical progression as they rise. Whenever there is in any Country uncultivated lands and unemployed poor, it is clear that the laws of property have been so far extended as to violate natural right. The earth is given as a common stock for man to labour & live on. If for the encouragement of industry we allow it to be appropriated, we must take care that other employment be provided to those excluded from the appropriation. If we do not, the fundamental right to labour the earth returns to the unemployed. It is too soon yet in our country to say that every Man who cannot find employment, but who can find uncultivated land shall be at liberty to cultivate it, paying a moderate rent. But it is not too soon to provide by every possible means that as few as possible shall be without a little portion of land. The small landholders are the most precious part of a state.—The next object which struck my attention in my walk was the deer with which the wood abounded. They were of the kind called "Cerfs," and not exactly of the same species with ours. They are blackish indeed under the belly, & not white as ours, & they are more of the chestnut red, but these are such small differences as would be sure to happen in two races from the same stock breeding separately a number of ages. Their hares are totally different from the animal we call by that name; but their rabbet is almost exactly like him. The only difference is in their manners; the land on which I walked for some time being absolutely reduced to a honeycomb by their burrowing. I think there is no instance of ours burrowing. After descending the hill again I saw a man cutting fern. I went to him under pretence of asking the shortest road to town, and afterwards asked for what use he was cutting fern. He told me that this part of the country furnished a great deal of fruit to Paris. That when packed in straw it acquired an ill taste, but that dry fern preserved it perfectly without communicating any taste at all. I treasured this observation for the preservation of my apples on my return to my own country. They have no apples here to compare with our Rentown pipping. They have nothing which deserves the name of a peach; there being not sun enough to ripen the Plumb peach & the best of their soft peaches being like our autumn peaches. Their cherries & strawberries are fair, but I think less flavour. Their plums I think are better; so also the gooseberries, and the pears infinitely beyond any thing we possess. They have nothing better than our sweet-water; but they have a succession of as good from very early in the summer till frost. I am tomorrow to get [to] M. Malsherbes (an uncle of the chevalr Luzerne's) about 7 leagues from hence, who is the most curious man in France as to his trees. He is making for me a collection of the vines from which the Burgundy, Champagne, Bourdeaux, Frontignac, and other the most valuable wines of this country are made. Another gentleman is collecting for me the best eating grapes, including what we call the raisin. I propose also to endeavor to colonize their hare, rabbet, red & grey partridge, pheasants of different kinds, & some other birds. But I find that I am wandering beyond the limits of my walk & will therefore bid you Adieu.

Yours affectionately TH. JEFFERSON.

THE REARRANGEMENT OF THE VENICE ACADEMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When, in Venice three months ago, I went to the Academy, I found it resounding to the hammer; on a subsequent day it was closed, not for a week to be open to visitors, and, my stay in Venice being short, I was forced to postpone my examination of its contents. Upon my return I found everything in order, which it is to be hoped is the order that is destined to remain. Of recent years no gallery has so constantly changed as the Venetian Academy; for the connoisseur this is no great hardship, but for the ordinary traveller, who must depend upon his guide-book, it is a serious trouble. Ruskin's Academy guide has long been out of date; Hare and the 1889 Baedeker were only less useless, and since this recent change even the 1895 Baedeker is of no help.

The gallery has suffered a most complete shaking up. With the exception of the removal of two portraits, the Sala dell' Assunta has all its pictures in place, though the numbers are changed. Besides these pictures, Basaiti's "Agony in the Garden," Veronese's "Christ in the House of Levi," and Bordone's "Fisherman" occupy the same places as two years ago. All the other pictures have been changed, if not from room to room, at least from wall to wall.

It does not, however, follow that this house-cleaning was unnecessary. Its effects are in many cases beneficial. Important pictures have been put in better lights, and the historical arrangement is much improved. Moreover, certain changes are important and noteworthy. Gentile Bellini's "Miracles of the Cross," with pictures by Carpaccio, Mansueti, and Diana, of similar subjects similarly treated, have been collected in an octagonal room specially constructed for their reception, and in another are isolated the St. Ursula pictures

by Carpaccio. This arrangement of the St. Ursula series is especially pleasing. It is true that in their present order the present pictures present no historical sequence, but we have them in one room together, hung at the best height for the eye, and in good light.

The remaining noteworthy change is in the old Albergo, where are now placed two pictures only, the Vivarini "Madonna with the Fathers of the Church" and the Titian "Presentation of the Virgin," both of which are supposed originally to have been painted for this room. Passing over the questions of authorship, which ascribe the one picture to Giovanni d'Allemagna and Antonio da Murano, to Antonello da Murano, and even to Jacobello da Fiore, and the other to a pupil of Titian, it is interesting to see these pictures finally restored to their old places. The Academy occupies the buildings of the Convent of the Carità, converted, like many another convent in Italy, to Government purposes. Its collection is made up principally of pictures confiscated at the time of the secularization of the monasteries, and among them were these two pictures. They are, as I have said, finally restored to their old room, the Titian receiving exactly its old position over the two doors. For this purpose the two patches put in so long ago have been removed, and with its recent cleaning and fresh coat of varnish, which seem to have done it no harm whatever, the picture looks extremely well.

In this room, with its pictures of such different periods in this interesting juxtaposition, and the Sala dell' Assunta, with its collection of masterpieces, the remaining rooms of the Academy have been given up to a rearrangement in historical order. One room contains pictures from Jacobello to the early Vivarini; another, pictures from the late Vivarini to Basaiti and Carpaccio. The two octagonal rooms, with one other, contain the pictures of the school of Gentile Bellini and Carpaccio, and another room is given up principally to Giovanni Bellini and Cima. In this room, as if to remind one of Giovanni's indebtedness to other masters, are Mantegna's little "St. George" and Antonello da Messina's "Madonna Annunciata," with a most Flemish looking Antonello portrait. Two large rooms and one smaller contain works of the High Renaissance, while two more show the course of later art down to Tiepolo. The corridors contain a miscellaneous assortment of inferior pictures. A room is given up to the scanty collection of drawings, which, it is interesting to notice, are mostly of other schools than the Venetian. In this room, advantageously arranged for study, is the Venetian sketch-book, still ascribed to Raphael.

A word about photographs in Venice. After some time Alinari and Anderson have succeeded in getting out a large number of works of characteristic excellence. Their work has been done principally in Venice, but they have photographed in parts of Lombardy (notably Verona) and Venetia. Giorgione's Castelfranco altar-piece has been photographed in all sizes, in detail and as a whole. It is true that in the Venetian pictures there is still much to be desired, as in the photographs of the school of San Rocco, which has been unaccountably slurred, but by going from one publisher to the other a careful buyer can get good photographs of most of the best pictures in Venice. Both publishers are still at work enlarging their catalogues, Alinari has at last set up a depot in Venice, the little shops carry full lines of the new publications, and Naya, spurred to do something, with characteristic indolence, has taken to selling the photographs of Anderson.

ALLEN FRENCH.

KLOBENSTEIN, TIROL, July 7, 1895.

ANTONIO RAIMONDI AND PERU.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with much pleasure and profit Prof. DeKalb's article on Antonio Raimondi, which appeared in your issue of July 18. It is refreshing to find a clear and truthful statement concerning a country which has been the subject of so many imaginative stories. Peru is a wonderful land in all respects, and not the least wonderful feature about it is the lack of real knowledge of this region on the part of foreign nations. Every one who goes thither meets with surprising features of man and nature, hears astonishing stories about the country, its inhabitants, and its products, and, if he abides any length of time and journeys into the interior, finds flat contradictions of most of what he has previously read. The tales of tourists, after a brief visit, rushing into print with sensational accounts and hasty generalizations are not the only sources of mistakes concerning this republic and its neighbors; savants also have wandered from strict facts. Even Humboldt dreamed, as Whymper has discovered.

Notwithstanding the length of time during which it has been inhabited by whites, Peru is still a *terra incognita*. Its mineral regions are still practically virgin, and its agricultural regions have merely been scratched, except on the narrow coast-belt. It is easy to say that its geological formations are generally Jurassic and Cretaceous, but when it comes to details, there is absolute ignorance in literature. Books fresh from the press still assure us that the two veins of Cerro de Pasco meet and cross in a little market-place of the town; as a matter of fact the metal-bearing deposit is half a mile wide. In the province of Aymaraes there are gold deposits of curious nature, an adequate description of which is yet to be published. The country here is a seeming jumble of volcanic and sedimentary rocks. Spheralites of true glassy magma abound, as large as a man's head and larger. Millions of cubic yards of volcanic gravel (I use "gravel" merely as a convenient mining term) contain throughout their mass particles of gold which all have sharp (not rounded) edges; as if volcanic gold-bearing rock had been disintegrated *in situ* to a depth of several hundred feet.

Scattered pamphlets on some of the plants of Peru have appeared, but no adequate botany has been printed. Yet through the extent of the vast interior one hears the most astonishing accounts of the plants and the herb-decoctions made by the Indian women, especially of the aphrodisiacal effects of certain of the decoctions. Although I have never been able to obtain authentic information, I cannot doubt that there is some basis of truth for these stories.

Were there time and space, hundreds of strange and interesting facts about Peru and many cases of scientific (?) misstatements might be cited. I adduce the above few instances simply to emphasize the value of Raimondi's work, and the desirability of editing and publishing his data accumulated during a laborious residence of some twenty years in the interior, amid hardships and privations which would have crushed a less determined and enthusiastic devotee of science.

I hope that one or more of our great scientific institutions may adopt Prof. DeKalb's suggestion, and aid in securing the fruits of Raimondi's great life work. Peru unaided has not the finances needed to carry out what it has undertaken. Such men as Ernesto Malinowski, at one time Chief Engineer of the Oroya Railroad, and at all times an earnest supporter of science; Eduardo Abich, the efficient Director of the School of Civil and Mining Engineers; Leonardo Pflücker, successful mining engineer and distinguished savant; the able officers and members of the Geographical Society of Lima, who have done much excellent work and have charge now of the preparation of Raimondi's material—these and other gentlemen of Lima have displayed great interest in the subject, and through their influence money has been obtained heretofore from the Government; but, in the present condition of Peru, no more public money can be counted on, unless the national pride be roused to unexpected efforts.

Two Americans, now both dead, have given Raimondi efficient assistance. One was Henry Meiggs, of whom Prof. DeKalb has written. The other was William H. Cilley, the greatest railroad builder of the world, who won the love and esteem of South America by his genius, generosity, and high standard of honor, and made the name of the United States respected throughout the West Coast. His countrymen would do well to continue his acts of useful liberality.

A. D. HODGES, JR.

BOSTON, July 21, 1895.

Notes.

A CENTENARY edition of the Poems of Robert Burns is about to be taken in hand by T. C. and E. C. Jack, Edinburgh, under the editorship of W. E. Henley and T. F. Henderson, in four volumes. A pure text will be especially sought after, and dates of publication will take precedence of dates of composition. The fourth volume will consist of "Songs, Doubtful Pieces, Addenda, Glossarial Index, and General Index," and an essay on the life and genius of Burns, by Mr. Henley. The publishers will esteem it a favor to be put in communication with all owners of original Burns MSS., with a view to comparison and collation.

Preston & Rounds, Providence, R. I., invite subscriptions to 'Early Rhode Island Houses: An Historical and Architectural Study,' by Norman M. Isham, Instructor in Architecture, Brown University, and Albert F. Brown, architect, with a map and more than fifty full-page plates. Fourteen important and characteristic houses have been selected, of date well ascertained, and these will be illustrated with plans, sections, and restorations based on actual measurements. The volume will be an octavo, and the edition will be limited.

Henry Holt & Co. will publish immediately an authorized translation of Paulsen's 'Introduction to Philosophy,' by Prof. Frank Thilly of the University of Missouri, with a preface by Prof. William James of Harvard.

F. Warne & Co. have reprinted in a pretty and inexpensive volume Mr. James Knowles's 'Legends of King Arthur and his Knights,' formerly published under the initials "J. T. K." The book has been too long before the public to need more than a word of commendation. It is precisely what it professes to be: an abridgment, in a clear and popular style, of Malory's 'Morte Darthur,' with a few additions and some changes in arrangement. We

have more than once expressed our regret that the late and frequently debased forms afforded by Malory's compilation should continue to stand between English readers and all knowledge of more genuine and more estimable versions of the Arthur story. However, it is greater popularity for Chrétien de Troyes that is desirable, not less popularity for Sir Thomas, and accordingly we welcome Mr. Knowles's little book in its fresh attire.

Even Alison must be impressed into the prevailing Napoleonic craze, and A. S. Barnes & Co. have had the more or less happy thought to resort to the old plates of Edward S. Gould's abridgment of his 'History of Europe from the French Revolution to the Fall of Napoleon,' and launch them anew after fifty years of storage. This is now called a "Student's Edition," but who would recommend the student to begin with Alison?

We have received from Macmillan & Co. the fifth and sixth volumes of Mr. Charles Booth's great work on the people of London ('Life and Labor of the People'). In these volumes the classification of the population by trades is undertaken, with the aid of the occupation returns of the census of 1891. It should be somewhat consoling to those who are disquieted by the inequalities of fortune to learn that out of 4,000,000 people in the rich city of London only 60,000 all told—men, women, and children—enjoy the luxury of an establishment with as many as four servants. "With less than half of these is the number of servants greater than that of those they serve." Like the other volumes of this magnificent statistical work, these are full of interesting details, and contain an enormous amount of technical information.

The Massachusetts Military Historical Society has published a new volume of papers read before it, entitled 'Critical Sketches of Some of the Federal and Confederate Commanders.' The series makes an interesting group of well-drawn characters, including Grant, McClellan, Sherman, Thomas, Beauregard, Stuart, Hancock, and Humphreys. Some of the papers have already appeared in periodicals, but others are for the first time made public, and all are worthy to be thus collected in a permanent volume. Great freedom is allowed the writers, who strongly but candidly make their estimates, each from his own standpoint, sometimes with strong contrasts of view and of conclusion. The society has material for some ten volumes or more, and proposes to classify the papers according to campaigns, and to continue the publication. With a strong list of contributors headed by Mr. John C. Ropes, it hardly needs saying that the war literature will thus be enriched in a noteworthy manner.

J. E. A. Smith's 'The Poet among the Hills: Oliver Wendell Holmes in Berkshire' (Pittsfield, Mass.: George Blatchford) is a rambling little book whose chief aim is to exhibit Dr. Holmes's poetic products during his seven summers in Pittsfield. A portion of this has never before been published; but the whole of it hardly serves to establish Dr. Holmes's title to be a poet of nature. The matter is eked out with Longfellow and Mrs. Kemble, and there are portraits, views, and facsimiles of old prints

Three of the four stories which make up Henry James's 'Terminations' (Harpers) have been printed before; the last one, "The Altar of the Dead," is new, and in originality of conception as well as in delicacy of imagination outranks the others. It is a theme after Hawthorne's own heart, and though he would have put more chill and creepiness into its treatment, he could hardly have made characters essentially elusive and ghost-like more real than has Mr. James by his flashes of light thrown upon flitting figures. Nowhere has he more shown himself, to use one of his own phrases, "a fingerer of style," with a fatal eye for the exact word required. Two of the other stories deal with certain aspects of the literary life, their apparent burden being the unsatisfactoriness of success, when not the highest. If some detect an autobiographic smart in this, more will be left wondering why so exquisite a literary art has not yet found a subject great enough to make its exercise seem less like sheer waste.

Señor Enrique Dupuy de Lôme, now Minister from Spain to this country, has had a varied diplomatic career, two years of which, 1873–1875, were passed in the Spanish Legation in Yokohama. Of the observations there made and the studies pursued, we now have the fruit in his 'Estudios sobre el Japón' (Madrid: Sucesores de Rivadeneyra). For the most part written twenty years ago, the volume has its timeliness in the chapters wherein Japan's leap from the middle ages into the modern world is described, and especially, from a Spanish point of view, in the pages which discuss and forecast the relations of Spain to Japan in the Orient. On this head Señor de Lôme writes: "Twenty-one years ago I said that Japan was an example and might come to be a peril; the example continues, and the peril has arrived, to become greater every day." Why Spanish influence and prestige in the East have so declined, the Spanish Minister explains with a frankness which must be melancholy reading for his countrymen. Something, he says, he does not know what, has eaten the enterprise and the moral fibre out of the Spaniard of the sixteenth century. Other races have taken the initiative in colonizing and commerce, and the Spaniard has sunk so low that he does not even care that his old sceptre has been given to another.

It would not be surprising if many persons, on reading Pierre Loti's 'Jérusalem' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), believed the author in a fair way of becoming a Christian, yet nothing would be further from the truth. Loti is emotional, acutely sensitive, but neither deep nor persistent, and, withal, a little bit of a *poseur*. The poetry of Jerusalem appeals to him through its picturesqueness, its (to him) new flavor of Judaism and Christianity, but in no more moving way than Constantinople or his Chinese kitten. He has an eye for certain colors and tints, for certain effects, and a remarkable power of describing them. The regretful tone, the would-be despair with which he seeks to impress the reader, and does impress many readers, are transient and will vanish like the mists and vapors that shadow at times the City of God. But neither his unbelief nor his pessimism ever prompts him to irony or contempt for the simple-hearted believers he meets in throngs up and down the narrow streets and around the sacred shrines. And this is a pleasant point to note. He may disagree, but he does not sneer. That there are numerous beautiful pages in the book is matter of course; it is an exquisite piece of writing, second only to 'Le Désert,' in which Loti was unconsciously more at home than in Jerusalem.

The War Department prints for army use 'The Autumn Manœuvres of 1894 in Austria-Hungary, France, and Germany.' This is part of the good fruit of the establishment of the "Military Information Division," and will give the opportunity for profitable study of the great schools of campaigning as now conducted by first-class military powers. The Austrian and German manœuvres are illustrated by large topographical maps, on which the positions are marked for each day of the mimic campaign that approaches as near to the proportions of actual war as is possible in time of peace. The Austrian manœuvres covered a region of some thirty miles square near Landskron in Eastern Bohemia. The German were in a region of similar extent south of Königsberg in Old Prussia. The French took place between Chartres and Orléans. The theatres of operation are characteristically different in topographical features, and the manœuvres possess the very highest degree of military interest.

In Part vii. of 'The Fishes of North America,' the editor, Mr. W. C. Harris, continues his notes upon the cat-fishes, a family most appreciated by juvenile anglers. The colored lithographs are of the small-mouthed black bass and the striped bass.

We have received from Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, the third of the twenty-nine plates of Richard Kiepert's map of German East Africa, on a scale of 1:300,000. This important work is issued under the patronage of the Colonial section of the Foreign Office, and may be trusted to embrace the minutest items of our present knowledge of a region extending from the sea to Lake Tanganyika, the Victoria Nyanza, Lake Nyasa, and the Rovuma River. Each sheet is accompanied by explanatory text. No better cartographer could have been employed than the compiler of the official 'Deutscher Colonial-Atlas.'

'*Figaro* Salon 1895' (New York: Boussod, Valadon & Co.) is concluded with Part 6, which is distinguished by a picture of Paul Dubois's equestrian statue of Jeanne d'Arc. The sculpture seems, indeed, to surpass the canvases in this season's exhibits, and we may single out in Part 5 A. Bartholomé's "Projet d'un Monument aux Morts" as containing the elements, at least, of a remarkably effective work.

D. C. Heath have become the American publishers of *Science Progress*, a periodical that stands quite apart in its class and holds no mean rank.

The seventeenth International Congress for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Property will be held in Dresden in September (21-28), and preparations are being energetically made by the local committee appointed by the Dresden Association of Authors. As the King of Saxony has accepted the patronate of the congress, and as there is an ample guarantee fund, the meeting will undoubtedly be a great success, especially since it takes place for the first time in a city of the German Empire, and its aims have a special interest for German authors and artists. Only two of the preceding congresses of the "Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale" met in German cities—in Vienna in 1881, in Berne in 1883. Weighty questions will come up for discussion and possible solution in Dresden. Johannes Brahms, Eduard Brockhaus, Paul Heyse (in lieu of the late Gustav Freytag), Adolf Menzel, Johann Schilling, and Paul Wallot, the architect of the new Reichstag building in Berlin, will preside. After a solemn opening in the Gewerbehaus at Dresden and a gala operatic performance in the Court Theatre on September 21, the discussions will be carried on for a week, interrupted by excursions to Meissen for the inspection of the ceramic exposition prepared solely for the members of the

congress, and an excursion on September 28 to Leipzig, where the congress will be formally closed. It is to be hoped that many American authors and artists may be present.

—The current number of the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* (vol. xv., part i.) contains a very brief paper, by Mr. A. S. Murray, upon an Athenian lekythos in the British Museum. The paper is illustrated by a small woodcut in the text, and by a photographic plate in which the whole design painted on the vase is shown at once, and as if it had been painted on a tablet. From an explanatory note it appears that Mr. A. H. Smith has invented the machine which has effected this, the cyclograph, whose operation is as follows: "The vase . . . rotates while travelling along the circumference of a circle having its centre at the centre of the lens; and a narrow slit, which travels at the same time between the vase and the lens at right angles to the axis of the latter, insures that so much only of the vase shall be exposed at any moment as is without sensible motion, at the point where the movements of rotation and translation counteract one another." It is claimed that now for the first time is a painting on such a surface photographed without distortion. The phial in question, however, is nearly cylindrical. How will the machine work with the vases whose form approaches the spherical—with the œnochoe and the hydria? The painting represents a woman holding just such a lekythos in her right hand, other objects in her left hand, and evidently carrying offerings to the dead. It is evident, then, that such lekythoi were used in funereal rites. The inscription Mr. Murray gives as Πάτροκλ(ε) χαῖρε—"Hail to Patroclus." But, he explains, it is not the tomb of Patroclus of the 'Iliad,' nor of any other Patroclus, which she is to visit; here, rather, is an instance of the proverbial use of the passage from the 'Iliad,' where the slave-women weep their own private sorrows while seeming to mourn Patroclus. "The woman represented carries her own grief with her, while she laments ostensibly for some Patroclus or other."

—Most readers of the new German monthly, the *Geographische Zeitschrift* (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer and B. Westermann & Co.), will turn directly to the extremely suggestive article on the "Peace of Simonoseki in its Geographical Relations," by Baron von Richthofen, the well-known author of the standard work on China. He briefly indicates the strategical and material value of the Liautung Peninsula, Korea, and Formosa to Japan, and strongly commends the wisdom of her choice of places to be opened to trade. Three of these are situated at the centres of the silk districts, about one hundred miles from Shanghai. The manufacture of silk, it may be said, is growing with astonishing rapidity in Japan, the 13,000 spindles of four years ago having now become 600,000. Sha-shi, near the head of steam navigation on the Yang tse, is the port of a vast network of canals running north and south of the river through the cotton-growing provinces of central China. Siangtan in Hunan and Chung-king in Sze-chwan are similarly situated with respect to the great coal fields in these provinces. Comparing the influence of Western civilization on the three great Asiatic empires, India, China, and Japan, our author says that the two former would speedily return to their ancient condition on the withdrawal of the European, but that a permanent change has come over Japan, which will inevitably affect China. Japan has accomplished what England and France have failed to do: she has awakened China out of her sleep, and opened to Japanese enterprise the greatest store of cheap and intelligent labor which the world possesses. He holds, therefore, that the principal outcome of the war is the shifting not only of the world's political and military, but also, what is far more serious in its consequences, of her industrial centre of gravity. The other articles are one on geographical research by the editor, Prof. A. Hettner of Leipzig, which is accompanied by a chart showing the extent to which the earth has been surveyed, and one on the influence of climatic variations on the crops and prices of cereals in Europe. There is also an account of the Bremen Geographical Congress, the latest news from explorers and travellers, and notices of new books. From the editor's introduction we gather that the aim of the *Zeitschrift* is, not to publish purely scientific articles, but to present in a popular form the progress of our knowledge of the earth and its inhabitants, and also to treat of the methods of geographical education. A large number of writers, including some well-known names, have promised their coöperation. The form is a large octavo.

—*Die Frauenbewegung* was founded only six months ago by Frau von Gizycki, the gifted wife of the late Georg von Gizycki, professor of philosophy and ethics at the University of Berlin, himself a warm advocate of woman's rights. It is a semi-monthly journal edited by Lily von Gizycki and Minna Cauer, and receives contributions chiefly from the pens of leading German women writers and reformers, although articles by men not unfrequently find a place in its columns. While its aim is first and foremost the attainment of the rights now so freely extended to women in other countries, and of those still denied them the world over, it has also at heart the cause of temperance and of peace, and general social regeneration. A large percentage of both the men and the women interested in woman's advancement in Germany are more or less declared Socialists. Socialism is accordingly imputed as an opprobrium to the *Frauenbewegung*. This cannot be helped any more than could the early relation between the despised anti-slavery agitation in this country and the movement for the equal rights and duties of the two sexes. The *Frauenbewegung* is remarkable for its able editorials, but most of all for its unusually wide sources of information concerning what is accomplished for and by women in every part of the world. It does not cater to the feminine taste for fiction, and it absolutely ignores household affairs, so favorite a topic among the Germans.

—M. Paul Bourget was with us last year, and has recorded his impressions and his accumulation of facts with that delightful mixture of the one with the other which only a master of fiction can compound. But the review of his two volumes by M. M. E. de Mandat-Grancey, in the *Figaro* of June 1, reveals us to ourselves in several new lights. We are, according to the reviewer, a most notable example not of real progress, but of reversion to a more primitive type of society. He twits M. Bourget with having looked too exclusively at the five-o'clock-tea side of American manners and informs him that if he had gone West and studied the rougher phases of life, he would have understood better the real developments of Americanism. In the West, M. de Mandat-Grancey finds a state of things to which a parallel can be discovered only in the Middle Ages. While enormous wealth has accumulated in a few hands in the East, endangering, through corruption and through monopoly, the liberties of the people, in the West the land is held in vast tracts by great proprietors. These feed their flocks and herds over areas large enough to constitute respectable principalities. Like the barons of old, they arm their retainers, called "cowboys." They carry on petty warfare with neighboring barons, and, when not so engaged, keep their hands in by doing a little marauding on peaceable merchants and travellers. When an internecine strife overtaxes the reserves in men of one of these barons, he can hire mercenaries—"fighting men"—from a Col. Pinkerton, the same who supplied Mr. (Baron) Carnegie with soldiers in his war with his workmen. M. de Mandat-Grancey professes to speak from bitter personal observation and experience, as he says a company in Dakota, in which he is interested, expends 11 per cent. of its revenue in maintaining a force of fighting men to defend its property. While in the West the rough-and-ready manners of the Middle Ages are repeated on our ranches, in the luxurious society of our Eastern cities we are imitating the habits and vices of Rome in her decadence, and that so accurately that, as M. de Mandat-Grancey says, "ladies, after a public entertainment, will even visit the lodgings of a celebrated acrobat, who exhibits to their admiring gaze the muscular development of his torso under the pretext of giving them a lecture about his body." However ridiculous and extravagant such criticism may be, there is just suggestion enough of truth in the caricature to make it worthy of more than a sneer or a jest.

—Some months ago Mr. Lewis E. Gates edited for the Athenæum Press Series of Ginn & Co. a volume of 'Selections from the Essays of Francis Jeffrey.' This is now followed by 'Selections from the Prose Writings of John Henry Cardinal Newman' (Holt). The two volumes are in plan and purpose substantially identical. They furnish to the student or the amateur of literature or of the art of writing a compact body of material with a carefully adjusted apparatus of introduction and notes. Both books give evidence not merely of abundant knowledge and accurate scholarship on the editor's part, but of a somewhat remarkable power of constructive as well as analytic criticism. The introduction to 'Jeffrey' defines the dictator's position as a literary critic with an exactness hitherto unattempted, and puts his relation to the Romantic movement in a new light. Another novel point is the discussion of the *Edinburgh's* influence in converting "the old-fashioned review-article" into "a brief argumentative essay discussing some living topic, political or social, in the light of the very latest ideas." The introduction to 'Newman' is also a highly original piece of writing. Nowhere have Newman's style and method been so subtly analyzed before, nor do we believe that future analysts will find much that has escaped the editor's processes. Equally brilliant is the short chapter which defines the relation of the Oxford movement and the Roman Catholic revival to what is called Romanticism. We hope that these two introductory essays may be but the *prodromos* of a more elaborate and ambitious work on the literature of the nineteenth century. That Mr. Gates has a vocation to such a work there can be no doubt.

MUMMERY'S CLIMBS IN ALPS AND CAUCASUS.

My Climbs in the Alps and Caucasus. By A. F. Mummery. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

JOHN BALL, the first President of the Alpine Club, was once asked his opinion about that matter of droll debate, "Is life worth living?" He said he felt "contemptuous pity for the man whose mind could be so profoundly diseased as even to ask such a question, as if a soldier with the trumpet-call sounding in his ear should stop to inquire whether the battle was worth fighting." Mr Mummery has been sealed of the tribe of Ball for twenty-four years, and the same freshness which the world welcomed in 'Peaks, Passes, and Glaciers,' in 'Hours of Exercise,' in 'Scrambles amongst the Alps,' and in the ever-to-be-cherished 'Playground,' is the quality of his book. Where so many climb with daring and acrobatic skill, it would be invidious to single him out as the most expert amateur of the last decade; but one can state that he is a typical *Gipfel-Stürmer*, and has had few peers in his craft. The Mummery tent is a masterpiece, and readers of the *Alpine Journal* know how its inventor can act in an emergency. Mr. Ellis Carr's 'Two Days on an Ice Slope' bears evidence to higher qualities than endurance and ingenuity. But till now the half of his deeds has been untold.

Considerable disproportion exists between the space allotted to the Alpine and Caucasian parts of this book. We have eleven chapters on the Alps, two on the Caucasus, and an important epilogue on the "Pleasures and Penalties of Mountaineering." The Alpine chapters, in turn, fall asunder into sections relating respectively to Visperthal and Chamonix peaks. The Teufelsgrat—the southwest ridge of the Täschhorn—is Mr. Mummery's eastern, the Aiguille du Plan his western, limit. Let us follow out the course of a single expedition. Which shall it be? None is without excitement, and it is hard to choose between Zermatt and Chamonix, between the Col du Lion and the Grépon. But the Matterhorn is "la belle dame sans merci" of the Alpine knight, so let us take the Col du Lion. What manner of pass this is can be seen by reference to Mr. Whymper's illustration of its summit, page 91 of his 'Scrambles' (ed. 1871). Both he and Prof. Tyndall, two of the most daring among older Alpinists, considered it impracticable, and it was hedged by the divinity of its danger till June, 1880. Mr. Mummery shall tell how he came to attack it. One day, towards the end of this month, he and Alexander Burgener, having crossed the Col Tournanche, were

> "basking on a warm rock, just above the level of the Tiefenmatten glacier. The pipe of peace was wreathing tiny clouds and threads of smoke amongst the overhanging rocks, whilst before us towered the grandest wall the Alps can boast, the huge western face of the Matterhorn. Gradually my attention was riveted by the Col du Lion, and it was brought home to my mind that no more difficult, circuitous, and inconvenient method of getting from Zermatt to Breuil could possibly be devised, than by using this same Col as a pass."

The chief danger of the Col du Lion is the cannonade of stones which sweeps its sole approach, a couloir 2,000 feet in height. This couloir, though set at a very erect angle, is not unassailable during the early hours of the morning. After the sun grows hot, it is an open conduit for every kind of projectile which the Matterhorn showers down its flanks. A party once committed to it is bound to advance. A single obstacle causing delay is almost certain to entail what mountaineering books style, with unanimity of euphemism, "the most serious results." The risk is great, and in the present instance was not underrated by either the amateur or his guide. They made the trial and won, but not by an ample margin. The couloir was in bad condition. "It looked scarcely possible to get up, and there was more than a touch of anxiety in Burgener's 'Wir müssen, Herr Momerie, sonst sind wir beide caput.'" A little later on their difficulties came to a climax with the breaking of Burgener's ice-axe. It is to be presumed, although he does not say so, that Mr. Mummery's sensations at this point were similar to those of Nelson in the battle of the Baltic. "It is warm work; and this day may be the last to any of us at a moment. But mark you! I would not be elsewhere for thousands." The crippled pair, from lack of an exit below, moved on up the cathedral roof of ice, and forced their way across a desperate traverse to some snow. The traverse was fifteen feet wide, and consisted of rock, nearly perpendicular, glazed with thin ice. Notches for hands and feet were scratched in the ice, and by a kind of shuffle the *mauvais pas* was crossed. Later on they froze their fingers, and in this state had to assault the final cliff below the Col. "The face of this final cliff consists of loose, disintegrated rock. It appeared, indeed, to be only held together by the snow and ice with which it was plastered." A friendly rent in the icicles gave Burgener his desired chance. "Once in this gap, he soon gets one hand on the hard-frozen Col, the other waves his hat, and, with a triumphant though breathless jodel, he draws himself over the edge of the grimmest wall it has ever been my luck to scale."

Sic itur ad astra. The descent to Breuil occupied, exclusive of halts, an hour and a quarter. It was a continuous and not too careful glissade. The couloir was full of fog, and they nearly slid into the Bergschrund. Pulling up just on its edge and traversing to the left, "we found a bridge, and, as it was much too rotten to crawl over, we trusted to luck and a sitting glissade." Thus ended an expedition compared with which the Höruli ascent of the Matterhorn is a quiet ramble. The pass has only been made twice since then: once by Dr. Güssfeldt and Burgener, who nearly lost their lives ('In den Hochalpen,' p. 269); and once by Herr Kuffner with Burgener and Kalbmatten.

It is no concern of the present notice to examine the ethics of such exploits. Readers who have never breathed Alpine air above the tree-line will hardly approve what seems a reckless risk of life and limb. But let such remember—for few will be tempted by Mr. Mummery to try the Col du Lion—that in this spirit of invincible pluck the Rütli compact was sealed, and English sailors of the sixteenth century manned twenty-ton pinnaces for the North Atlantic voyage. And then the *advocatus diaboli* may find another ground of defence. Perhaps we ought to consider that these deeds are so many silent protests against the Zahnradbahn and its concomitants. *Non ragioniam di lor.*

Mr. Mummery has visited the summit of the Matterhorn seven times, and in separate chapters of his book describes two ascents from unusual sides, viz., from the Zmutt ridge and the Furggen ridge. Mrs. Mummery contributes an article on an ascent of the Teufelsgrat, which she made in company with her husband and two guides in July, 1887. They were out twenty-eight hours, and there is no mention of excessive fatigue! The rest of the Alpine part deals with the Aiguilles of the Mont Blanc chain, and must be read by all who desire to know the character of up-to-date rock-scrambling.

In 1868 Elbruz, 18,526 feet, fell to three members of the Alpine Club, Messrs. Freshfield, Moore, and Tucker, with François Devouassond as guide. But Dych Tau, 17,054 feet, the second summit of the Caucasus, went unsubdued for twenty years longer. The conquest must have cost Mr. Mummery much discomfort and a great deal of vexation. His guide, Heinrich Zurfluh of Meiringen, had one eternal note: "Es gefällt mir nicht." The struggle with Dych Tau brought him up to the mark, but for the rest he was homesick and unfit. Mr. Mummery did his mountain handsomely, made some passes, and returned, successful in his main object, but without materials for any such book as that of Mr. Freshfield. At the best he could not have brought the Caucasus into serious competition with the Alps. Elbruz is higher than Mont Blanc; the azalea is more beautiful than the rhododendron; Uschba may be more awe-inspiring than the Matterhorn. But all other mountain districts lack the one great thing which the Alps have—human interest. "Keine Glocke ertönt auf den grünen Matten, und kein Senne jodelt dem Wanderer zu." So Emil Huber, of the Selkirks; so all explorers when they come to a final comparison.

The chapter on the "Pleasures and Penalties of Mountaineering" is important for its expert testimony on two points which many have held to be settled. The true faith of climbers—*vide* the Badminton and All England series—is that a party should consist of at least three persons, and that the rope should never be discarded till the day's work is done. Minatory clauses assert that whoever believes and acts otherwise, shall without doubt suffer "the most serious results." Mr. Mummery brings great fulness of illustration to bear on both these points, seeking to modify rather than dispute the received view. He also touches the question of climbing alone. He admits that in fine settled weather he has "strolled over the Trift Joch, the Weissthor, the Col du Géant, and other passes, without experiencing any symptom of danger." But his advice is conservative. He refrains from mentioning Mr. Whymper's hook and ring.

In conclusion, a few words about Mr. Mummery's work as a whole. It is open to a certain amount of minor criticism, but, after all deductions have been made, it remains a work which will find its home in every good library of adventure, and will be of permanent interest to every lover of the Alps. May one dare to suggest that in a future edition the author will subject himself to the "painful operation of self-mutilation" which Leslie Stephen performed before publishing the 'Playground'? The Alpine joke, especially when it deals with meat and drink, will never fail to receive cordial welcome from the elect, but should be preserved from a too sacrilegious protrusion upon the public ear. One point more. Col. Higginson's distinction between the American and the Englishman is often brought to mind in reading Alpine books of 1875–95 side by side with the books of 1855–75. A certain clear difference in tone can be detected—in despite, we are forced to believe, of Mr. Mummery's opinion. The older men had no lack of joy in their sport, or of vigor in its prosecution. Their books are full of the enthusiasm which is begotten of thin Alpine air. Is the drop

which has been superadded a drop of nervous fluid, or a drop of Bouvier?

The garb of the book is handsome, not to say sumptuous. Mr. Pennell—who, by the way, must be getting to know Europe as well as Herr J. Weber of 'Wanderbilder' fame—contributes eleven admirable drawings; the eight photogravures are equally admirable; the two lithographic plates lag a little behind. Several other illustrations occur in the text. Two misprints need to be rectified. The illustration of the Aiguille Verte is not a photogravure, as we are led to suppose from the list given on page xii. The other misprint is amusing. Mr. Mummery is made to state, p. 111: "Of these early pioneers Melchior, Anderegg, and a few others survive." Now Melchior Anderegg is a name familiar to climbers as Napoleon is to mankind. He is the most famous of guides. Three years ago Mr. C. G. Mathews said of him at the age of sixty-four, "It is inexpressibly sad even to think of the time when the eye will become dim and the natural force abated; but, living or dead, he will have an abiding-place in the hearts of many men, who owe him a debt of gratitude to repay which would be impossible." One does not like to see such a man cut in two even by a printer.

RICHARD OWEN AND THE EVOLUTION MOVEMENT.

The Life of Richard Owen. By the Rev. Richard Owen. 2 vols. Appletons.

We closed this Life of Richard Owen with the feeling that he was more than a great comparative anatomist. So far as the permanent forces of civilization are concerned, he was one of the leading Englishmen of the middle part of this century. Although he outlived Darwin by ten years, passing away in 1892 at the age of eighty-eight, we purposely emphasize his position in the mid-century, for after this he virtually lost his leadership. This loss of a commanding position among his colleagues in both thought and action is the most striking single feature of his life, because it illustrates most vividly the total change in English thought about nature, and the consequences to one who refused to conform to the change. A genuine and brilliant scientific career is almost invariably cumulative, honors and influence increasing rapidly as life goes on. Such good fortune, however, was not Owen's. In his latter years he continued active research, he saw his dream of a great museum realized, he enjoyed the beautiful Sheen Lodge in Richmond Park, provided for him as a home by the Queen, but he certainly felt none the less keenly that his intellectual supremacy had departed, and that the age had gone by him.

The truth is, Owen belonged to the older school, and Darwinism fairly cut his life in two while in its prime. Although only fifty-four when the 'Origin of Species' appeared, he could not or would not reconstruct the framework of his natural philosophy as Sir Charles Lyell did at a much more advanced age; and, so far as we know, Owen remained to the last sceptical as to natural selection and unreconciled to evolution. Amid a charming narrative of the personal and social experiences of a long and prominent life, this central fact is candidly brought out by the author, with the competent scientific advice and revision of Dr. Sherborn. Yet the omission of all reference to Owen's bitter controversies during the mid-century in numerous letters, papers, and public discussions is a serious defect, for we well know that it is these omitted passages of Owen's life which best explain his conservatism as well as his loss of prestige with younger men.

We must understand that at the climax of his career Owen held an almost unique position: he was highly honored in the scientific world, as well as by the marked confidence of the royal family and of the Government; all new and rare vertebrate specimens reaching England from every part of the world came to his hands; his scientific dictum was law. It was inevitable that he should begin to consider himself infallible, and to look upon his monopoly of material as part of the natural order of things. When Huxley, Flower, and other younger men entered the same field, claimed a share in the scientific spoils, and especially when they began to dispute some of his fundamental theories, he rose in wrath and replied with superior irony. Every such contest ended in a total defeat for Owen and in the further estrangement of his younger colleagues, with the final result that his whole philosophy of anatomy was undermined.

These volumes naturally dwell chiefly upon the brilliant side of Owen's career. Now that facilities for the study of natural science abound in all English cities, and every beginner is welcomed into biology, it is difficult to imagine the discouragements which faced a young anatomist in 1820. The manner in which Owen surmounted every obstacle finely illustrates Galton's view that mental predisposition is superior to the forces of nurture and education. While apprenticed to an apothecary in Lancaster, Owen cultivated the surgeon of the county jail. The ghastly surroundings of the morgue for executed criminals at first repelled him, but, with the rare opportunity of dissecting the head of a negro and examining for himself the prognathic and other racial characteristics, he says: "My anatomical passion returned, and all other resolves and scruples were soon forgotten." At twenty-three Owen had found his way into John Hunter's collection in the Royal College of Surgeons, and begun his famous studies on the anthropoid apes. There Cuvier called upon him, invited him to Paris, and drew his attention to the study of fossil vertebrates. Five years later the memoir upon the Pearly Nautilus gave Owen a world-wide reputation, and from this time forward he worked over the broad field of living and extinct fishes, reptiles, birds, and mammals with marvellous rapidity and accuracy, producing from fifteen to thirty memoirs or papers annually until he was over eighty. Dr. Sherborn deserves the credit for the complete bibliography. Owen laid the foundations of our modern work upon the fossil reptilia, especially the dinosaurs, and monographed the marsupials of Australia. From New Zealand he procured and finally restored the giant bird Dinornis, and one of his triumphs was the restoration of the great South American sloth, Mylodon. He was also an enthusiastic student of the microscope, discovering and tracing the life-history of the trichina as the cause of trichinosis, studying and speculating upon the phenomena of parthenogenesis, and being elected the first President of the Royal Microscopical Society. It is safe to say that no living naturalist is covering one-fourth the ground represented by these researches.

We can hardly overestimate Owen's public services in spreading natural science through his addresses and lectures to the people by skilfully stating technical facts and imparting his own enthusiasm. He labored for years in the cause of sanitation, and was largely instrumental in forcing Parliament to consider drainage and ventilation as matters of public welfare demanding legislation. It required years of enlightenment to secure the removal of the tax on windows, which fell most heavily upon the poor. But Owen's greatest parliamentary effort was his agitation through a period of nineteen years for a museum of natural history. Suffering from the overcrowded state of his collections in the British Museum in Bloomsbury, he conceived in 1846 the idea of a distinct national museum of fossil and recent anatomy upon a grand scale, to include a large lecture theatre, and to occupy ten acres of land in the heart of London. This costly project he forced upon several Prime Ministers successively until Gladstone, with his keen appreciation of public educational needs, made it a Government issue in 1861. Singularly enough, Huxley was quoted as one of the opponents of this scheme, considering it chimerical, and under a sharp attack by Disraeli the Government was defeated by a large vote. But in 1863 Gladstone carried the full measure through, the building was beautifully designed, by Waterhouse, and Owen held the directorship until 1884. It is now the most superb institution of its kind in the world.

The second volume of the Life closes with an essay upon "Owen's position in the history of anatomical science," which puts this side of his career clearly before us. This was appropriately contributed by the late Prof. Huxley, who was for years the chief opponent of Owen. Owen fell heir to the investigating spirit of Cuvier and to the fallacious anatomical philosophy of Oken, which he carried into great detail. As the head of the *École des faits* (in opposition to Geoffroy), Cuvier made the accumulation of facts and classification the chief end of science, considering that the search for underlying principles in nature was fruitless. Oken, on the other hand, borrowing mainly from the Greeks, ranked generalization first. Between these extremes, in his osteology, Owen pursued a fatal middle course, piling up facts like Cuvier, but forcing them into harmony with the Goethe-Oken "archetype," akin to Plato's "idea." Thus, in the culmination of his anatomical studies, he fell into a mystical and fallacious circle of reasoning about the skull and skeleton as fashioned by the Creator after a certain ideal pattern, and believed that all vertebrates presented variations of this pattern. This was evidently not the path leading to evolution.

In 1844, when Robert Chambers excited all England over the development hypothesis in his anonymous 'Vestiges of Creation,' Whewell and the geologists Murchison and Sedgwick (who referred to the 'Vestiges' as that "beastly book") appealed to Owen as "a real man in armor, from whom a reply would do infinite service to *true* science." But Owen remained entirely non-committal. In 1848 he told the author of the 'Vestiges' that there were five more likely ways of introducing a new species than those advanced by Lamarck, but declined to explain them. His only direct statement was that no satisfactory proof of evolution, and certainly no internal perfecting tendencies in animals or plants, were apparent, but there might be other "secondary causes," as yet hypothetical and requiring much additional observation and experiment. Subsequently (in 1858), he looked equally askance at natural selection, and his early friendship with Darwin terminated after a long correspondence, in which Owen seems both overbearing and disingenuous. These letters are not reproduced here, but should ultimately be published, together with

those of Darwin, which have also been suppressed from the 'Life and Letters.'

When this biography of Owen is placed beside Darwin's and compared with the life work of Huxley, we have before us the three men who, with widest contrasts of character and endowments, have made England preëminent in natural history during the present century, taking from France the leadership won by Cuvier, Buffon, and Lamarck. Owen's constructive power is seen in his building up comparative anatomy and projecting the great museum. His failures in controversy and in biology are in strong contrast with Huxley's achievements in philosophy as well as in his battles for free thought and the Darwinian theory. Yet Huxley's success was largely of a destructive character. Owen's observations in anatomy are far more numerous, while Huxley's principles of anatomy are far more useful to the modern student because they embrace both embryonic development (which Owen disregarded) and evolution. The decline of Owen's influence and interpretation of nature attended step by step the rise of Darwin's, and he has fallen for a while below his actual level. But as time softens the memory of his errors, Owen will be recognized as preparing the way for English biology in the latter half-century. A beautiful statue of his noble figure will soon stand near that of Darwin in the natural-history museum which he founded, and before long England, America, and Germany will place the lamented Huxley in the marble group.

The Mississippi Basin: The Struggle in America between England and France, 1697–1763. With full cartographical illustrations from contemporary sources. By Justin Winsor. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 8vo, pp. x, 484.

THE tale that was told from Cartier to Frontenac is continued by the same author in this welcome volume. The two works are uniform in externals, identical in plan, method, and scope, and bear the same relation to the more extensive "Narrative and Critical History of America" which the eminent writer has so ably conducted. Nearly all that we said on the former occasion is equally pertinent to the present, *mutatis mutandis*. The period of time covered by these continuous relations is more than two hundred years, of which a century and two-thirds extended from Cartier to Frontenac, and two-thirds of a century witnessed the consequent French-English struggle in America; historical continuity being thus unbroken from the initial date of 1534 to the pivotal year of 1763. But with the opening of the present treatise the scene is shifted from what might be named Laurentia—*i. e.*, the whole drainage-area of the Great Lakes and the River St. Lawrence—to what was for a while called Colbertia, this being all that was then known of the Mississippi Basin, whose main artery had been named in honor of the French statesman by Louis Hennepin in 1680.

We have already commented on the wealth of cartographical material which is brought to bear upon Mr. Winsor's work; and this most marked feature in the case becomes still more impressive and significant as the story develops into its fuller proportions. The keynote is struck by the author's high appreciation of the bearing of physical geography upon human history; and he elaborates this thesis with such firm insistence upon the main point, with such happy results, that he almost seems to have created a science for which as yet we have no name. This may be called, in a word, histogeography. We will let Mr. Winsor himself supply the definition, by citing a portion of his dedication of this volume to the President of the Royal Geographical Society:

"Such an observer as you are knows how the physiography of a continent influences its history; how it opens avenues of discovery, directs lines of settlement, and gives to the natural rulers of the earth their coign of vantage. I would not say that there are not other compelling influences; but no other control is so steady. If we appreciate such a dominating power in subjecting the earth to man's uses, we cannot be far from discerning the pith of history, particularly of those periods which show the work of pioneers."

The pith of history thus indicated is something that not all—perhaps we should say not many—historians have fully extracted, however diligently or successfully they may have scraped the bark to get at heart-wood facts, or even tapped the trunk of time for a flow of dates. We may know to an hour when La Salle was killed, who fired the fatal shot, and even hear some of the words that passed, without being able to fix the spot where this tragedy was enacted. We were long left almost as much at sea concerning the transcontinental route of Alvar Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca and his companions as these were before the author of the 'Naufragios' had touched Florida under Adelantado Pámfilo de Narvaez. In these two cases, as in uncounted others we could cite, precision is possible only by histogeographical methods, in the application of which many writers of great reliability in other respects have shown themselves singularly obtuse. The trailing of pioneers and explorers has often been a neglected or slighted portion of the historian's work, and this is specially liable to be the case with the very class of writers to which Mr. Winsor distinctively belongs—namely, scholars who live in the world of books, and explore the rich recesses of the library. Our author is the signal exception to the rule; for his work shows that he can "cover the ground" better than many travellers.

Almost all the great continental thoroughfares along which human tides have borne their living freight are reducible to one or the other of two main classes—waterways and mountain-gaps. The lie of the land determines avenues of approach and occupation so infallibly that histogeography becomes a true science, capable of development even to the predictive stage—so far removed is it from mere empiricism. We have a fine illustration of its main principles in the well-known facts of our history, from Columbus to Winsor, throughout which period the course of empire has been that the buffalo followed the water, the Indian followed the buffalo, the white man followed the Indian, and the locomotive followed the white man. Another interesting point in this connection is the occurrence of conditions which infallibly make some places key-situations, like the Sault Ste. Marie on the Great Lakes, El Paso on the Rio Grande, or the South Pass in the Rocky Mountains. Many who have admired the wisdom and goodness of God in making rivers flow so conveniently past cities might less devoutly and more reasonably account for even some of the more anomalous coincidences by applying sound principles of histogeography.

The numerous maps which illustrate Mr. Winsor's text constitute in themselves no small portion of the history of the Mississippi Basin, in their graphic delineation of the progress of geographical discovery and acquisition. In their mechanical execution, we are sorry to say, they are far from being all that is desirable. Some of the objectionable features to which we referred on a former occasion are perhaps inseparable from the process of reproducing them from the originals, in pursuance of what seems the author's plan of reducing the sheets to page size; but even where only small sections of large sheets are thus represented the lettering is often obscure, and sometimes illegible. We remember reading lately a series of humorous "Don'ts" which the American Library Association printed for mutual entertainment and edification, one of which was, "Don't try to find any convenient way to keep maps—there is none." Mr. Winsor may be so well aware of this that he has forsworn folding inserts; but what he gives us instead is so trying to the eyes, and so vexatious, that we hope he may effect some compromise with impossibility, in the event of succeeding volumes of this series. We also venture to think that better maps to illustrate modern geography could be found than such as those of Humphreys and Abbot (1861), which are already out of date, though they answer a certain purpose Mr. Winsor had in view.

The volume opens with the Mississippi Basin of the end of the seventeenth century—the date of Iberville's expedition, 1697-1700, which is the first to be treated in detail. Progress throughout the valley is traced in the next few chapters, which include accounts of Crozat and trade, and of the celebrated Mississippi Bubble of John Law, 1700–20. We are accustomed to the soldier, the trader, and the priest as the more or less unholy trinity of forces in the vanguard of discovery and occupation, but in this case the speculator or peculator was at their heels. Other chapter-heads will indicate, as clearly as can be done in equally few words, the author's further development of his theme. These are: The barriers of Louisiana, 1710-20; Charlevoix and his observations, 1720-29; the Appalachians, 1720-27; French, English, and Spanish rivalries, 1730-40; the search for the Sea of the West, 1727-53; war and truce, 1741-48; portals of the Ohio valley, 1740-49; Louisiana and its Indians, 1743-57; undeclared war, 1750 54; rival claimants for North America during the whole period from 1497 to 1755; anxieties and plans, 1754; the Alleghany portals, 1755; the two dismal years of 1756-57; the Ohio and St. Lawrence won, 1758-59; the transition from war to war, 1760-63; and the treaty of peace, 1763. While the movement of the narrative as a whole is thus historically consecutive, the several chapters overlap somewhat in dates, and are really in the nature of distinct though duly correlated essays upon various aspects or episodes of the whole subject. If these were not masterly, they would not be Mr. Winsor's. Furthermore, the work is protracted beyond the ostensible date of 1763, to point out the effect of the treaty upon the Indians in 1763-65; and concludes with completion of the occupation in 1764-65. The whole is carefully indexed with sufficient analysis of the contents to satisfy most readers, though this could easily, and perhaps with advantage, have been still more minutely elaborated.

Mr. Winsor's habitual precision of statement, as well as his direct and forcible style, is too well known to call for comment here. We find him working in his own best vein in this volume; and that best gives us the very pith of history, as we have already pointed out. If we miss some of those qualities which shine to great advantage in the works of other historians or histogeographers, we may remember that it is not given to all men to do all things; and that every human occasion,

even of seemingly unlimited possibilities, has its natural and necessary limitations.

The Life of the Spirit in the Modern English Poets. By Vida D. Scudder. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THE most general impression made by this book is of a theory, mainly preconceived, fortifying itself by whatever suits its purpose, with a blind eye for whatever is likely to prove intractable. With many good perceptions, often well expressed, the book as a whole is extremely piecemeal and diffuse, with fine words used with so little aptness that, were we to accept Max Nordau's tests of the insane degenerate, we should have to set Miss Scudder down as one. "Serene," for example, is a fine word, but it does not describe Robert Browning. A certain physical intensity of word and phrase is a conspicuous defect. Another and more serious is the drawing out or lopping off the poets to fit them to the general plan, whereby we lose all sense of their coherent personality. In one place we have an exposure of Clough's and Arnold's most sceptical negations, and in another their demand for action is set forth; but in neither place do we get the impression they give us in the mass. This is particularly true of Clough, whose scepticism affected the traditional Christianity very much more than the fundamentals of religion. The negative part of his great Easter poem is liberally quoted without a hint of the positive antiphony, and of the joyous courage of his "New Sinai" there is not a word. And why the long quotation from Browning's "Saul" in proof of his robust assurance of a future life, and no reference to "La Saisiaz," a much later poem, of which the essence is that a robust assurance of a future life is not what we want, seeing that "dead certainties" are not the meat on which religion feeds? There is some atonement, however, for this perversity in the frank allowance of the unquestionable immorality of "Fifine at the Fair": "The boyish animalism of the earlier Don Juan is almost innocent beside the specious, intellectualized sensuality of Fifine." Certainly some allowance should be made for the dramatic quality of the poem, but Browning is always treated here as if he were speaking deliberately for himself. There is a chapter on Browning as a humorist, but when Miss Scudder would show how he was one, her habitual fulness of quotation suddenly runs dry. Her claim that Browning's verse is jog-trot or a splendid pace, according to the informing thought, is manifestly absurd, and equally so what is meant—not what is said—of Browning on p. 232: "The whole of Byron and of Clough might be comprehended in his vast product, and the world would miss no element contributed to human thought."

Miss Scudder finds in Democracy and Science and the Historic Past the forces that have done most to mould the English poetry of the century. Many of her illustrations are valuable, but some have no solidity; the things quoted might have been written just as well in the last century as in this. This is particularly true of the feeling for the past, except in so far as it has been affected by the romantic reaction from the Revolution. It has been unscientific, anti-scientific; and of the evolutionary conception of the past taken up into the present the signs in poetry have been few and far between. That Wordsworth should be assigned a chapter as a representative of the New Democracy will strike the reader as an amusing paradox; but Miss Scudder contends that his early democracy persisted through the formal Toryism of his later years, the truth behind her statement being that he never ceased to be humane. "Ideals of Redemption, Mediæval and Modern," is an elaborate but not very fruitful comparison of Dante's epic with Spenser's 'Faerie Queen' and Shelley's 'Prometheus Unbound.' Shelley is better understood by studying the politics and religion he revolted from than by comparing him with poets three and six centuries away.

Arnold and Clough, having served their turn as Neo-Pagans, are called back as Poets of Doubt. As for Rossetti, Miss Scudder finds in him "a spirituality more fervent and more absolute than is to be found elsewhere in our modern poets," and then it occurs to her that he wrote the "House of Life." On the other hand, a lovely sonnet convinces her that he was one of the faithful, especially as "on his deathbed he called for a priest to absolve him from his sins." She thinks "the instability of religion founded not on conviction but on emotion could not be more clearly shown" than by the sequence of Rossetti, Swinburne, and Morris. By "conviction," rational conviction is no doubt intended. But she reserves Tennyson and Browning for the climax of her argument, and these were much more emotional than rational in the quality of their conviction. The fine phrases with which she concludes have no sufficient justification in the course of her discussion. "From pantheism towards Christianity, this is the spiritual pilgrimage of our modern English poets." This is immoral rhetoric, "Christianity" meaning for the writer something very different from what it means in common speech and something less positive than Wordsworth explicitly, and Shelley implicitly, affirmed. Of course the separation of English from American poets in a study of this sort is purely arbitrary, but it is evident that but for this separation the working out of the preconceived idea would have been hardly possible.

Progress in Language, with special reference to English. By Otto Jespersen. Macmillan & Co.

THIS notable volume consists of a series of essays on certain general linguistic problems and on certain specifically English matters. The thread that loosely binds them is the fact that the developments of the English constructions are regarded by the author as illustrations of his chief contention, namely, that the general tendency of linguistic development is in the line of progress and not of degeneration. The author is professor of English in the University of Copenhagen; he is perhaps best known as the deviser of an ingenious system of sound-notation, but is active in various fields of linguistic research. He has enjoyed the thorough training of the modern philologist, but does not limit himself to the beaten track. He finds fresher fields—for example, the development of modern English—still unworked and yet full of lessons for the philologist. To him philology is not all in all, but simply one of the phases of human development and at times best studied by a general view of the whole; he is therefore ready to make use of the methods and results of kindred sciences. Moreover, he is an independent and able thinker, and the reading of the book impresses one like a fresh breeze through a musty lecture-room.

Jespersen recognizes the fact that some elements of language may be due to the phenomena upon which the "bow-wow," the "pooh-pooh," and other theories are based; but he believes that the larger part of human speech is a development of a playful utterance of meaningless sounds like the ceaseless humming and crooning of a baby. "Thoughts were not the first things to press forward and crave expression; emotions and instincts were both much more primitive and far more powerful. . . . As is the art of writing to primitive painting, so is the art of speaking to primitive singing. In primitive picture-writing, each sign meant a whole sentence or even more—the image of a situation or of an incident being given as a whole; this developed into an ideographic writing of each word by itself," and this into syllabic and later alphabetic writing. Similarly "the history of language shows us a progressive tendency towards analyzing into smaller and smaller units that which in the earlier stages was taken as an inseparable whole." This turns current conceptions upside down, and with such force and logic as to rouse those who have settled down comfortably on the root theory to a thorough reconsideration of the subject. Still, after all, one has the feeling that Jespersen, like his predecessors, has supplied a theory that will account for but a portion of human speech. The problem is still far off in the misty past; and we should not forget that speech must have begun before man was really man.

In harmony with his theory as to the origin of speech is his conception of its later development:

> "The evolution of language shows a progressive tendency from inseparable irregular conglomerations to freely and regularly combinable short elements. . . . The so-called full and rich forms of the ancient languages are not a beauty but a deformity. The fewer and shorter the forms, the better; the analytic structure of modern European languages is so far from being a drawback to them that it gives them an unimpeachable superiority over the earlier stages of the same languages."

Granting the truth of this statement, we may still reasonably ask whether it should be put in this absolute form. While modern English, with its simple forms and its relations largely to be inferred, is best for a highly developed race, may not the elaborate inflectional system of the Bantus, which supplies each word with a grammatical reminder of its relation to other words, be a more perfect one for minds that cannot easily remember details or forecast relations between them?

The chapters on the development of English constitute a scholarly and largely original treatment of an exceedingly interesting, but much neglected, subject. Like all modern scholars, Jespersen scorns to use the Norman Conquest as an all-sufficient explanation of the changes that English underwent between the Old and the Middle English periods, and perceives that the general tendency of the language would have been the same even if William the Conqueror had never crossed the Channel. Dr. Murray's statement that "the total loss of grammatical gender in English and the almost complete disappearance of cases are purely phonetic phenomena," he would, however, modify so as to recognize the activity of analogy; but in this and some related matters his reasoning is not quite as satisfactory as usual.

The chapters on the group genitive (the Queen of England's power, etc.) and on case-shifting are excellent. The author over-emphasizes, however, the influence of *he*, *she*, *we*, etc., in encouraging the use of *me* and *thee* (among the Quakers, etc.) for *I* and *thou*. "It's us" is surely not less common than "It's me," except as the expression is less often

called for; and "It's ye" yielded entirely to "It's you." Nor is the confusion of weak (unstressed) forms of *you* and *ye*, *thou* and *thee*, admissible as an element in the displacement of the nominative by the accusative; for in the two cases the exactly opposite phonetic change took place. The explanation lies wholly in the tendency to use the objective after the verb, no matter whether object or predicate; and this is proved by the fact that the *you* drove out *ye* after the verb before it did so before the verb. In the 'Royster Doyster' it supplants *ye* after the verb more than one-fourth of the time, but before it only one-nineteenth. To the new plurals (*you folks*, *you chaps*, etc.) of singular *you*, might be added "you all," which has become one word in parts of the South—*you'll* and *y'all*.

Harvard Stories. By Waldron Kintzing Post. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

The Ways of Yale. By Henry A. Beers. Henry Holt & Co. 1895.

Yale Yarns. By John Seymour Wood. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

Princeton Stories. By Jesse Lynch Williams. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THIS college literature seems to be written under a considerable sense of difficulty and responsibility. In some form or other each of these collectors of college legends apologizes for the inevitable shortcomings of his work, points out insuperable obstacles, or shuts the mouth of criticism by appealing to the judgment of those who have been part of the life described, and may be trusted to read with partial eyes. The plain reader who never went to college, or who went to some other college, is pretty frankly warned that his judgment is of no account. And yet, whenever these stories fail to please the plain man or the other "grad," they fail outright. It is only when they escape from the bonds of the local and particular that they really succeed, and this is shown by the fact that the story from the Harvard collection, "In the Early Sixties," is easily the best of that set, and in tone and temper strongly resembles "Chums Over in Old South," from 'Yale Yarns.' Both deal with the experiences of the "old grad." during the civil war, and claim for their colleges essentially the same qualities of simple affection and devotion to duty that make heroism—or college spirit, as you choose to name it or the occasion demands. The same tone is struck in the best of the 'Princeton Stories,' "The Winning of the Cane," although here the setting is all undergraduate and the local color vivid. All the stories seem to be written, too, with a feeling that there is danger of making too much of athletics, and that other phases of college life exist at once interesting and remunerative.

Comparison between the collections is in the nature of the case unavoidable. As far as subject-matter goes, all except 'The Ways of Yale' are strongly representative. Professor Beers has not rid himself enough of his cap and gown. There is a winnowed, sifted quality in his work that puts it in a class by itself as literature about college instead of college literature. The Harvard stories present very distinct types of men. The touch is much more certain in their portrayal, the pitch much more even. The 'Yale Yarns' occasionally strike a note of affectation. The types described are curiously tentative, and seem to the impartial reader both romantic and fictitious. The most vital interest of Yale life that lends itself to description is a joke. It would doubtless be well if "With the Dwight Hall Heelers" and "The 'Dwarf's' Prom," with their just and admirable sentiment, rang as true as "In the Toils of the Enemy" and "A Violent Remedy." But they do not.

The writer of 'Princeton Stories' has profited much by the literary example of Rudyard Kipling. His constructive method is throughout high. The sentiments expressed are often surprising, and the life described curiously crude and unorganized; but the stories are remarkably well told, and apparently with less fear of the public than are the others. It is undoubtedly true, too, that they touch more aspects of college life. The three called "Hero Worship," "The Responsibility of Lawrence," and "Fixing that Freshman," deal, among other things, with the enthusiastic devotion of younger men for older ones. It may be remarked in passing that here is a valuable contribution to the psychology of the subject; for it is often insisted that no such relation exists among college men, but is peculiar to women in girls' boarding-schools, colleges, and nunneries. The results are lacking in conclusiveness, and the relation is throughout vague and indecisive. It is an atmosphere hovering around a group of young men whose minds are plastic and impressible about all sorts of things, from neckties to creeds. In this they are probably not different from young men out of college, and this the narrator recognizes; but the element he tries to supply, and the one that undoubtedly exists, is a combination of tradition and impulse, of irrational college etiquette and equally irrational personal impulse, without which there would be very few stories in the college or any other world.

And on the whole this college world has been very fairly represented. It is, after all, a world of shreds and patches, like the bigger one it is supposed to preface, only the shreds and patches are open to wider and easier combination than they are later. Sudden conversions are always part of the programme here. The Prince of Darkness is a gentleman, and low profanity is supposed to be dropped with freshman year. And here, apparently, has been one of the awkward responsibilities imposed by circumstances on the writers of these stories. As Mr. Wood puts it in his preface: "Aside from the cheek of the young maiden which may not be incarnadined under any consideration, and the maiden aunt who sees an utter lack of refinement in the daily student life, there is the old grad., who says it isn't as it was in *his* days, and the undergrad., who maintains it isn't as it is in *his!*"

How much profanity, slang, and indecency must be suggested or reported to give a satisfactory picture of the college man in his college world? The general impression left by all these stories is that the college man is an amazingly good fellow, but that there is a certain toughening of his moral fibre to be gained by a system of social athletics like the physical training and accompanying experience of football and crew. The betting, swearing, drunken tough who has still at bottom the possibilities of an honorable gentleman—or, more accurately, the honorable gentleman who temporarily assumes the manners of a tough—is indubitably fascinating to the college imagination. His good qualities seem more resplendent after their temporary eclipse, perhaps; his character richer and more complex; his control of a vocabulary even more defined. But it is all a mistake. The best athletic stories are not those most generously peppered with "blankety blanks"; the men of greatest originality in slang and profanity are not the most interesting. They are not most interesting even after the prestidigitator has removed the hat and handkerchief and shown you the honest heart beating warmly there all the time.

The conscious effort to keep athletics out of the stories is unavailing—as all such forethought must be. The real question is: "Shall the true or the false ideal of athletics prevail?" Shall the law of theatrical contrast or of sane development govern expression and life? And these stories, marred as they undoubtedly are now and then by the acceptance of the false ideal, after all witness by their successful appeal to the old manly virtues of truth, sobriety, and self-control, to the abiding worth of the true ideal. The Harvard stories present types, to the Yale man belong his jokes, the Princetonian goes with his section, but there are the same old cardinal virtues, and a dog-story or a prize-fight is more interesting from a gentleman's point of view and in our mother tongue.

Lees of Virginia. 1642–1892. Biographical and Genealogical Sketches of the Descendants of Col. Richard Lee, with brief notices of the related families of Allerton, Armistead, Ashton, Aylett, Bedinger, Beverley, Bland, Bolling, Carroll, Carter, Chambers, Corbin, Custis, Digges, Fairfax, Fitzhugh, Gardner, Grymes, Hanson, Jennings, Jones, Ludwell, Marshall, Mason, Page, Randolph, Shepherd, Shippen, Tabb, Taylor, Turberville, Washington, and others. Edited and published by Edmund Jenning Lee, M.D. Philadelphia. 1895. Large 8vo, pp. 586.

THE dimensions of this book, as well as its title page, indicate that it is almost a compendium of Virginian genealogy. In the preface Dr. Lee gives the credit of collecting the material to his brother, the late Cassius F. Lee, who, in connection with Joseph Packard, jr., published a brief record of the family in 1870. The bibliography of Virginian families, notably in the case of the Washington and Lee families, shows that the family traditions of the South are not more exact than those of New England. It is only within the past five years that the true pedigree of the American Washingtons has been put on a sound basis. In regard to the Lee family, various claims have been made, only to be disproved. In 1868 Mr. E. C. Mead published a genealogy of the Lees which was deservedly criticised in these columns and its evident errors exposed. This led to the serious examination made by Messrs. C. F. Lee and J. Packard, printed in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. At this time, both in this country and in England, investigators were misled by the name "Ditchley," given to one of the Lee plantations in Virginia. The emigrant, Col. Richard Lee, was identified with a younger brother of Sir Henry Lee of Ditchley. Moreover, Sir Robert Lee (father of Sir Henry) was of Stratford Langton, and the emigrant termed himself in his will as "lately of Strafford Langton." Such coincidences seemed conclusive. But, in 1890, Mr. J. Henry Lea of Fairhaven, Mass., an American genealogist, visited England in order to trace all possible emigrants of the name, and he soon proved that Sir Robert's son's birth was too early for him to be the emigrant, and furthermore, by the strongest evidence of family papers, entails of estates, etc., that this Richard died young. Mr.

J. H. Lea also found various Lees of that period at Strafford Langton and the adjoining parish of Stepney.

At this point consideration was given again to family traditions and records, which resulted in the following data. In 1682, John Gibbon, an officer of Heralds' College, printed a book on heraldry, in which he stated that in 1659 he lived in Virginia with Col. Richard Lee, and adds: "Neither will I omit his arms, being Gules, a fesse chequy *or*, between eight billets argent, being descended from the Lees of Shropshire, etc." This evidence is of the greatest force.

John Lee, oldest son of the emigrant, was of Queen's College, Oxford, in 1658–1662; and in the former year he presented to his college a silver cup, still preserved, with an inscription terming himself "filius primogenitus Richardi Lee Chiliarchæ, oriundi de Morton Regis in Agro Salopiensi." It bears the Lee arms, as above, and the arms of the college.

Richard Lee, second son of the emigrant, was buried in Virginia, A.D. 1714, aged sixty-eight years. Bishop Meade ('Old Churches,' ii., 152) prints the Latin inscription on his tomb which terms him, "Filii Richardi Lee, generosi et antiqua familia, in Morton-Regis in comitatu Salopiensi oriundi."

With this early and positive evidence in view, it is useless to add the opinions of later generations to the same effect, the authority lessening with each descent. It is strong enough to justify family claims. But though the general claim of descent may be good, no one has yet identified the father of the emigrant. The younger sons of the gentry are rarely traced by the heralds, and the Lees of Virginia must wait until some fortunate chance shall supply the necessary evidence.

Col. Richard Lee, the emigrant, was evidently a strong and successful adventurer, leaving large estates to his children. He had two daughters and six sons, but of the latter only three left male issue. These were Richard of the Stratford line, Hancock of the Ditchley line, and Charles of the Cobbs' Hall line. All of the more distinguished bearers of the name have been of the eldest or Stratford line, from President Thomas Lee of the colony to the patriots of the Revolution and the leaders in the late rebellion. The junior branches seem to have remained in the rank of planters, and not to have become especially prominent. Hence the evident difficulty of tracing these lines, which, besides, do not seem to have been prolific.

The plan of this volume is not very systematic, but is sufficiently clear. In every generation the wife's family is considered in greater or less detail, and in this way the promise of the title-page is made good. The daughters and their descendants are treated with varying liberality, but doubtless to the satisfaction of many Virginians, who will herein trace endless cousinships. There are many copies of old deeds and wills, and the volume is very creditable to the compilers. A few tabular pedigrees of the male lines would be useful. It is to be hoped that the example set in this book and in Hayden's 'Virginia Genealogies' will be copied by other Southern families. The precision of dates and the sobriety of the biographies are features which call for our warmest recognition.

Plutarch's Lives of the Noble Grecians and Romans. Englished by Sir Thomas North, anno 1579, with an introduction by George Wyndham. Vols. I. and II. [Vols. VII. and VIII. of the Tudor Translations.] London: D. Nutt. 1895.

BACON, in his celebrated classification of books, has omitted one class, and that the chief—the books that are to be loved. And if ever a book has been loved by men, and taken to their hearts, it is this incomparable gallery of living portraits, written by an otherwise obscure scholar, in a little Theban town, when the glory of Greece had departed. We say "otherwise obscure," not forgetting that the 'Lives' compose only one-half of Plutarch's work that has descended to our time; but who thinks of Plutarch except as the author of the 'Lives'? Modern critics may complain of a lack of historical perspective; but in what modern historian of Greece and Rome do we see the two great dramas of their national life stand out so vividly as in these pictures of the chief actors? Both Greece and Rome have produced masterpieces of many kinds, but of this particular kind nothing to equal the 'Lives' of Plutarch.

And the book has had a singular measure of good fortune. Early in the classical revival, Plutarch fell into the hands of one of the world's greatest translators, Jacques Amyot, who, besides possessing a wonderful natural gift of style, lived at a time when his language had a raciness, simplicity, strength, and color which were partly lost in the more polished age that followed. More accurate versions—perhaps; for Amyot is wonderfully accurate—and more elegant ones, according to the canons of taste that rate Johnes's Froissart more elegant than Lord Berners's, have been made since; but it was Amyot who gave Plutarch to the modern world and made it a household book.

The second good fortune of the book was that Amyot's version fell into the hands of Sir Thomas North, who had the gift of Elizabethan prose as Amyot had that of the prose of Montaigne. What gives a peculiar charm to North's translation is his conception of a translator's duty. It is not his business, he thinks, to turn Plutarch's Greek, or Amyot's French, into English, but to tell in his own English a story that Plutarch has told in Greek. Plutarch, speaking of the satisfaction of a Veientian at the overflow of Lake Albanus, which bid fair to raise the Roman siege, says, "He was overjoyed and mocked at the siege." North says: "He was as mery as a pye at the matter." Plutarch says of Brennus, when Camillus refused to pay the ransom, "He was exasperated at this and recommenced hostilities." North: "These words made Brennus madde as a March hare, that out wente his blade." But indeed North was a man who wrote such prose that Shakspere embodied whole sentences and periods of it in his noblest poetry, and we do not perceive the seam. For it was to this noble translator of a noble translation that Shakspere turned to revive in his imagination the life of Greece, and especially Rome, and not merely for facts, as he turned to Hall or Holinshed. As Mr. Wyndham, the editor, says, "Shakspere is saturated with North's language, and possessed by its passion." He "not only copies North's picture, but he uses North's palette." His "Timon," "Julius Cæsar," "Coriolanus," and "Antony and Cleopatra" are taken from North, often in his very words. No other book has he so honored. So we have here Plutarch's third and crowning felicity, in being revived and re-immortalized in the soul of Shakspere.

We cannot close this too brief notice without a word of praise for the most admirable, full, and luminous introduction by the editor. Of the excellent series to which it belongs—the "Tudor Translations"—we have already spoken.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Across the Common after Wild Flowers. T. Nelson & Sons.
Alden, Mrs. G. R. What They Couldn't: A Home Story. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co.
Allen, Grant. The Story of the Plants. Appletons. 40 cents.
Alison, A. Europe from the French Revolution to the Fall of Napoleon, 1785–1815. Arranged by Edward S. Gould. Students' ed. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Appletons' General Guide to the United States and Canada. 1895. Appletons. $2.50.
Around a Cornfield in a Ramble after Wild Flowers. T. Nelson & Sons.
A Stroll on a Marsh in Search of Wild Flowers. T. Nelson & Sons.
Bonjean, Georges. Enfants Révoltés et Parents Coupables. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Bourinot, J. G. How Canada is Governed. Toronto: The Copp, Clark Co., Limited.
Bradley, A. G. Wolfe. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Brooke, Rev. S. A. The Golden Book of Coleridge. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Brown, Alice. Meadow-Grass: Tales of New England Life. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Schiller's Maria Stuart. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Burdeau, Auguste. Une Evasion (Souvenirs de 1871). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Burgess, Gilbert. The Love-Letters of Mr. H. and Miss R. 1775—1779. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Cargill, J. F. A Freak in Finance: Answer to 'Coin's Financial School.' Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Carus, P. The Gospel of Buddha. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co.
Coleridge, S. T. Rime of the Ancient Mariner, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Collar, W. C. The New Gradatim. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Cornish, C. J. The Isle of Wight. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] Macmillan.
Daudet, Alphonse. Fromont, Jr., and Risler, Sr. Rand, McNally & Co.
Davis, Ethel. Dishonesty and Caste. Home Science Publishing Co. 60 cents.
Dole, N. H. On the Point: A Summer Idyl. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.
Douglas, Prof. R. K. Li Hung Chang. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Easton, Prof. M. W. Readings in Gower. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gagnon, Philéas. Essai de Bibliographie Canadienne. Quebec: The Author.
Gissing, George. In the Year of Jubilee. Appletons. $1.00.
Grindon, L. H. The Sexuality of Nature. Boston: Massachusetts New-Church Union. 75 cents.
Gruelle, R. B. Notes, Critical and Biographical. Collection of W. T. Walters. Boston: J. M. Bowles.
Guerber, H. A. Legends of the Rhine. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Hall, H. S., and Knight, S. R. Algebra for Beginners. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Kittredge, Prof. G. L. Observations on the Language of Chaucer's Troilus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $4.
Lamb, Prof. Horace. Hydrodynamics. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $6.25.
Martell, Comtesse de. A Gallic Girl. Brentanos.
Master Wilberforce: The Study of a Boy. Putnams. $1.
Maupassant, G. de. Messalina's Daughter. Chicago: Jewett & Buchanan.
Meirion, Ellinor. Cause and Effect. Putnams. 75 cents.
Nixon, O. N. How Marcus Whitman Saved Oregon. Chicago: Star Publishing Co. $1.75.
Oldroyd, O. H. Words of Lincoln. Washington, D. C.: The Author. $1.
Otis, James. How Tommy Saved the Barn. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Palmer, Gen. H. S. Letters from the Land of the Rising Sun. Yokohama: *Japan Mail*.
Peterson, W. The Speech of Cicero in Defence of Cluentius. Macmillan. $1 50.
Rhys, Ernest. The Lyric Poems of Shelley. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Roberts, Prof. W. R. The Ancient Bœotians. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Rozane, Jeanne. Maldonne. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Sampson, C. A. Strength. Rand McNally & Co.
Scripture, E. W. Thinking, Feeling, Doing. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.50.
Scully, W. C. Kafir Stories. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Sergeant, Adeline. The Mistress of Quest. Appletons. $1.00.
Sharp, Evelyn. At the Relton Arms. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Smith, J. E. A. The Poet among the Hills: Oliver Wendell Holmes in Berkshire. Pittsfield, Mass.: George Blatchford.
Strange Secrets. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Swettenham, F. A. Malay Sketches. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Taylor, Frank. Ad Sodales. Oxford: B. A. Blackwell.
The Divine Life in the Church: Scottish Church Society Conferences. Second Series. 2 vols. Edinburgh: J. Gardner Hitt.
Thomson, E. W. Old Man Savarin, and Other Stories. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Through the Copse: Another Ramble after Flowers. T. Nelson & Sons.
Tiffany, F. B. Handbook of the Law of Sales. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Tompkins, Elizabeth K. Her Majesty: A Romance of To-Day. Putnams. $1.
Van Oss, S. F. Stock Exchange Values: A Decade of Finance, 1885 to 1895. London: Effingham Wilson.
Vollers, K. The Modern Egyptian Dialect of Arabic. Cambridge: University Press: New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. The Story of Bessie Costrell. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Watts, H. E. Don Quixote. Vol. IV. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
White, P. Mr. Bailey-Martin. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Wiley, F. B. The Harvard Guide-Book. Cambridge: C. W. Sever. 50 cents.
Zangwill, I. The Old Maids' Club. Lovell, Coryell & Co.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 1, 1895.

The Week.

SECRETARY SMITH is fighting for honest money as sturdily in Georgia as Secretary Carlisle fought in Kentucky, and his campaign promises to be equally successful. His closing reference to President Cleveland in his speech on Tuesday week was received with "tumultuous applause," and he himself was honored by a rising vote of thanks, in which every auditor joined. It is not improbable that the former attitude of both Secretaries towards the silver question increases the force of their present arguments. As a mere matter of curiosity, people are interested in hearing a man explain his changed convictions. Undoubtedly there is a certain prejudice to be overcome by any statesman when he shifts his ground. But this prejudice, like other presumptions, may be rebutted by evidence. No one can claim to be always right, and the "doubtful virtue of consistency" needs to be supported by arguments. The consistent man needs only to say that he is of the same opinion still; but the man who changes must give his reasons. One of the most remarkable instances of the enthusiasm aroused and the power exerted by a change so justified was that of Gladstone when he came out in favor of home rule for Ireland. He went perhaps too far in denouncing those of his former companions who did not so clearly see the error of their ways, but he unquestionably satisfied the mass of the English people that he was conscientious in his course, if he did not altogether convince them of its wisdom. It is common to attribute such alterations in the opinions of public men to low motives, and there are not wanting those who assert that Secretaries Carlisle and Smith preferred their offices to their convictions. The proper answer to such charges is to be found in the reasons by which these men defend their course. As in the case of Gladstone, these reasons are sufficiently cogent to satisfy the public of the honesty of those who present them, and they appear to be as effective in changing the minds of the auditors as they have been in the case of the speakers.

In his treatment of the act of 1873, Secretary Smith displayed excellent judgment. For nearly a week Horr and Harvey had been banging and whacking each other at Chicago with this act and the literature that has grown up about it, until it really looked as if their debate would close before they began to discuss the silver question. Secretary Smith was too wise to lead his audience away into an inquiry as to the probity of Congress and Congressmen a quarter of a century ago. He dismissed the subject with a word. "It would be folly," he said, "to bring on disastrous consequences for the simple satisfaction of repealing a law improperly passed." Nothing could be more sensible than to take this course, and to confine the attention of his hearers, as the Secretary did, to the undisputed facts of history, and especially to the failure of the panacea of cheap money. Every panic, he observed, has developed a party in favor of bad money, but with returning prosperity the party has died. Relief from panics has always come through restoration of confidence, not through bad money. We trust that Secretary Smith will make a thorough canvass of the State of Georgia, and have little doubt that, if he will do so, that State will follow the example of Kentucky. The country is to be congratulated upon the revival of the excellent political custom of having the leaders of the Administration address the people on great questions of public policy. This practice gives the political campaigns in England their universal interest, and tends to improve the character and the policy of any administration that adopts it.

The political bosses of New York on the Republican side appear to be quite unanimous in favor of Gov. Morton for the Presidency. Even the head boss is quoted as saying that he is for Morton if Morton is a candidate. All this is very easily understood. If Gov. Morton is in the list of candidates, and they are not for him, they will soon cease to be bosses in New York. They have not been able to control him, and therefore they do not like him. They intended that he should belong to them; but when he asserted his independence, presto! they belonged to him. They supposed that they had bagged him, but the reverse process took place. It is in this way that their unanimity is accounted for. The situation is very much as it was when Cleveland was Governor in 1883. As soon as it was clearly perceived that his office was exercised for the public interest, regardless of Tammany Hall, or any other hall, or clique, or "magnate," he became the master, and all the rest became his unwilling servants. Gov. Morton's hold on the rank and file of the Republican party in the State is greater than Platt's ever was, and it is due mainly to the fact that he has been his own man, and not Platt's man, since he has been in office. This is an easy way to arrive at leadership in one's party. The wonder is that so few are able to see it.

The Republican canvass in this State opens in a most encouraging way. The first contests over seats in the next Senate occur in two districts which have been represented by tools of Platt, and in each case the defeat of boss rule is assured. The nominations have not yet been made in the Utica and Saratoga districts, but the local committee of Oneida County and the county convention for Saratoga County met on Monday and Tuesday week respectively, and proved to be overwhelmingly against the renomination of Coggeshall and Donaldson. Wire-pulling and pipe-laying were found to be of no avail when the people took interest enough in the matter to turn out to the primaries. The truth is, as the *Tribune* says, that the State machine "is nothing but a shell and a sham," and that the Republican voters can crush it whenever they feel so disposed. If the spirit manifested in Oneida and Saratoga prevails throughout the State, Platt can be unloaded and Republicans elected to the Legislature who will take their orders from the people, instead of from the boss.

Deacon Richard Smith waves a large alarm flag about Ohio in the *Tribune*. Whoever may be elected Governor, he seems to think it more than likely that the Democrats will carry the Legislature and elect a United States Senator. Of course, the Republican is the truly virtuous party in Ohio, but, not to put too fine a point upon it, it sent a precious lot of rascals to the last Legislature. They violated their pledges, ran up the local indebtedness of the State by $8,000,000, and made the taxes so high that "there is a great deal of unrest and party lukewarmness." Then, Senator Brice is pursuing a most nefarious policy to beat them. He actually proposes to get a "strong man" to run for Governor, and, worse and worse, is going to insist that strong men shall be nominated for the Legislature, "especially in districts that may be considered debatable." Against such underhand tactics it would be hard for the purest party in the world to stand up—especially when its own scoundrels demand a renomination, strong men or no strong men. Mr. Smith thinks the prejudice of Hamilton County voters in favor of Mr. Brice's candidates, who are to be "business men in touch with the industries of the State," may be such as to elect a solid Democratic delegation. The city of Cleveland may go the same way. But he cheers us at the end with the prediction that "whatever may happen in Ohio this year," the electoral vote of the State will be cast in 1897 for the Republican candidate, "whoever he may be." A strong man may carry Ohio for the Democracy in an off year, but in Presidential elections the Republican label is enough.

The latest advices from the Bannock country indicate that the sensational

despatches printed in Saturday morning's newspapers were the joint product of an overburdened conscience and an elastic imagination. The Indians were simply accused of doing what everybody in and about Jackson's Hole regarded as the most natural thing for them to do in retaliation for the brutal killing of their unarmed companions last week. It may be set down as evidence of a forbearance most amiable and praiseworthy, but new to the Indian character, if the beleaguered settlers are relieved by Gen. Coppinger's command before any more bloodshed occurs. The attempt to becloud public judgment in the East by an outcry about the violation of the game laws of the State of Wyoming by the Indians is quite consistent with the general policy of the frontiersman toward the Indian. The game laws of the State of Wyoming are very sacred ordinances when an Indian is the transgressor; but the white cowboy, trapper, or guide may play football with them to his heart's content, and nobody ventures to shoot him down for it. Yet the white man is bound by those laws, whereas the Indian enjoys treaty privileges outside of them, granted to him by the United States Government long before Wyoming became a State or had taken the first step towards becoming one. The whole miserable business of the last three weeks, viewed strictly by the light of the statements which the settlers themselves and their friends have published, shows a deliberate purpose on their part to stir up a strife which would either cause the removal of their red neighbors to a distance, or induce the War Department to plant a military post "where it will do the most good"—to the Jackson's Hole gentry who have something to sell. It would be wise for the Government, before lending itself to either of these schemes, to inquire when and how the residents of the Hole acquired such an interest in the unsurveyed public lands of the United States as gives them any better right than the Indians to seek subsistence there.

The organ of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia notes the formation of a Tariff Commission League, whose object is to take the tariff out of politics and make it a business affair entirely. The organ says that this cannot be done, and here we are inclined to agree with it. Nevertheless, we think that the public mind is just now in a mood to try the plan which the Tariff Commission League has in view. The people have had rather too much of tariff argumentation dinned into their ears during the past decade, and would like to try something else for a change. Moreover, they feel the necessity of settling the money question, and since they cannot have two great questions at once, they will let the tariff take second place for two or three years at all events. When the money question is settled, however, it is very likely that the tariff will come up again, since nothing can prevent the people from voting upon anything which affects their pockets. What shape the next tariff debate will take and what interest will be uppermost, cannot be predicted now. The course of trade and industry during the ensuing two years will have the greatest influence in determining that question. If trade continues to revive and flourish, the McKinleyites will not have much chance in the next national Republican convention, and still less at the ensuing election.

The explanations of the present strike of the tailors in this city are very conflicting. Apparently they desire to extend the power of their trade-union, so that no one who does not belong to it shall be allowed to work, and the employers wish to prevent the establishment of such a tyranny. To accomplish their end the tailors demand that the "walking delegate" shall have access to the shops and be allowed to examine the employers' books, and the employers are naturally unwilling to concede this. The tailors demand that fifty-nine hours shall constitute the labor week, and that laborers shall be paid according to time and not according to product, while the employers insist that they must pay wages according to product, and not according to the time which may be consumed in production. There is nothing peculiar in these demands and counter-demands. The principles involved here come up in almost every trade dispute. But the contention is made that the abolition of the "sweat-shop" is involved. A "sweat-shop" is nothing but an apartment small in relation to the number of its occupants, who are engaged in making clothing. Now it is very evident that we cannot undertake to prohibit people from sewing in their own homes. No system of inspection could accomplish that, and no court would sanction it. All that can be attempted is the prevention of overcrowding, and even this is of very doubtful practicability. Our fathers sinned in tolerating the tenement-house system, which necessarily accumulates more human beings to the acre than can well live in such close quarters. But the tenements are here, and unless we are prepared to pull them down they will continue to be occupied and to be overcrowded.

The truth about the "sweating" system, both here and in London, is simply this: The barbarous policy of Russia towards her Jewish subjects resulted in the emigration of large numbers of very degraded and very helpless people to London and New York. These people were accustomed to very low wages, very poor fare, and very wretched shelter. They at once entered into competition with workmen accustomed to higher wages and better living, with the inevitable result of a lowering of the average standard. As a matter of fact, there is no doubt that these much-pitied workmen in the sweat-shops are a great deal better off than they ever were before. There is abundant testimony to the effect that they are steadily and rapidly improving their condition. But so long as their standard remains as low as it is, it will be a scandal in American eyes, and give rise to incessant agitation. If we had to deal only with the present supply of degraded foreign immigrants, the problem would not be insoluble. They would presently become Americanized and insist successfully on getting as good wages as the market justified. But the trouble is, that there is nothing to hinder the influx of another wave of "the pauper labor of Europe," and then the same difficulty will recur. It is a mistake to suppose that the "sweat shop" is anything more than a symptom. It might be extinguished without affecting the course of the disease. Nevertheless, our country has somehow done an almost incredible work in elevating the poor and oppressed of other lands—a work so far surpassing all reasonable expectations that we may well hesitate to suspend our hospitality.

The Missouri Legislature passed an act in 1893 which forbade any employer to make an agreement with any workman that the latter should withdraw from any lawful organization, or refrain from joining such organization. Employers were also prohibited from coercing workmen into withdrawing from such organizations or requiring them to abstain from attending any meeting of people held for lawful purposes. A violation of this act was made a criminal offence, punishable with fine or imprisonment or both. This statute has been declared unconstitutional by the unanimous opinion of the Supreme Court. The court holds that the Legislature undertook to make a crime of the exercise of the constitutional right of terminating a contract—one of the essential attributes of property. It holds the statute unconstitutional also on the ground that it attempts to limit the right to make or to terminate a contract with particular persons of a class, and is therefore a special and not a general law. As Judge Cooley has observed, "every one has a right to demand that he be governed by general rules, and a special statute which, without his consent, singles his case out as one to be regulated by a different law from that which is applied in all similar cases, would not be legitimate legislation, but would be such an arbitrary mandate as is not within the province of free government." Doubtless the fanatical believers in trade-unions will bewail this decision, but it is unquestionably a necessary one. The statute which it nullifies would make it impossible for a railroad to prevent its trainmen from quitting work in a body to attend a circus or a Sunday-school picnic. It would prevent corporations from

objecting to membership in organizations such as that controlled by the miserable Debs, which avow principles subversive of all order and discipline. It might even prevent a mistress from restraining a giddy maid-servant from attending Sunday excursions or midnight dances of a legal but demoralizing character. Such legislation as this is for the best interest neither of employers nor of laborers, and it is opposed to the true interests of trade-unions themselves. The permanent welfare of these organizations depends on their abandoning all claim to legal discrimination in their favor.

Of all the good things Secretary Morton has done since he took charge of the Department of Agriculture none will commend him to the gratitude of sensible people more than the death-blow he has dealt the notorious "seed division." Apart wholly from the technical question of the legality of the annual seed distribution conducted for so many years, the use made of the seeds was scandalous. Members of Congress employed them, not for the promotion of scientific experiments, but to buy votes or allay hostility in their home constituencies. The division where the seeds were prepared for mailing was kept from under the civil-service rules so that it could be used as a sort of "emergency hospital" for the temporary relief of those poor victims of the patronage habit who were too inefficient to get employment in private life and too ignorant to pass the simplest of the examinations. It has been, for a generation past, a stench in the nostrils of every lover of good government, and it would have remained unchanged for an indefinite period longer but for the fact that we have for once a Secretary of Agriculture with the courage of his convictions. A most unusual incident of this abolition of a Government division is the warm approval of the step given by its chief, Mr. M. E. Fagan, who loses his position through the Secretary's action. Instead of raising a hue and cry over his decapitation, he has written the Secretary congratulating him on what he has done, and saying that his own experience has shown him that "no reasonable excuse could be offered in behalf of the continuance of the division."

The "scramble for gold" is one of the stock phrases of the 16-to-1 silverites. It implies that the nations of the world are down on their hands and knees in the dirt, grabbing furiously for the yellow metal. The contrast presented by the calm and serene behavior of a bimetallic world or silver-using world is obvious without special mention. But there seems to be a scramble of another kind going on at the present time between the Bank of England and the Bank of France, each of which is trying to get rid of gold and to force it upon the other. The immediate occasion of this scramble is the new Chinese loan. Friday's cable from London said that there had been a sharp rise in Paris exchange due to remittances from that city to London for account of the Chinese loan, the proceeds of which were to be lodged in the Bank of England. Paris exchange is quoted both in London and in Paris in terms of francs, 25.25 francs being the par value of a pound sterling. When there is an excess of remittances from Paris to London, as in the present case, the price of a pound sterling in terms of francs rises. In the United States, sterling exchange is quoted in terms of dollars and cents, so that a rising exchange in our case points to gold exports. The telegram went on to say:

> "Exchange receded this afternoon because the Bank of England has just announced a reduction in the purchasing price of French and Russian gold coin to 76s. 3¼d. per ounce. *This was done to check gold shipments from France here.* It will probably be powerless to do so, as the Bank of France is selling gold freely, and it is feared here that the accumulation of gold is likely to be immensely increased during the next few months. Others urge that the money market may be tightened by a lock-up of cash in the Bank of England, but this view is not supported by present indications."

In the phraseology of London, the Bank is "buying gold" when it receives gold at the issue department and gives its notes in exchange for it, as the law requires. For gold generally it must give its notes at the rate of £3 17s. 9d. per ounce; for foreign gold coin it exercises some discretion, paying a little more or a little less, according as it wants to attract or repel the metal. It now desires to repel it, so it reduces the price at which French and Russian coin is received. The Bank of France desires to reduce its stock. So it "sells gold freely," as the phrase is, which means that it pays gold for its own notes without exercising the choice, which it has, to pay them in silver, or part silver and part gold.

When one remembers how many of the strongholds of English Liberalism have been in metropolitan constituencies, the rout of the Liberals in the great cities, in the general election just past, becomes perhaps the most notable feature of the whole contest. In the last Parliament, the Liberals, in spite of their unexpected losses in the great cities, held 68 urban seats; this year they have lost 25 of the 68. In London alone they have lost 15 members. The last Parliament contained 39 Unionists from London and 23 Liberals; in the next the figures will be 54 Unionists and 8 Liberals. In 1892 the total London vote was Unionist, 211,547, Liberal, 185,463; this year it is Unionist, 250,706, Liberal, 168,505. That is to say, on a vote 22,000 larger the Liberals actually lose 17,000 votes from their total of 1892. In the other great English boroughs the Liberal disaster is almost as complete. Liverpool is eight to one against them, Manchester five to one, Birmingham seven to nothing, and so on. Leeds is the only great English town where they retain their old predominance.

Of course, the general causes which led to the general Liberal smash were operative in the cities, but there seem to have been particular reasons why the old familiar friends of the Liberals in the metropolitan districts should have lifted up the heel against them. Especially is this the case in London, where the consensus of the best opinion is that the work of the meddling and socialistic London County Council was what cooked the Liberal goose. The fussiness, the inquisitorial measures, the extravagance of this body, with its constant weakness for labor legislation and subservience to trades unions, appear to have aroused deep disgust in the bosoms of London rate-payers, thousands of whom, evidently, turned out to the polls for the first time. Even in the East End, where the socialistic performances of the Council were going to make so much happiness and so many votes, the Liberal *culbute* is almost as general as in the richer constituencies. Ratepayers in Whitechapel and Limehouse are but mortal; and when they find the lauded equalization-of-rates act having no real effect in lowering their taxes, which are actually increased by lavish appropriations, they vote to put an end to the folly. Many doubting taxpayers must have been pushed over into the Conservative ranks by the fatuous course of the Council, on the very eve of the election, in driving ahead vast schemes for municipalizing water companies and getting up great plans for housing the poor at city expense.

The Cuban situation appears to be growing more acute, yet it is clear folly to lend any credence to the tales about dissatisfaction on the part of the Spanish Government with Gen. Campos. He has "been there before." If any man knows how to handle a Cuban rebellion, he does, and if he fails to put it down, Spain has no officer who can do the job. It must not be forgotten, either, that active campaigning is madness at this time of year. As Gen. Février used to be the finest strategist of the Russians in the Crimean War, so Gens. July, August, and September are the chief antagonists of Campos just at present. Heat and yellow fever are more to be dreaded than insurgent bullets. At the same time, the necessarily cramped operations of the Spanish troops no doubt give the rebellion a fine chance to spread and strengthen itself. That it is doing this appears certain. That the guerilla bands are ravaging the interior and levying forced contributions on the planters is also plain. This is the gloomiest part of the business, and, whichever side wins when the more decisive operations of cooler weather are brought on, the outlook for the impoverished and over-taxed island is black enough.

STATE MONOPOLY OF ALCOHOL.

THE difficulty of applying the parliamentary system of government in France has received a fresh illustration in the passage of the bill taxing alcoholic drinks which has so long occupied the attention of the Chamber. As finally adopted, the bill is entirely different from what was contemplated by the Government, which has washed its hands of all responsibility in the matter. The diversity of views and interests revealed by the debate was most extraordinary. The Government was in search of more revenue, which it proposed to get by prohibiting fruit-growers from distilling their produce for their own consumption. This, it was supposed, would increase the revenue from the larger distilleries, especially as the tax was to be raised from 156 francs per hectolitre to 175 francs. But the Deputies were mindful of the fact that between 500,000 and 600,000 persons were benefited by the privilege of distilling at home, and they would only go so far as to limit the quantity to be produced under this privilege, while they raised the tax on alcohol to 275 francs. At the same time they struck off all taxes from wine, beer, and cider. They also insisted that the Government should monopolize the spirit trade, as it does that in tobacco, although the Government protested against this.

The project is, briefly speaking, for the Government to buy raw spirits of the distillers, rectify them, and sell them to retailers at 400 francs per hectolitre. The revenue which is anticipated from this business is 325,000,000 francs, which would not only extinguish the deficit, but leave a comfortable surplus. The most interesting feature of the debate over these proposals, apart from their financial aspect, was the appearance of the teetotaler and the prohibitionist in French political life. Some Deputies claimed that alcohol was a poisonous drink any way, and had no difficulty in producing the highest medical authorities in support of this view. Others declared that it was not the alcohol, but its adulteration, that was pernicious, and that the Government refiners would deliver an article to the consumer which he could partake of with confidence. The bill finally became a compromise measure, its several articles being carried by majorities different in their composition. It must be said, however, that if the quality of the spirits furnished by the Government is to be no better than that of their tobacco, no great improvement in the public health can reasonably be anticipated from the state monopoly.

There seems to be no doubt that the consumption of distilled liquors has much increased of recent years in France. It is very positively asserted by many physicians that there is an alarming increase of diseases caused by the abuse of these liquors, and it is alleged that there is more crime due to the same cause. Inferences of this kind are always to be scrutinized with great caution. Statistics concerning the prevalence of disease are frequently misleading, because more care is now taken in reporting cases than formerly, and classifications of disease are altered. So in the reports of crimes, as we know very well from our experience with liquor legislation in this country, it is easy to figure out changes that have really not taken place. What is positively known is that the death-rate varies very little in France, and even those who claim that drinking spirits leads to crime do not supply any evidence showing that crime has upon the whole increased. Nevertheless, as there is substantial unanimity in the opinion that fermented drinks are more wholesome than those which are distilled, so there is pretty general agreement among economists and statesmen that the latter class of liquors should be much more heavily taxed than the former.

The financial results of the Government monopoly, however, may be very disappointing. In the first place, the abolition of the duties, including the octrois, upon fermented liquors, will cause a loss of revenue amounting to nearly 500,000,000 francs. This exemption from taxation will, as has been learned by experience, cause an increased consumption of these drinks, and a decreased consumption of spirits. The increased tax upon spirits will tend in the same direction. Calculations of revenue based upon the present consumption of spirits are therefore altogether untrustworthy. The example of Switzerland is of great importance on this point. Eight years ago that government undertook the monopoly of alcohol. It was estimated that the revenue from this source would be nearly 9,000,000 francs; but the first year the net result was less than 5,000,000. It has since risen to over 6,600,000 francs, but is now little over 5,000,000. The Swiss tax, however, is very low and the proposed French tax is very high. Should the French estimates be falsified to the same extent as the Swiss, the new monopoly would not bring in sufficient additional revenue to counterbalance the loss from remitting the taxes on wine and beer.

No country has afforded more instructive lessons in excise legislation than our own. Our experience has hitherto been that a very high tax on spirits was not productive of so much revenue as a moderate one. The experiment of increasing the tax which was made last year has so far proved an utter failure. Even if we allow for the enormous withdrawals from bond in anticipation of the increased tax, and for the general depression in business, there is an unexplained deficiency in consumption. It is too soon to determine whether this deficiency is to be permanent or not, and it is impossible to say to what extent fraud upon the excise has been stimulated. It may be that after a time the higher tax will produce a larger return than the old rate, although we believe that the tax is now higher than that imposed in any other country. But it scarcely admits of question that the French scheme, which will double the cost of spirits to the consumer, will falsify the calculations of its advocates. It may be a hygienic measure, but it will not make the budget balance.

FREE TRADE IN AUSTRALIA.

STUDENTS of political development have always found abundant material in the history of the Australian colonies. Nowhere has there been a greater abundance of experimental legislation, nor a better opportunity to compare its results. The colonies afford a sufficient basis of comparison in the substantial homogeneity of their population and in the common origin of their institutions and their law. Their differences are, it is true, so great as to make caution necessary in reasoning from the example of one to the case of another; but they are not so great as to invalidate such reasoning, as happens in most international comparisons. The neighboring colonies of Victoria and New South Wales have especially furnished material for economic parallels, and the contests between protectionists and free-traders have nowhere been more spirited or more continuous. Up to a recent date New South Wales stood upon the whole for free trade, Victoria for protection. At present Victoria is reducing protective duties in a drastic manner, while the situation in New South Wales has become interesting in the highest degree.

Owing to a combination of circumstances which it is not necessary to particularize, the cause of protection has of late years made considerable progress in that colony. But this progress was of an artificial nature, and its chief result appears to have been to cause such a reaction in favor of free trade as promises to extend that principle farther than it is carried in any country in the world. The budget offered by Mr. G. H. Reid, the Premier and Treasurer of New South Wales, proposed to abolish at once the protective duties imposed by the late government of Sir George Dibbs, and to abolish gradually, but within six years, all other customs duties except those on stimulants and narcotics. This involved an immediate loss of revenue amounting to £555,000, which was to be made good by reducing expenditure by £200,000, by a land-tax of a penny in the pound, estimated to produce £400,000, and an income-tax of sixpence in the pound, which was to bring in £108,000. The bills embodying this scheme were carried triumphantly through the Legislative Assembly; but the upper house threw out the land and income tax by an overwhelming majority. Upon the issue thus raised Mr. Reid has appealed to the country, and as it is intimated that the income tax will not be insisted on, the only objection to the scheme as an enlightened fiscal measure is removed. It

is encouraging to hear that Mr. Reid has just defeated Sir Henry Parkes in Sydney, and there is good reason to believe that he will resume office with a substantial majority behind him.

Like the House of Lords in England, the upper house, or Legislative Council, in New South Wales is not an elected body. It consists of members nominated by the Governor of the colony and holding office for life. The lower house, however, has always claimed the right to control revenue measures, and the contest now going on involves the question whether the upper house can refuse to accept them. Mr. Reid has declared that if "the parliamentary machinery will not act in accordance with the rights of the electors and taxpayers of this country, then that machinery must be altered." This is taken to mean that Government nominees will be added to the Legislative Council in sufficient numbers to insure the passage of Government bills. Whether the new Governor, Lord Hampden, will consent to make the necessary nominations remains to be determined.

The opposition to Mr. Reid's policy comes from several sources. Just as we found it in this country, the sugar industry causes the most trouble. The production of sugar has hitherto been protected by a high import duty, and the producers have enjoyed very great profits. They are united under the leadership of a great refining company, and their influence appears to be nearly as formidable as that encountered by our revenue reformers in last year's struggle in the Senate. There is opposition, too, on the part of the extreme advocates of land taxation, who think that Mr. Reid's scheme does not go far enough, as well as on the part of the landowners, who think it goes too far. In fact, the tax is a very moderate one, amounting to as much as £40 only in the case of about 1,600 estates; and if the land-owners were enlightened enough, they would consider that the value of their property would increase under free trade as it did in England.

Opposition has also appeared from another quarter. The federation of the Australian colonies has for some time engaged the attention of a number of ambitious politicians, among whom are to be found some leading protectionists like Sir George Dibbs. But it seems to be understood, and is, in fact, openly declared, that if free trade is to prevail in New South Wales, it will put an end to the federation schemes. It is very frankly admitted in Victoria, where Mr. Reid's budget has been studied with as much interest as in New South Wales, that if its proposals are adopted Sydney will become one of the great ports of the British Empire. It will be the great central market of Australia, and will draw to itself the commerce of the ports that are hampered with protective duties. It is true that the manufactures of Victoria would obtain free admission into New South Wales, but only in competition with the free-trade prices of the manufactures of the world. Under the baneful influences of such increased commerce as free trade will cause, it appears to be felt that the cause of protection must decline throughout Australia. The other colonies will be compelled to throw down their customs barriers unless they wish to see themselves distanced, and, when confronted with the alternative of protection or prosperity, will, however reluctantly, choose the latter. This may delay the federation of the Australian colonies, but it will hasten their admission to the federation of the world.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL HOAR AND PRESIDENT GRANT.

A most interesting and needed contribution to the political history of 1870 is made by Gen. J. D. Cox in the August *Atlantic*. It gives for the first time the truth about Judge Hoar's retirement from Grant's cabinet. His resignation was much speculated about at the time it was offered, but the public never knew the real reasons for it. Gen. Cox, himself a colleague of Hoar's in the cabinet, now shows that the resignation was not voluntary, as was supposed, but was curtly demanded by Grant, and that the reason the President demanded it was that he wanted to barter the attorney-generalship for some Southern votes in favor of the annexation of San Domingo.

Judge Hoar himself, with his native high-mindedness and dignity, never made public the circumstances of his retirement. He was content to let pass unchallenged the current version of it, which was that the President was embarrassed by having two secretaries from Massachusetts (Boutwell at the time being in the Treasury), and after the Senate had refused to confirm the Attorney-General's nomination to the Supreme Court, found himself compelled, much to his regret, to accept his resignation, frequently offered. But, as Gen. Cox observes, the reasons for reticence on the subject have now lost their force. No political party will at present be hurt by having the whole story set forth, and anything which can throw light upon President Grant's administration of his office, either for reproof or instruction in righteousness, is now legitimate matter for the historian. When the historian is an eye-witness and contemporary of the standing and literary power of Gen. Cox, no element of authenticity or of interest is wanting.

All that the public was permitted to know at the time was, that on June 15, 1870, the Attorney-General offered his resignation, without any assigned reason, and that on the same day the President accepted it with the customary words of appreciation of his service and personal character. That service had, indeed, been great. The new judiciary act called for the nomination of the whole class of circuit judges; and in fighting for the purity and competence of the nominees, Judge Hoar did more, perhaps, than any other man to elevate the federal bench. It was his open and vigorous warfare with senatorial spoilsmen over this very question of putting unfit men in judicial office which, no doubt, through the enemies he made in the Senate, rendered his own elevation to the Supreme Court impossible. But the tribute of hate from such a quarter was one to have had more value in Judge Hoar's eyes than the office itself. Why President Grant should have been in the first place attracted to such a man is perhaps even more mysterious than why he should have precipitately dismissed him from office.

Very little mystery remains about the dismissal, however, in the light of Gen. Cox's revelations. It takes its place in that "curious chapter in American administration," the intrigue to annex San Domingo. Gen. Cox sets forth the inner history of that intrigue with new point and force. The scandal was not simply that Grant kept his secretaries in ignorance of his schemes; it was that he deliberately overrode and deceived them. It was with a positive gasp of astonishment that Secretary Fish told Gen. Cox of Babcock's return from his tour of "inspection" with a treaty of annexation; "yet I pledge you my word that he had no more diplomatic authority than any other casual visitor to that island!" No wonder that Mr. Fish, in view of such ignominious treatment, especially in view of the way Babcock was practically made Secretary of State over his head, again and again pressed his resignation upon the President. But Grant, with his innate lack of delicate perception, saw nothing unusual in his own procedure, and prevailed upon Mr. Fish to stay in office, allowing him, however, to wash his hands of the whole San Domingo affair. When the irregularity of Babcock's treaty was mentioned at a cabinet meeting, and the President suggested a way in which "we can easily cure that," Gen. Cox himself was the man to break the awkward silence by asking: "But, Mr. President, has it been settled, then, that we *want* to annex San Domingo?" Grant colored and smoked hard, but made no reply.

How he went stubbornly and secretly ahead with his pet scheme everybody knows. Where Judge Hoar's resignation came into the intrigue, however, is now first told. The time for the ratification of the treaty was getting short; by July 1 it would lapse, by its own terms, unless ratified. Grant learned that he would be short of votes unless he could pick up a number among the Southern carpet-bag Senators. They learned of their power, and characteristically built a "deal" upon it.

"Grant was told," says Gen. Cox, "that they desired to please him and to support his plans, but, considering Mr. Sumner's controlling influence with their colored constituents, it would be at no small political peril to themselves if they opposed that Senator on the San Domingo question. Instead of

receiving the help of the Administration, in matters of patronage, which might smooth over home opposition, they found themselves less influential than they had a right to expect. Reciprocity was necessary if the President required their aid. When asked in what departments they found a lack of consideration, the Attorney-General's was named, and it was strongly urged that Judge Hoar should be displaced by a Southern man acceptable to them."

The result was apparent on June 15, when the Attorney-General received a "curt and direct letter" from the President, demanding his resignation, "without explanation of any kind or reason assigned." As speedily as possible "a Southern man acceptable" was found in the wonderful Akerman. But, luckily, even the votes won by that malodorous arrangement were not enough to save the malodorous treaty.

Gen. Cox is guarded and considerate in all his references to President Grant, but is unable, of course, even if he desired, to dissipate the bad impression which the whole transaction leaves behind it. The only excuses he can find for Grant are in his blunt and mistaken transfer of military methods into civil administration, his woful lack of ability to read character, and the habitual reticence and self-confidence which brought it about so often that "those who were supposed to be consulted on all important matters found themselves shorn of their power to help their chief, and had to look on and see the gradual increase of mischievous influences." What those mischievous influences finally led to, what a stain they brought upon the Republican party, and what a blot on Gen. Grant's reputation, one needs only to turn to Senator, then Representative, Hoar's speech in the Belknap impeachment proceedings, to discover.

THE BIBLE AS LITERATURE.

THERE seems to have been of late something almost like a concerted effort to draw attention to the literary aspects of the Bible. Of books recently published on the subject we may mention 'The Literary Study of the Bible,' by Prof. R. G. Moulton, and the selection of passages from the Bible, with special reference to their literary beauty and interest, made by Mr. Frazer, one of the Fellows of Trinity College, Cambridge. It is significant also that, in the series of "English Lyrics" now publishing, no less than two volumes are devoted to 'Lyrics from the Bible.' No one can say that too much space is thus given to the book, which, if nothing else, is a great glory of English literature, and in which the "lyrical cry" is so sustained and haunting.

Nor can any one say that the Bible, both as literature and in literature, does not need far more attention than it is receiving in current educational methods, whether of the family, the Sunday-school, or the college. That is to say, it surely needs it if its beauties and grandeurs are to remain a part of our common literary tradition, and if the aroma of it and allusions to it which pervade our literature are not to become meaningless to readers. A striking, almost appalling, article on "Ignorance respecting the Bible," by a college president, was published in the *Independent* last November. In it he gave the results of a test he had made of the Biblical knowledge of a freshman class of thirty-four men. They came from the best homes of New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania; yet, when confronted with twenty-two allusions to the Bible in Tennyson's poems, betrayed astounding ignorance. Less than one-half the allusions, nearly all of which were perfectly obvious, were correctly explained in their answers. The line, "For I have flung thee pearls and found thee swine," was commented upon by one sagacious youth, "The Devil was adjured into swine." Another explained the phrase, "marked me even as Cain," by informing the examiner that Cain was a farmer and had to work hard, hence his "mark." These are but specimens of the grotesque misunderstanding of Biblical phraseology and story displayed by what must be considered an exceptionally intelligent body of young men. How long will it be before learned scholiasts will have to interpret to our generation the Biblical allusions with which our literature is saturated, and which, to the minds of fifty years ago, saturated with the Bible, appealed with swift illumination and suggestiveness?

One difficulty, it must be confessed, lies in general conditions as much as in anything peculiar to the Bible. That book we do not carry in our minds any more as a familiar friend, but neither do we carry any book. We have no memories any more; we have indexes. If the comparison were made between an intimate knowledge of the Bible and an intimate knowledge of the classics, the latter would be found to have lamentably decayed as much as the other. The wonderful Renaissance memory, wax to receive and marble to retain, could safely challenge the doubter to put a dagger to the owner's heart and strike home if a verbal slip could be detected in any given passage of Tacitus or Horace. There are no such giants in these days of *Jahrbuch* and *Zeitschrift*. The Bible is thus suffering in good company. If you have a good concordance, what more do you need in an age that does not care to know a thing, but only to know where you can find it?

But there are, of course, special reasons why the Bible has ceased to be the essential part of mental furniture that it once was to all English-speaking men and women. One of them, and a most powerful one, is the almost complete turning over of Biblical instruction to the Sunday-school, and its almost complete disappearance, even in Christian families, from the old place in daily reading and regular memorizing. We know, of course, that the scheme of Sunday-school lessons contemplates covering the whole Bible—or those parts of it fit to be taught to children—in seven years. We know as well of the scheme for daily readings meant to go with the Sunday recitations. But we know also that, as a rule, these projected readings and this comprehensive plan of study are not carried out at all, with the result that children obtain a most chaotic and fragmentary idea of the Bible. We say nothing here of the failure to teach the body of well-ascertained truth about the Bible, its history and manner of composition. That is a scandalous thing, morally, but it has little to do with the literary appreciation of the Bible. What we do say, however, is that the broken, haphazard, come-and-go methods of Bible teaching in Sunday-schools are as successful as if they were designed with deadly ingenuity for that very purpose, in destroying all rational appreciation of the Bible as literature, and in making it a happy-go-lucky collection of "golden texts" and strange and disconnected promises and threatenings and moralities, without form and void. Probably nine-tenths of the college students referred to above had gone through at least two seven-year cycles in Sunday-school lessons. What profit did they get, except to give their ignorance the special charm of confusion and grotesquesness? Jacob served seven years for a wife, and at least got a wife, if not the one he wanted; but most of our seven-year Sunday-school scholars emerge from the period with little or nothing to show for their time.

The question arises, how much better will the purely literary method of Bible study succeed—succeed, we mean, in storing the mind with the felicities and piquancies and majesty of Biblical phraseology, and in fascinating the attention with the details of Biblical narrative and allegory and pastoral and drama? We confess to gravely doubting if it will succeed any better. The charm and power of the Bible, as literature, seem to evade the mature and preoccupied mind that approaches it late and purely on the literary side. The accumulated associations of childhood, the familiarity with sounding phrases before they are understood, the play of young imagination and even of superstition about the sacred page—all these things, joined with daily repetition and use of the rich English of King James's version and a sustained acquaintance with Oriental trope and metaphor, parable and vision, seem necessary to the strongest and most enduring grasp of the Bible merely as literature. One cannot imagine Ruskin, for example, with his later ideas about the Bible, getting from it in maturity what he got at his mother's knee. There is a certain disillusionment, which is a literary loss even if it is a critical gain, that comes from studying the Bible in too dry a light of reason. The rugged old Hebraisms lose something of their craggy grandeur when we really come to see what they mean. If we have

learned to love them, even ignorantly, in our youth, we resent their being made too intelligible and unimaginative to our manhood. Thus, Matthew Arnold was incensed at the Revised Version, indefensible as was his anger on critical grounds, largely because it made havoc with some of the impressive but puzzle-headed phrases of King James's and the Prayer-Book version that had the undying charm of youthful association about them. It is no doubt a fact that the surest literary appreciation and mastery of the Bible are to be seen in men in whom that book was a part of the heaven that lay about them in their infancy; and we see small reason to believe that later and colder studies can give what it almost seems to be necessary to draw in with mother's milk.

If the Bible, as literature and in literature, is destined, as it would seem, to lose more and more of its power over men's minds, the loss is most calamitous. Merely as a treasure-house of style, of racy expression, of apt illustration, of piercing metaphor, of poetry that exhausts language and leaves it quivering, there is but one book, as the dying Scott said. The advice of a famous professor of rhetoric still holds good. "Young gentlemen," he used to say to his classes, "if you want to be eloquent, all you need to know is your Bible and Shakspere. In them are the winged words of English." And as for the great literature, whether of England, Italy, Spain, or France, it can be said of the Bible that, in it, its line has gone out into all the earth and its words to the end of the world. It is needless to quote the tributes or the examples of the great masters of style. Whatever may be the cause and whatever may be the remedy, if there is any remedy at all, the neglect of the Bible as a great piece of literature is one of the most disheartening marks of our time.

MAZZINI'S LOVE STORY.

ITALY, July 14, 1895.

THE May number of the *Nineteenth Century* has an article entitled "A Love Episode in Mazzini's Life"—a sensational heading to the publication of some of the most beautiful letters that ever one man wrote to another. In the "episode" between Mazzini and Magdalen there was no love on Mazzini's side for the young sentimental Swiss girl who had known him for a few months, and was only seventeen when he was compelled to quit the country; but he was full of "anguish and remorse" when the mother and scarcely wise friend urged his return, lest the girl should break her heart and die of consumption. The friend urges him to write to Magdalen. His answer is worthy of that great, good, pure soul who in all his long, sad life never did an intentional wrong or willingly inflicted suffering on a fellow-creature. It was not his fault, but his misfortune, that women worshipped him and gave him love he could not return, save by making them better and turning their, to him, useless passion to useful work for their fellow-creatures.

"Why inflict useless tortures on me?" he asks Thomas Emery (the conspirator's name taken by L. A. Melegari, the one-time Vice-President of "Young Italy," afterwards a pillar of the Moderate party, Deputy, Senator, Minister of State, Minister for Foreign Affairs, etc., etc.). "Why propose my writing to Magdalen, and why do so with the words, 'What do you mean to do for this unfortunate child?' You ask me if my intentions are in accordance with the only possible ending to such a pure love, and other things of that sort. My God! can I in any way console her? Can I have any intentions? Am I free? God knows I am not. I am so in the eyes of society and of men, who recognize only the *de-facto* ties; but before my own heart and before God, who takes cognizance of promises, I am not. Do you not know that Giuditta loves me, that I love her, and that I have sworn to love her? Do you not know that she, too, poor woman, is alone in the world, constrained to wander about the gates of the town where her children live without being able to pass them, and that even from afar my love affords her some consolation? Do you not know that the passions of her soul are strong and vehement, and that were the only person by whom she considers herself really beloved to deal her such a blow it would be a cruel betrayal?"

Of this beloved and loving Giuditta, Signora Melegari, who makes public Mazzini's letters to her father, merely says that she was "an Italian lady celebrated for her patriotism," and, giving two letters, adds: "Mazzini was then bound to Giuditta not only by respect for his word; but his love for her, whether platonic or not, was at its height." There is no need to conceal the name of Giuditta Bellario Sidoli, as all Mazzini's friends knew of her and revered her for the love and reverence in which he held her. Many of these will remember that when all capacity for joy was ended, when he scarcely lived save for "feeling of the pain," one of his last sorrows was Giuditta's death in 1871, just one year before his own.

The particulars of her life sent to me by her grandchildren show her to have been the woman to have proved a fitting helpmate to Mazzini; perhaps she was the only woman for whose sake he inwardly revolted against the "mission" which forbade him to assume any human tie that might interfere with his vow to sacrifice himself, body, soul, and spirit, to the liberation of Italy from foreign yoke, the unification of her dismembered provinces into one nation. Giuditta was born in 1804 in Milan, where her father, Baron Bellario, held high office during the existence of the kingdom of Italy. At sixteen Giuditta was married to Giovanni Sidoli, an ardent patriot of Reggio, who, when their first daughter, Marietta, was a year old, had to escape into Switzerland for dear life. Giuditta accompanied him, and at St. Gall, where he obtained citizenship, he, with two other patriots, opened a store and was most successful. In 1824 Giuditta returned to Reggio, where she had left her child with her husband's mother, then rejoined her husband, and all looked bright, when her husband's two partners died, and, the climate threatening his life, they were obliged to close the store and go to Montpellier, where Giovanni Sidoli died in 1828.

Giuditta returned to Reggio with her three children, Achille, Elvira, and Corinna, born at St. Gall. Here her salon was the meeting-place for Italian patriots, who, especially after the French Revolution of 1830, were in high hopes. But the leader, Ciro Menotti, trusted in the Duke of Modena, one of the vilest satellites of Austria, who had pretended to aspire to the crown of Italy only in order to possess himself of the secrets of the conspirators. Giuditta at Reggio, with Zucchi and other patriots, headed the revolution there after Ciro Menotti had been carried off as hostage by the Duke of Modena to Mantua. The revolution became general, but the Italians, believing in Louis Philippe, trusting to non-intervention, did not combine their efforts—nay, each province, save Reggio and Modena, held aloof, one from the other. Austria, of course, intervened, the Duke of Modena was restored and Ciro Menotti hung. Giuditta, with Lamberti, Fabrizi, and a few others succeeded in reaching Marseilles, and here Giuditta and Mazzini first met, loved, hoped, and worked for the common cause, Italy.

Mazzini, exiled from Genoa after his imprisonment in the fortress of Savona in 1830, in 1831 wrote his letter to Charles Albert inciting him to exchange the Sardinian crown for that of Italy, and founded the Association of Young Italy, whose martyrs in 1833 sealed their faith with their blood. To avenge their fate the expedition to Savoy was planned. This followed and did not precede the legal murders by Charles Albert of thirteen youths, guilty only of having read the publications of Young Italy. Had the expedition taken place previously, the King might have had some excuse for the crime committed, and for the decoration of the executioners and their promotion to the highest offices of the state. It is strange that Signora Melegari should make such a mistake, seeing that her father was one of the Savoy invaders. After the failure, Mazzini, heartsick but resolute, did not abandon his work. Condemned to death October 26, 1833, he yet succeeded in converting many a noble youth to the cause—among them Giuseppe Garibaldi, who was to have won over and commanded the Sardinian fleet if the Savoy expedition had succeeded. This failing, he also was sentenced to death on June 14, 1834.

These public disasters were fatal to any hope of union between Mazzini and Giuditta. She had her four children, he his work in exile. They parted, Giuditta undertaking a mission to Rome, assisted by a friend, Mr. Cobb, consul for Würtemberg, who, with the help of a cardinal who of course knew nothing of her ardent propaganda, obtained permission for her to visit her children at Reggio, at their grandfather's house, but only for one day. The correspondence between Mazzini and Giuditta was continued, the letters intercepted and copied being sent to their destination—that being part of the system of Metternich, who ruled supreme in the counsels of Modena and Parma, and who had great weight perforce with the mild Duke of Tuscany.

"My beloved," writes Mazzini, "how many letters in a few days! I bless you not once but a thousand times, oh angel of consolation! and I also bless the chance that has led to the arrival of all your letters together. God! how I felt and still feel the need of them, for you are my life—all else is but sorrow and sadness. You write so lovingly, your letter of the 15th overflows with such tenderness, that I am filled with joy. Never doubt me; never doubt my love; never doubt about me at all; a doubt would make you guilty, guilty towards me, for during these last days I have been able fully to gauge the force of the love that binds me to you. I shower kisses on the lock of your hair—you know I always kept one close to my heart, but I had lost it."

Giuditta answers:

"I have received your letters of the 6th and the 8th sealed with black. I felt the strongest need of seeing your handwriting again, yet the black seal filled me with such terror that I stood trembling and stupefied for some minutes before opening them. The fact that you had written the address reassured me, yet still I trembled. Your letters are lying open before me, and I am weeping sorely, so intensely do I long to see you, if only for a moment, that I may let my tears fall on your brow and tell you how weary I am of living. Each day that passes proves to me that I am a slave. Yet my

thoughts, like my eyes, turn to but one object: Liberty."

Between 1834 and 1836 Mazzini wandered through Switzerland with the two Ruffinis, whose brother, Jacopo, had committed suicide in prison for fear of revealing the secrets of his friends, and Mazzini had promised their broken-hearted mother never to abandon the fugitives, Agostino and Giovanni. He founded the Young Europe in these years: struggling Italy, Poland, and Germany were to join hands for their common rescue. Even then Mazzini's name was a power, a terror to tyrants. France, Austria, insisted on his expulsion. Switzerland had to yield, and on January 3, 1837, the Austrian minister at Berne triumphantly informs the Governor of Lombardy, Count Hartig, that the *trop fameux* Mazzini and the two Ruffinis were on their way to England, passing through France. This compulsory departure precluded all hope of a meeting with Giuditta, who remained in Parma to be near her children. Those who have read his account in after life of those awful years will understand what a faith was his which could suffer such agony, make such mortal sacrifice, and yet be faithful—yet compel his frail flesh to act out his spiritual thought.

It is full two years after his "tempest of doubt"—in July, 1838—that he tells Melegari that "Giuditta loves him and that he loves her"; so she at least had not abandoned him in his bitter hour. She, poor soul, was hovering outside the gates of Reggio, and on August 28, 1838, we find her mother's heart triumphing over her patriotic hatred of the Duke of Modena: she supplicates him to allow her to embrace her children, and to allow her safe-conduct to extend over a single day, so that she may go into the country, where was her youngest child, and Achille, her only son, who had just passed his examinations. Poor Giuditta! it was heartrending for her, but she showed her unselfishness by leaving her children all with her husband's family, so that they need not undergo her privations and might receive a good education. On October 30 there is another entreaty; no safe conduct had reached her! Her granddaughter assures me that in utter despair she wrote to the Duke, telling him that at such an hour, on a certain day, she should present herself at such a gate. He did not arrest her, but her visit must have been of the briefest, for she returned to Parma and remained there till 1848, when she went to Florence, and there she and Mazzini again met, but without any attempt to unite their fates. When the Roman republic was proclaimed, she gave her only son, Achille, to Rome, and he fought well and faithfully under Medici, who defended the Vascello.

After the fall of Rome, Giuditta returned to Parma, and there continued her patriotic propaganda, happier than before because she had her two youngest daughters with her and could bring them up in the faith of the Italy of the future. But the Duke of Parma, brought back by the Austrians, objecting to this education, after two rigorous examinations, one of which lasted from six in the evening till seven in the morning but resulted in nothing, ordered her arrest. Her daughters, Corinna and Elvira, had been up all night, Elvira had seen and chewed up various compromising letters; and Corinna, assuring one of the officials that behind a screen some very important documents were hidden, caused the screen to fall, and dust and soot from the hidden chimney enraged the creature to such an extent that Giuditta was carried off to the common prison, and there treated in the matter of food and sleeping even as the women arrested for common crimes. Her letters to her two daughters are delightful; all she asks for is for some knitting-cotton and needles, and certain books, which we may be sure she did not get. As no documents or traces of conspiracy could be found, after a time she was "merely banished" from Parma with her son and two daughters. The wretched Duke of Parma had her consigned by his gendarmes to the Austrian authorities; but as she was legally a Swiss citizen, the Austrians only had her conveyed to the Swiss frontier, whence she passed to Turin. Giuditta could never have borne exile from Italy, and even Turin was to her a foreign country.

I think that the last time Judith and Mazzini can have met was in 1857, when, after the failure of the Genoese attempt to succor Pisacane, the Government which condemned Mazzini to death, enraged at not getting hold of him, affirmed that he had fled from the country, leaving his followers in the lurch. No! he lived in Italy from March till August to my certain knowledge—lived in Genoa, where thousands of the working people knew where he lodged, yet never betrayed him, and he went to Turin and for some days stayed in Giuditta's house. After that their correspondence flagged. Giuditta had fallen into a state of deep despondency after 1860. Neither she nor the great actor Modena could reconcile themselves to monarchical Italy and the yoke of the moderate party. Modena openly blamed Mazzini for helping the annexations and for approving of the *plebescito*. He who placed Italy above all forms of government, was saddened but did not alter his resolution. In March, 1871, he wrote to a friend: "I know from Minoli of the illness of good, saintly, constant Giuditta. Strangely sad is it that I am destined to see all those that I have loved depart while I remain—who knows why?" Here is his last letter to her sent me by her son:

"My friend, you suffer and are seriously ill. Nevertheless, the thought that an old friend's thoughts watch around your bed may gladden you and give you a moment of relief. If this be so, know, then, that I have never ceased to love and to esteem you as one of the purest souls that I have ever met during my life. You will live, I hope; but if you have to leave us, you need not fear what men call death and which is only transformation. You will one day see those who loved and love you. Trust in God, in his law, and in your own pure conscience. Give a thought to me also, and bless me. I dare not send you my blessing, but my soul is with you. Your friend, JOSEPH."

His letter was written on March 3, 1871. On the 28th Giuditta breathed her last.

J. W. M.

OMER PASHA.

PARIS, July 16, 1895.

IF we want to find the true type of the adventurer, we must go to Oriental countries. The name of Omer Pasha, which was so often pronounced during the Crimean war, is not yet forgotten, though very few people know much about the commander of the Turkish troops during this memorable period. He made his appearance in history surrounded by such names as those of Lord Raglan, of Marshal Saint-Arnaud, of Marshal Canrobert. His life before the great days of the Crimean war reads like a novel; it has just been written by M. Georges Gaulis, from notes furnished by the private doctor of the Turkish commander, a Swiss who entered the sanitary service of the Ottoman army, and who ended his life in Serayevo, before the entrance of the Austrians into Bosnia.

Omer's real name was Michael Lattas. He was born in the Christian orthodox faith, in 1806, in the village of Tanya-Gora, in Croatia. His father belonged to the Austrian administration. Michael Lattas entered a school of cadets, and was attached at the age of eighteen to the *chancellerie* of the staff at Gospich. Soon afterwards he deserted, for reasons which remain obscure or unknown. He sometimes alleged that a German officer, who hated the Slavs, ordered him, for a slight fault, to be beaten for three hours with a cord. It has been said that his father incurred a condemnation which brought dishonor on his name. The deserter entered Bosnia during the night, determined to enlist in the Turkish army and to go to Constantinople. He had not a penny, and knew nobody. The Bosnians, fortunately for him, had remained faithful to the patriarchal laws of hospitality; he was received by a bey named Michael, and worked on his farm. He went from place to place, working in a hundred different ways for his bread, but he soon perceived that there was no chance for him to rise from the obscurest station if he did not assume the turban; he became a neophyte, had himself converted by a hodja, and took the name of Omer Lufti.

Once a Mohammedan, he became the preceptor of the children of his master, and remained with them for two years at Banyaluka; he then left Bosnia, and at Widin he became the drawing-master of the sons of Ibrahim Pasha, the commander of the fortress. It was the beginning of his fortune, as Ibrahim was an *advanced* Turk, who adopted Occidental ideas. Omer became acquainted with old Chosreff, the Grand-Vizier, a Turk of the old school, who attached him to the topographic bureau of the army. There he remained from 1830 to 1834, engaged in technical works, and studying the French, Italian, Persian, and Arabic languages. He married in 1834 the daughter of a colonel, who got him appointed professor of technical drawing at the military school, with the rank of captain. One day, the Sultan Mahmoud visited the military school, saw the new professor and learned of his adventures, and the next day Omer, summoned to the imperial palace, was informed that he had become a major, and was to be the writing-master of the heir presumptive, Prince Abdul-Medjid. He was now on the road to honors; in 1836, he was lieutenant-colonel; two years after, colonel; in 1839, when his pupil ascended the throne, he was made brigadier-general and pasha.

He had never appeared before an army when he was thus made general at the age of thirty-three; nevertheless, we find him in 1842 taking part in a campaign in Syria; in 1843 commanding a brigade in Albania; in 1845, a division-general in the Lebanon, putting down an insurrection. He is employed in Kurdistan, and with 12,000 men makes a rapid campaign and obtains a victory; on his return he is made field marshal, and becomes the hero of the day, the hope of Turkey; he is looked upon as a *pacificador*, to use a Spanish expression. He is a favorite of the Sultan, who gives him a fine estate at Scutari. The foreign ambassadors forget his origin; the renegade and deserter is sunk in the commander of the Turkish forces. All the Polish and Hungarian refugees solicit and flatter him. He lives like a real Turk, and has preserved only the passion for wine.

In 1848 the spirit of Revolution blew all over Europe. Prince Bibesco was turned out of Bucharest; Russia and Turkey entered both the Principalities. Russia occupied Moldavia and Omer Pasha was sent to Wallachia. He entered Bucharest without fighting, and remained there for two years, leading the life of a sovereign, courted by the old boyars as well as by the Liberals, one of whom even wrote a pamphlet in which it was proved that Omer had as much right to the throne of Rumania as a Ghika or a Bibesco, as the Lattas were descended from Latus, a Roman centurion. It was in Bucharest that Omer became acquainted with a German governess, who was converted by him and changed her name to the Oriental name of Zobeidah. He took her with him to Constantinople, and their mutual affection was such that she accompanied him in 1850 in a two years' campaign in Bosnia. Omer had to fight there an old feudal aristocracy, very warlike and independent. The deserter of 1826 entered Sevayevo at the head of ten thousand men, and lived there surrounded with Asiatic pomp. During his expeditions, he once entered the house where he had been a domestic; he loaded with presents the son of his former master. He triumphed over superior forces with his irregular bashi-bazuks and Albanians; he gradually disarmed the population, Mussulman as well as Christians; he commenced an expedition against Montenegro, but was checked by Austrian mediation.

A larger field of action was preparing for him. In 1853 the Russian armies crossed the Pruth, and Omer had now an enemy worthy of him. He received the command of the whole Turkish army. From Shumla he sent word to Prince Gortchakoff to evacuate Turkish soil. On his refusal, he placed 100,000 men on the right bank of the Danube, in front of 70,000 Russians. The first important engagement took place at Oltenitza, between Rustchuk and Bucharest.

Impetuous in attack, Omer did not know how to follow up a victory; ten days after his success at Oltenitza, he retired to his former positions. He gained another undecisive success at Kalafat, on January 6, 1854. At that time the allied forces, French and English, arrived at Gallipoli. Omer entered into communication with the French generals. The first interview of the three chiefs of the armies took place at Varna; Omer left his camp at Shumla, while Saint-Arnaud and Lord Raglan came by sea. Omer insisted on the necessity of a common action in the Dobrudja; Saint-Arnaud wrote to Marshal Vaillant:

"Omer does not deserve all the good or the bad that is said of him. Among us he would not be a distinguished man; but he is all the more remarkable and useful among the Turks in that, I say it sorrowfully, they would find nobody to replace him. Omer has in the highest degree military intelligence; he is a true soldier; as a general he has a few sound ideas with impossible projects and incredible political views. I have," he adds, "fathomed the man. His great merit is that he is indispensable, and he knows it. I have been able to judge how vainglorious he is."

When Saint-Arnaud brought his army of 40,000 men to Varna, he held a great review in honor of Omer, who went through the French ranks gravely and hardly able to conceal his deep emotion. At the news of the establishment of the camp at Varna, the Russians abandoned the siege of Silistria, which had made a heroic defence.

Some time afterwards the scene changed; the ravages made by the cholera forced the Allies to transfer the seat of war to the Crimea. Omer was left behind on the Danube, and ceased to be in the centre of action. He became quite a secondary actor in the great drama which kept the world so long in suspense. After much hesitation he transported his army to the Crimea; he had about 20,000 men and gained a victory at Eupatoria. When the siege of Sebastopol began, he had nothing to do but to obey the orders of Canrobert. The French commander, Pélissier, who took command after Canrobert, showed little consideration for Omer, and treated him almost with contempt—so much so that Omer withdrew his forces from the Crimea and had himself sent by his Government to the relief of Kars. Once in Asia, he was alone, independent; instead of going from Batum to Kars, he made a diversion in Georgia and marched on Kulais; he had hardly approached this place when he received news of the surrender of Kars. His campaign had been a thorough failure, and his retreat was disastrous and executed in the greatest disorder.

On his return to Constantinople, Omer fell into apparent disgrace. He consoled himself with living in luxury, sometimes at his villa near Scutari, sometimes in his kiosk at Stambul. His domestic affairs, which were too complicated to be told in detail, occupied him much. On the death of a governor of Bagdad in 1857, he asked for the post, and it was given to him. He took a little army with him, and conducted it from Aleppo to the Euphrates. At Bagdad he administered his government in such a way that he was recalled. He returned by way of Mosul and Diarbekir, and learned on arriving at the latter place that the Sultan allowed him to live on his estates at Oltenitza. He lived there a while as in a prison, obliged to sell his horses and his wife's jewels. The Sultan was forced to give him a command again when insurrections broke out in Herzegovina, in Montenegro, and in Crete; but he was ill, and could not keep long in the field.

He went to Vichy in 1868 by the advice of his doctors. During his journey he saw Napoleon III., the Pope, and his old companions of the Crimea. In Vienna he was presented to the Empress and dined at the table of the Emperor. He died in 1871, on his return to the Golden Horn, and it is said that the Sultan had the body of the giaour who had fought so often for him sent in a lead coffin to the coast of Dalmatia.

Correspondence.

QUEER DOINGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me once more to refer to Mr. Gonino's translations of the Perrot-Chipiez books. I ask the favor of you simply in order that M. Perrot's position may be understood by the large body of American archæologists. I am sure that many will read with satisfaction the enclosed letter from M. Perrot, and it may be with surprise at certain *singuliers procédés* therein mentioned.

Yours very truly, J. R. S. Sterrett.

Amherst, Mass., July 24, 1895.

Université de France,
École Normale Supérieure,
Paris, le 11 juillet, 1895.

Cher Monsieur: Si j'ai tant tardé à vous répondre, ce n'est pas que votre article m'ait causé le moindre mécontentement; c'est que j'avais égaré votre lettre, qui m'était arrivée au moment où, en vue de fêtes qui ont été données à l'École, on déménageait mon appartement. Je ne savais plus votre adresse. C'est hier seulement que j'ai retrouvé la lettre sous un tas de papiers, et je m'empresse d'y répondre.

Ce n'est pas ma faute si mon livre a été, comme vous le dites si bien, *butchered*. Je n'ai jamais été consulté, pour le choix du traducteur, par la maison Chapman; on n'a pas demandé à me soumettre les épreuves de la traduction que, très habitué à l'anglais, j'aurais pu relire avec profit. On ne m'a même plus, pour les deux derniers volumes français, envoyé la traduction; je ne la possède pas dans ma bibliothèque. C'est là de singuliers procédés.

J'étais dernièrement à Londres, pour une quinzaine, occupé à travailler au Musée Britannique, et je me promettais d'aller, avant mon départ, m'en expliquer avec les chefs de la maison Chapman; mais j'ai dû quitter Londres brusquement, sur une dépêche reçue, et je n'ai pu faire cette visite.

C'est à eux-mêmes, à ce qu'il me semble, que les éditeurs anglais font le plus de tort en commandant la traduction à quelqu'un qui, tous les articles publiés à ce sujet le disent, ne sait bien ni le français ni l'anglais. Pour ce qui est de moi, c'est mon texte français qui fait foi, et je ne suis responsable des sottises que me fait dire ce traître (*traduttore, traditore*). Quant à l'éditeur français, il n'a aucun intérêt à intervenir. Il ne voit dans l'affaire que la vente de ses clichés, et, si l'édition anglaise est mauvaise, on n'en achètera que plus l'édition française. Je suis donc, à mon grand regret, privé de tout moyen d'intervention efficace; mais je suis très reconnaissant à tous ceux qui avertissent Chapman, et qui finiront peut-être par le résoudre à se détacher de ce M. Gonino. Les premiers volumes avaient été bien traduits par M. Armstrong, avec qui j'étais entré en relation; je ne sais pourquoi on a renoncé à lui.

Il ne me reste qu'à vous dire combien, pour ce qui me regarde, je vous suis obligé de tout ce que, dans votre lettre et dans votre article, vous me dites d'aimable et d'encourageant. Je suis occupé à mon septième volume; j'espère qu'il obtiendra aussi votre approbation.

Adieu à vous,

G. Perrot.

Notes.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce 'The Insurance of Workingmen against Accidents, Sickness, and Old Age,' by Dr. W. F. Willoughby.

A triple authorship, and that Southern and Texan, has produced a school 'History of Our Country,' now in the press of Ginn & Co. Superintendents O. H. Cooper and Leonard Lemmon and Prof. Harry F. Estill have thus combined forces.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly issue 'English Readings for Students: Specimens of Narration,' edited by W. T. Brewster of Columbia.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, will publish in October the late Robert Louis Stevenson's correspondence with Sidney Colvin from Samoa (a sort of diary), under the title of 'The Vailima Letters.'

A new 'Webster's Academic Dictionary' has been issued by the American Book Co., in abridgment of the "International" Webster. It has a page of two columns in very clear typography, abundantly besprinkled with illustrations. In the appendices a marked improvement is the merging of proper names, personal and geographical, in a single vocabulary. The volume consists of 700 pages, convenient for the hand.

Eight years ago we had occasion to welcome Mr. Henry B. Nason's 'Biographical Record of the Officers and Graduates of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute' of Troy, N. Y. Mr. Palmer C. Ricketts, C.E, a graduate and one of the present directors, has lately issued through John Wiley & Sons a 'History of the Institute, 1824-1894,' in which will be found the

chief documents relating to the foundation and continuance of "the first School of Science and the first School of Civil Engineering . . . established in any English-speaking country." The aim has been to recover what was in danger of being lost. The volume concludes with a bibliography of publications and records, and lists of officers and graduates. The illustrations exhibit the buildings and the several branches of instruction.

In the week following the appearance of the article "Leconte de Lisle Intime" in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, was published a posthumous volume of this poèt, 'Derniers Poèmes.' It contains, besides the latest poems, reprints of the author's less known works, such as the "Apollonide," "La Passion," two critical prefaces, and separate critical essays entitled "Poètes Contemporains," namely, Béranger, Lamartine, Hugo, Vigny, Auguste Barbier, Baudelaire, etc. With the judgments here meted out, the student of French literature would do well to compare the notes originally written by Leconte de Lisle for his disciples of the Parnassian school and printed in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of May 15. Notable is the agreement respecting Béranger of Leconte de Lisle with M. Brunetière, and hardly less severe is the criticism of Lamartine. Alfred de Vigny, on the other hand, is given due, if at times qualified, praise. Victor Hugo is of course eulogized, while the merits of Auguste Barbier and of Baudelaire are interestingly pointed out. Among the poems a collection of "Hymnes Orphiques" is worth a comparison with the prose translations from the Greek which Leconte de Lisle made many years ago.

Late in time behold him come, a Voltairian of the eighteenth century, and of the rabid days of the nineteenth, a hater of the Middle Ages, as fierce, if not as grand, as Leconte de Lisle, an adversary of the clericals, a contemner of Christianity. Albert Collignon shows all this in his book, 'La Vie Littéraire: Notes et Réflexions d'un Lecteur' (Paris: Fischbacher). It is not a review of books or of writers, nor a criticism of literary forms, nor a history of the evolution of thought; it is one long, and soon wearisome, arraignment of the Church, of Christianity, of religion of any sort, and a proclamation of the true life, the literary life, which, says the author, "as I understand it, is a life devoted to the improving and perfecting of one's self, mind and heart, intellect and will, . . . the culture of the soul through letters." M. Collignon has read very many books, and he has observed, meditated and written, "like Montaigne, Bayle, Vauvenargues, Stendhal, and Sainte-Beuve," as he modestly remarks. This book is a first result; another is promised, 'L'Art et la Vie,' on which thirty years have already been spent, and which will contain, when completed, "all that a Frenchman of the close of the nineteenth century absolutely needs in order to be at once a philosopher, a dilettante, a refined and cultured amateur, an ardent patriot, and the active and earnest citizen of a free country." Good things abound in 'La Vie Littéraire,' as one would naturally expect from M. Collignon; but one cannot help feeling that his adoration of the eighteenth-century writers is hard to justify at the present day, and that if he has the fulness of a Voltaire, he has not also his clearness and precision.

A new edition of H. Breitinger's 'Les Unités d'Aristote avant le Cid de Corneille' (Paris: Fischbacher) is most welcome. It is an excellent booklet, very full of information hitherto very difficult to obtain on the particular subject treated by the author.

'La Rochefoucauld,' by M. J. Bourdeau, forms the latest volume of Hachette's "Les Grands Écrivains Français," and is quite up to the high standard set by the editors. The study of the moralist is sympathetic but not over-partial, and the chapter on his influence is decidedly interesting. A brief bibliography is appended.

The *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen announces the publication of the first volume of a work by Prof. Ludv. F. A. Wimmer, which promises to be the most noteworthy contribution to runology of the century. Prof. Wimmer has been engaged since 1876 in collecting and arranging his material, and during that period he has carefully examined every runic monument in Denmark, including the present Swedish province of Skaane. On all his expeditions he has been accompanied by Prof. J. Magnus Petersen, who for over thirty years has devoted himself to archæological drawing, and who furnished the illustrations for Prof. Wimmer's study on the origin and development of runes, published in 1874. The reproductions in the present volume are for the most part one-eighth to one-tenth of the natural size, and every precaution has been taken to make them absolutely correct. This first of the four volumes of which the whole work is to consist, treats of the historical rune-stones in Skaane, Southern Jutland, Jutland and Bornholm, the date of which is fixed at 935–1010 A. D. Vol. ii. will include the non-historical monuments in Jutland and on the islands, with the exception of Bornholm; vol. iii., those in Skaane and on Bornholm; and vol. iv., the later runes found on grave-stones, fonts, etc., together with a general vocabulary. In pursuing his investigations the author has received generous support from the Northern Early Text Society at the suggestion of the former vice-president of which, J. Worsaae, the work was originally undertaken, as well as from the Government, and the cost of publication is borne by the Carlsbergfond. The publisher is Gyldendal, and the subscription price is $27 per volume.

An opportune and instructive autobiography is 'Erinnerungen aus dem Leben von Hans Viktor von Unruh,' edited by Heinrich von Poschinger (Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt). Herr Unruh was born at Tilsit in 1806 and died at Dessau in 1886. He began his career as a civil engineer and architect, and, like so many other professional men, drifted into politics under the revolutionary excitement of 1848. As a member of the Prussian National Assembly of that year, and afterwards its President, he proved himself to be a man of discretion and moderation, yet showed, however, as his name implied, a marked "unrest" in his party affiliations by passing from the Left to the Right Centre. In fact, in later years, in the Prussian House of Deputies (1863-1866) and the Diets of the North German Confederation and of the Empire (1867-1879), he never hesitated to break away from party ties for the better maintenance of his political principles. In this respect he was as independent and incorrigible as any Mugwump. The most interesting portions of these reminiscences are the conversations with Bismarck, whose policy he at first opposed, but, after the war with Austria, cordially supported. In the difficult crisis of 1866, Bismarck complained of being hampered by the interference of the Prussian Queen Augusta in the conduct of public affairs. In the conferences with King William she was always putting in a word. To Unruh's remark that women ought not to have their say in such matters, he replied, "But they do, nevertheless."

A new era in the development of the study of meteorology is marked by the addition of a department of Terrestrial Physics to the University of Chicago. Dr. Bauer began, on July 1, a series of lectures upon terrestrial magnetism, thermodynamics of the atmosphere, and dynamic meteorology. We observe, by the way, that "The Two Hundred and Fiftieth Jubilee of the Barometer" is the suggestive and rather picturesque title of a paper read by Dr. Hellmann at a recent meeting of the Berlin branch of the German Meteorological Society.

At a late meeting of the Royal Meteorological Society in London, some interesting reports were made upon the weather conditions of the past winter in the British Isles. It seems that the temperature through January and February was from seven to ten degrees colder than the average during those months, with a distribution of atmospheric pressure almost entirely the reverse of normal. The effect of the intense cold upon public health, particularly that of children and old persons, was very great, the number of deaths from diseases of the respiratory organs during February being nearly one thousand above the weekly average. Water pipes froze all over the kingdom, and much suffering resulted for many weeks. From a comparison with past years, the cold is said to have been more severe than at any time since 1814.

The *North Carolina University Magazine* lately contained a "Sketch of the Life and Character of Wilson Caldwell," by Prof. Kemp P. Battle, LL.D., of which the significance lay in the fact that the subject of the sketch is still living, and that he is the long-faithful colored janitor of the university. The article has been reprinted separately. Few white janitors, we may be sure, have thus been honored. In line with this incident is the announced intention of Mr. White of Rock Hill, S. C., to commemorate with a monument the negro's loyalty to his master's family during the war.

The Labrador peninsula is admirably described, both geologically and topographically, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July, by Dr. Robert Bell of the Geological Survey of Canada. The account is in large part the result of his own observations made during several extended journeys, and gives a less forbidding impression of the climate, scenery, and resources of the country than other travellers have reported. He estimates the area of Labrador at 560,000 square miles, of which about a fourth is claimed by Newfoundland. The principal resources are still its extensive forests, which contain twenty-four different kinds of trees, but on the east coast of Hudson Bay there is a "practically inexhaustible" quantity of a "rich manganiferous spathic iron-ore." Copper, galena, "apparently in workable quantities," and traces of gold are also found. A puzzle to the zoölogists is the presence among the fur-bearing animals of the grizzly bear, as he does not live in the vast intervening country between the peninsula and his western home. Two hundred and nine species of birds have been noted, but, "with the exception of the two species of ptarmigan, game birds are not plentiful." Another question, still unsettled, is whether the common cod lives in Hudson Bay, where all the requirements of his existence appear to be present. The population numbers, whites, 13,379; Indians, 3,016; Eskimo,

2,100, which is increased in summer by about 10,000 seamen and their families, who come from Newfoundland to fish on the Atlantic coast. All along the coasts are raised beaches on which are stone fish traps and other shore works of the Eskimo, now high above the sea-level, showing an elevation of the land not yet checked.

A very readable account of an expedition for the exploration of the Kizil Irmak, by Lieut. von Flottwell, is published in a supplemental number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. This is the ancient Halys, the principal river of Asia Minor, which, rising near the centre of the peninsula, flows north and empties into the Black Sea. In July, 1893, the travellers, four German officers, started from Angora, the terminus of the railway, and for three months made as careful an examination of the basin of the river from this point to its mouth near Sinope as the jealousy of the Turkish officials would permit. They were strictly forbidden to take observations, to make sketches, or to excavate ruins, and a guard accompanied them to see that these orders were obeyed. There was apparently no other restriction put upon their freedom, and they were treated ordinarily with great courtesy. The country traversed is evidently one of great possibilities, undeveloped from want of enterprise and in consequence of bad government. The railroad has not opened a market to the farmer because there are no roads connecting with it. The cultivator cannot harvest his crops until the tax-gatherer has appraised them and taken his portion. The tobacco-grower must sell his crop to the Government or its appointed agents at their price, without the power of retaining a single leaf for his own use. The Circassians, who emigrated here from the Caucasus and from Bulgaria, are also a check upon the growth of the country through their raiding propensities. Several excellent maps accompany the account. The regular July number of this periodical contains the record of some observations on the flow of water at the sources of the Rhone, and a notice of a new geological map of Russia, with a reproduction of it.

—Mr. C. H. Grandgent, well known as one of the most expert of phoneticians, has long been collecting material on the subject of American pronunciation. He has distributed five sets of circulars containing test questions, and he has received replies representing almost every part of the United States. On the basis of these replies, which in each case "are supposed to describe the natural, unstudied speech of a cultivated American," Mr. Grandgent was able to construct a tentative scheme, which he has corrected or corroborated by his own observations and by a personal examination of the speech of typical Northerners, Westerners, and Southerners. Many of the results have been embodied in a series of interesting papers in *Modern Language Notes* and *Dialect Notes* (the latter the journal of the American Dialect Society). A brief but complete and rigidly scientific account of the most important conclusions has recently been published, under the title "English in America," in Vietor's journal, *Die Neueren Sprachen*. The author's mastery of clear and condensed exposition enables him to put a vast number of facts into twenty-five pages without that appearance of confusion which often characterizes linguistic monographs. Particularly interesting is the treatment of *a*, *u*, *o* (including the "New England short *o*" as in *whole*), *r*. The remarks on nasality will also attract attention. "American nasality," says Mr. Grandgent, "seems to me to be identical with that of Holland, northern Italy, and many parts of Germany," and he adds that the quality in question is "by no means unknown in England and France." In a second article in the same volume Mr. Grandgent gives in phonetic orthography specimens of several varieties of his own pronunciation, illustrating the differences between familiar talk and the more formal utterance of singing, public speaking, etc. The texts are noted down with much skill and are of considerable importance to the student of linguistics. Our readers hardly need to be informed that the point of view of this whole investigation is scientific, not didactic. The investigator's purpose has been to ascertain the facts of speech, not to tell people how to talk. It is to be hoped that Mr. Grandgent will go on with researches which he is peculiarly well fitted, both by natural endowments and by training, to conduct to a satisfactory conclusion.

—The *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* devotes a dozen pages and one full-page plate of its number for July, 1895, to the announcement and setting forth of the latest great gift to the Louvre Museum, viz., Mr. Ernest Grandidier's collection of Chinese porcelain. It appears from the article in question that the collection as transferred to the museum numbers 3,200 pieces, and that one condition only accompanies the gift, to wit, that Mr. Grandidier is to be its curator during his lifetime, to complete its classification, and, at his discretion, to add to it at his own expense. He has already made it easy for the world to appreciate his magnificent generosity, having published, through the house of Firmin-Didot a year ago, a quarto volume about his porcelains. This volume contains forty-two plates, containing about one hundred and twenty-five separate illustrations of vases, dishes, and figurines, in Dujardin's heliogravure. The text cannot but be considered tentative, preliminary to a more serious study. The writer shows himself no parrot like repeater of fantastic names and of western guesses at Oriental meanings and discriminations, but his own classification is only suggested. He tells the reader a great deal that should be arranged better than it stands arranged in these pages. This task, then, the world has a right to hope will be done by Grandidier *Conservateur du Musée;* but after all, the great news is that so very fine a collection is made public property, and that the common reproach of European museums, that they are regardless of decorative art, is in the way of being removed.

—One of the signs of our democratic age is that so much of what is done for the improvement of popular education is due to the initiative and intelligent efforts of large associations of teachers. Even in the most conservative countries, like Austria and Prussia, centralized clerical and secular authority cannot utterly ignore the patient and persistent demands of such bodies of thinking men and women. The Ligue Française de l'Enseignement is at present devoting its energy to the creation, over the whole territory of France, of so-called *patronages scolaires*—societies for the protection and improvement, especially during the period of minority, of young people who have gone through the obligatory school course. Such societies are already in existence in nearly every arrondissement of Paris, as shown by a recent investigation of M. Beurdeley, mayor of the eighth arrondissement. They also exist, under a variety of names and differing more or less in methods and special aims, in numerous other larger and smaller cities. But the object of the Ligue is to extend the blessing of these institutions to all parts of the republic, not excepting the villages and rural districts. On the other hand, the progressive spirit of the friends of the higher education is strikingly illustrated by M. Jacques Flach's earnest and enthusiastic article in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for June, suggested by the second volume of M. Louis Liard's 'L'Enseignement Supérieur en France.' The reforms proposed aim at a close union of specialization and general culture, and a recognition of the claims both of purely scientific and of professional study. They involve no less radical changes than the suppression of the baccalaureate (rendered superfluous by the final examinations held at the *lycées*) and the transformation of the present *corps de facultés* into real universities, autonomous both pedagogically and financially. At Paris, the university would unite not only the six *facultés*, but also the Collège de France, the École des Hautes Études, the Muséum, and the École du Louvre.

—Since the discovery of Jupiter's fifth satellite, nearly three years ago, the labors of astronomers, although unceasing, have resulted in nothing so significant until very recently. Saturn's ring has always been popularly thought a sort of mystery, in spite of Clerke Maxwell's prize essay published in 1859, in which his mathematical proofs were conclusive that it consists of a multitude of small bodies revolving round the planet in circular orbits. Certainly there is nothing else like it in the solar system, if, indeed, in the universe, and Prof. Keeler of the Allegheny Observatory has just published a very interesting paper, in which he demonstrates by a widely different method, that of the spectroscope, the meteoric constitution of Saturn's rings. Mathematical investigation had shown that a solid or fluid ring could not exist under the circumstances in which the actual ring is placed. To distinguish between the two hypotheses, that the ring is a rigid body, and that it is a swarm of satellites, it is necessary to find a method of great delicacy by which to bring the question within the province of the spectroscope. The relative velocities of different parts of the ring would be essentially different under each condition. If the ring rotated as a whole, the velocity of the outer edge would exceed that of the inner; but if the ring is an aggregate of revolving satellites, the speed would be greatest at the inner edge. The inclination of lines in the spectra of the ansæ would be reversed in the respective cases. If, again, the ring rotates as a whole, the displacement of lines in its spectrum would follow the same laws as for a rotating sphere. But the lines now actually photographed by Prof. Keeler successfully in these experiments prove conclusively that the velocity of the inner edge of the ring exceeds that of the outer, and that the relative velocities at different parts satisfy Kepler's third law. Everything pertaining to the magnificent system of Saturn is of great interest, and the actual aspect of the lines in Prof. Keeler's photographs is in exact accordance with that required by the theory that the rings are composed of a swarm of meteoric bodies, or small satellites, revolving about the planet. These swiftly moving particles, then, in the outer edge of the ring travel round Saturn in 12h. 5m., a period slightly larger than that of Jupiter's fifth satellite; while the meteoric bodies composing the inner edge of the ring go

completely round the planet in the astonishingly short interval of 5h. 50m., nearly two hours less than the period of Phobos, the inner moon of Mars.

—Dr. Karl Breul, in his 'Handy Bibliographical Guide to the Study of the German Language and Literature for the Use of Teachers and Students of German' (London: Hachette), has published a meritorious summary of the various works in this department. He has included the general science of language, which, curiously enough, he places after the chapter on Germanic philology, the periodical publications, grammars, dictionaries, histories of literature, general collections, and works upon special periods and authors, poetry, popular songs, folk-lore, *Kulturgeschichte*, etc., etc. As preliminary works in the same field the author had Von Bahder's 'Deutsche Philologie im Grundriss' and Herrmann's 'Bibliotheca Germanica,' both of which are more complete, especially in dissertations and special monographs. Dr. Breul sought to avoid increasing the size of his work by omitting all mention of articles in periodicals and in collected works. This, naturally, especially in German philology, where the principal part of the investigations is contained in reviews, constitutes a serious, though possibly necessary, restriction in the scope of the work. If one were to characterize the defects in the execution of the editor's plan, they would be found mainly on the side of the later literature and the history of culture, and of popular poetry and folk lore. Of all students of German literature, the lesser number are engaged in the study of the older periods of the language, while the greater number seek guidance in modern German. Why should books be quoted with reasonable fulness for the study of separate authors of the Middle High German period, and the teacher or student be left helpless as regards the best editions of the modern classical writers? Of what help are the names of publishers' series of annotated texts when the contents of these lists are unknown? Many of the cheap German editions have no critical value. The editor has sought in many cases to characterize by letters and brief remarks works of especial merit as well as books presenting theories which lack as yet full acceptance. He has also purposely omitted works which have now been superseded, however great their historical importance may once have been. In his characterization he has been in the main successful. Among the proceedings of learned societies we miss mention of the Saxon Academy; among grammars, that of Blatz, the third edition of which has appeared the present year; in syntax, Sanders's 'Satzbau und Wortfolge'; in scientific German, the works by Gore and Dippold. Schrader's 'Bilderschmuck der deutschen Sprache' appeared in a second edition in 1894. The revival of interest in Uhland caused a new edition of his lectures on the history of German poetry to appear in 1893. Hosmer's 'Short History of German Literature' appeared first in 1878. In works on the religious drama there is no mention of the English edition of Karl Hase's work (1880), or of the similar edition of Freytag's 'Technik des Dramas' (1894). A new edition of Götzinger's 'Reallexikon' appeared in 1884. There is no mention of Gouin's new system contained in his 'Art of Teaching and Studying Languages' (1893). The editor's method of mentioning simply the titles of "libraries" proves an unsatisfactory guide in numerous cases, many valuable works being quite hidden, as, for example, Bartsch's 'Schweizer Minnesänger' (1886) in Baechtold and Vetter's "Bibliothek." In general we must praise the care and skill with which this work has been prepared.

JOWETT AND CAMPBELL'S 'REPUBLIC.'

Plato's Republic. The Greek Text, edited, with Notes and Essays, by the late Benjamin Jowett and Lewis Campbell. In three volumes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

AMERICAN students require no introduction to the translator of Plato nor to the editor of the 'Theætetus,' 'Sophist,' and 'Statesman.' Nor do they need to be told of the long-felt want of an adequate English edition of the 'Republic,' or of the expectations that were aroused by the announcement that the fine literary skill and genial philosophic culture of Jowett were to be supported by the sound and careful scholarship of Campbell in the production of a commentary that might worthily take its place beside the Lucretius of Munro, the Catullus of Ellis, and the Sophocles of Jebb. There are few classical texts the intelligent mastery of which profits the student's culture as much as this, and there is none which an editor, conceiving his task in the spirit of Grant's 'Ethics of Aristotle,' could fittingly make the centre of more interesting and comprehensive historical and philosophical studies—"if he had the mind." For the Platonic 'Republic' is perhaps the only prose composition that in significance for the history of the human spirit takes rank with the bibles and great epics of the world.

The thoughts of the few books that everybody reads acquire a tremendous cumulative moment from that very fact. From Zeno to Cicero, from Cicero to St. Augustine, from St. Augustine to Gemistus Pletho, from Pletho to Campanella, Sir Thomas More, and Bacon, and so on down to Rousseau and the nameless minor utopists and sociological speculators of our own day, every one who has undertaken to formulate new ideals of social organization, education, or religion has begun by reading the 'Republic.' The 'Ethics' and 'Politics' of Aristotle are little more than a codification of its suggestions, accompanied by a matter-of-fact criticism of its paradoxes. The 'Poetics' is in the main an elaboration of distinctions made in the course of the discussion on the moral influence of the poets, or an attempted justification of poetry against Plato's repudiation. It is not fanciful to see the first hint of the 'Characters' of Theophrastus, and so of all their successors down to Matthew Arnold's "Barbarians, Philistines, Populace," in the witty sketches of the evolution of the typical oligarchic, democratic, and tyrannical man. The founder of stoicism wrote a 'Republic' in imitation of Plato, and the essence of the Stoic ethical doctrine is a pedantic exaggeration of the ascetic, repressive side of Platonism. For eight centuries from Plato's immediate successors in the Academy down to the latest puny neo-Platonist and those Christian fathers who "mouthed grandly the last Greek," the imagery and turns of phrase of the 'Republic' were appropriated and copied by all writers of Greek who affected literary elegance, moral earnestness, or subtlety of philosophical disquisition. It was the arsenal from which the Christian apologists drew their most effective polemical weapons, and entire pages of its censure of the fables of the mythology are transcribed unchanged in the 'Evangelical Preparation' of the good Bishop Eusebius, while, on the other hand, it was at once the Bible and the *Summa Theologiæ* of the neo-Platonists, who opposed to the "new superstition" an allegorical interpretation of the old. In every age, that Platonic city of which a pattern is laid up in heaven for him who has eyes to behold it, has been the chosen refuge of the idealizing instincts of humanity. It is that invisible city of Zeus which Marcus Aurelius loved more than the "dear city of Cecrops," the city of God which St. Augustine's imagination saw subsisting unscathed in the ruin of the empire of Rome, the "better world" of which Kant said he was conscious of a call to constitute himself a citizen by his conduct in this, the antitype of the socialist's dream, the "completely evolved" society which the evolutionist postulates as the environment of the perfect man.

And in thus elevating Hellenic characters and situations to typical significance Plato's thought seems to transcend the limits of his age and country, and to attain to something like prophetic strain, identifying itself, as it were, with the soul of the wide world dreaming on things to come. Grave historians have seen in the 'Republic' a prefigurement of the constitution of the mediæval church and state. If, as Aristotle objects in his matter-of-fact way, Plato's account of the necessary order and transformation of forms of government cannot be made to square with the actual facts of Greek history, it applies to the politics of nineteenth-century France with startling verisimilitude. Cæsar, Tiberius, and Napoleon the Little have been thought to have sat for his portrait of the tyrant. Marcus Aurelius, Julian, Constantine, Theodosius, Louis XIV., James the First, and Napoleon the Great have been more or less plausibly compared by their flatterers to his ideal king. His description of the terrors of the slaveholder condemned to dwell in a lonely place with a large household of restive slaves, or surrounded by neighbors "who will not endure it if one man claims to hold another as his chattel," sweeps the historic imagination forward to the speech of Caius Cassius in the imperial Senate on the murder of Pedanius Secundus by his slaves, or to the sensations of the slaveholders of our own Southern States as the cordon of free States closed around them.

Nor is the interest of the 'Republic' purely erudite and historical. As Mr. Alfred Benn, in his 'History of Greek Philosophy,' well remarks:

> "The progressive specialization of political functions, the formation of a trained standing army, the admission of women to public employments, the elevation of a whole race by artificial selection, the radical reform of religion, the reconstitution of education, both literary and scientific, the redistribution of property, the enactment of a new code, the use of public opinion as an instrument of moralization—these are the ideas which still agitate the minds of men, and they are also the ideas of the 'Republic,' the 'Statesman,' and the 'Laws.'"

To this enumeration we might add the endowment of research, the application of mathematics to physics and astronomy, the relation of literature and the drama to public morals, the Wordsworthian idea of the influence of right æsthetic environment on character, the subordination of the physical and philosophical sciences to ethics and sociology, the conception of the body politic as an organism. It is scarcely an exaggeration, then, to affirm that no book of the last thirty years stands in more vital relation to the best thought of our time than the 'Republic' of Plato, in Jowett's or Davies and Vaughan's translation, in the interpretations of Whewell, Grote, Martineau,

and Pater, or in the influence which radiates from the lecture-rooms of Oxford, Cambridge, and Harvard Universities.

Such are some of the ideas that we looked to find developed in the volume of essays announced to accompany this edition. And this, or something like this, we should doubtless have had if Prof. Jowett's life had been continued for the completion of the task too long postponed, and if he had deigned to nourish his exquisite gifts of expression with a conscientious historic erudition. As it is, the Essays, though presenting much useful material, in a somewhat unsystematic form, need not detain us long. Prof. Jowett's introductory plea for retention of manuscript readings as against conjectural emendations abounds in plausible felicities and is very interesting reading, but contributes nothing to scientific criticism. Conjectural emendations are mere guesswork in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred; but scientific knowledge, not genial common sense, is needed to adjudicate on the hundredth case. The statement (p. xxvi) that the choruses of Greek plays have a rhythmical rather than a metrical character—that is to say, that the metre is hardly enough defined to be distinguishable from rhythm—intensifies a curiosity we have long felt as to how our English colleagues of the old school read Greek verse. Prof. Campbell contributes three essays. The first offers a sketchy résumé of the plot of the 'Republic,' a sensible defence of its unity against the disintegrating criticism of Krohn and others, and desultory remarks on its relation to the 'Gorgias,' 'Timæus,' 'Parmenides,' and 'Laws.' The second essay deals in detail with the constitution of the text of this edition. The essay on "Plato's Use of Language" falls into two parts, the first consisting of a useful, but not exhaustive nor very scientific, collection of Platonic idioms, syntactic usages, and peculiarities of diction, in the manner of the "Essay on Language" in Prof. Campbell's Sophocles; the second, of a classification and discussion of Plato's vocabulary, and more particularly of his philosophical terminology.

A commentary on the 'Republic' may be criticised in relation to the needs of the intelligent undergraduate, or in respect of its absolute contribution to the philological or philosophical interpretation of the work. From the first point of view these notes deserve all praise. The 'Republic' is one of the most profitable books, both for the acquisition of facility in reading Greek and for the general intellectual stimulus it provides, that can be read in the upper classes of our colleges. But hitherto the teacher has been obliged to put together his own commentary with the aid of Stallbaum and Schneider. Now the danger is that the ordinary instructor will feel that his occupation is gone, so completely is the work done for him in advance. The treatment of the particles, for example, is copious and exact to a degree that will surprise those who remember the laxness of Jowett's translation in this regard. In the earlier books the precise force of nearly every οὖν, γάρ, ἀλλά, καὶ δή καί, and γε is brought out by explicit paraphrase, and the editors seem to have taken special pains, in Browning's classic phrase, to "settle μέντοι's business," that most baffling of particles to the tyro. Plato's use of synonyms, too, his habit of charging his words, in addition to their positive logical extension, with insinuated suggestions of praise or disparagement, is everywhere recognized and elucidated. Prof. Jowett's gift of felicitous expression enables him to accomplish this in a manner beyond the reach of any merely technical scholarship. And the same faculty serves him admirably, as it did in his translation, in bringing out the dramatic by-play that accompanies the evolution of the thought—the touches of irony or of Aristophanic comedy, the side-lights, the affected embarrassments and surprises, the glances at other points of view, the toying with the order of the exposition, and other devices for stimulating the attention or relieving the strain of continuous dialectic.

Lesser linguistic matters are treated with almost painful conscientiousness. All the optatives are faithfully looked up in Goodwin and gravely explained, and the reasons for and against every minor variation of reading in the text are explicitly announced. The asyndeta, anacoloutha, and pendent constructions with which the conversational style of the 'Republic' abounds are carefully analyzed, and in all doubtful cases the student is given his choice of two or more possible renderings. This admission of alternative versions, so notable a feature of Prof. Campbell's Sophocles, is made still more prominent here by the fact that we have the work of two editors, and that Prof. Campbell has thought it best to preserve the record of the differences. These little debates, signed L. C. and B. J., make interesting reading, doubtless, but they produce an effect of lack of finish. A given combination of words penned by a Plato can as a rule mean but one thing, and the halting of the commentator between two opinions is a confession of our ignorance. The alternative possibility is a possibility only by the unreal scheme of some abstract grammatical formula. It is not really possible when context, emphasis, idiom, and linguistic associations are taken into consideration. Of what seem to us positive errors of interpretation we have noted very few, and those mostly relating to matters too trifling or too open to controversy to justify discussion in the space at our command.

The actual contribution of these three sumptuous volumes to the text-criticism, erudite exegesis, or philosophic interpretation of the 'Republic' is slight. Perhaps there was not much to be done. The text demands little except the courage to ignore uncalled-for emendations. Of the twelve passages which Prof. Campbell enumerates as still open to suspicion, none leaves the thought seriously in doubt. Of the twenty-nine passages in which the present text relies on conjecture, the majority are concerned only with insignificant changes in grammatical expression. None affect the sense seriously, and only four or five affect it at all. Prof. Campbell himself contributes to the text one emendation, διὰ τοῦ for διὰ τὸ bis 440 C, and suggests fifteen others, some of them plausible, but none of first-rate importance. The selected readings given in the foot-notes are taken from Paris A, which has been carefully reëxamined by Prof. Campbell, from Venetus II, and Cesenas M, which have also been recollated for this edition. The historical and antiquarian exegesis offers little or nothing not found in Stallbaum or Schneider. Platonic usage is aptly and adequately illustrated, but there is nothing that could not easily be got from Riddell's Digest or Ast's Lexicon. The editors have quoted a few of the more interesting imitations of the 'Republic' by later Greek writers from Stallbaum, but make no display of their own reading and research in these fields.

As regards the philosophic interpretation, a distinction is necessary. The details of the thought, its dialectic and dramatic movement, the links and interlacings of the argument, the allusions to the political and moral experience of the Greek race, the occasional *aperçus* and anticipations of great ideas, the isolated ethical and sociological truths or paradoxes—all these things are touched and illustrated with the utmost felicity and justness of expression. Nothing could be more admirable than the little sermons—"the general remarks on philosophy and life," as Prof. Campbell styles them in the Preface—which the Master has strewn here and there throughout the commentary, as, for example, the little essay on casuistry (p. 12), on the ambiguity of words (p. 33), on Plato as a political economist (p. 85), on the permission of evil (p. 102), on art and morality (p. 136), on class differences (p. 160), on wealth in ancient and modern times (p. 166), on psychology (p. 202), on ridicule as the test of truth (p. 217), on metaphysics (p. 268), on the few and the many (p. 281). Nothing, too, could be sounder or more discriminating than many of the occasional remarks concerning the Platonic philosophy which Prof. Campbell lets fall in his introductory essay on the structure of the 'Republic,' or in his final study of Plato's use of philosophic terms. But neither in the essays nor in the commentary do we find anywhere a clear, coördinating statement of the central ideas of the 'Republic' in their relation to each other, to Plato's life-work as a whole, and to modern speculation on the same topics.

To descend to particulars, it may be affirmed that the three dominant structural motives of the 'Republic' are approximately these: first, the felt necessity of transcending, by means of psychological and sociological analysis, the crude antinomies of the superficial dialectic of the 'Laches,' 'Charmides,' 'Lysis,' 'Meno,' and 'Protagoras.' Adequate and precise illustration of this point would make the first five books of the 'Republic' an incomparably stimulating and suggestive text-book of ethics. It is nowhere clearly brought out in the commentary. The second leading idea of the 'Republic,' and indeed the avowed motive of the whole composition, is the renewal on a higher plane of the debate between moral faith and moral scepticism begun in the 'Gorgias.' Given an intelligent, unscrupulous man who denies that the practice of the morality of common sense is for his interest, can you convict him of error? The 'Gorgias' showed only that a Socrates could baffle such a sceptic in debate by virtue of superior dialectical skill. The 'Republic' endeavors to produce genuine conviction. But we find in these volumes no adequate recognition of the predominance of this problem in Plato's thought from the 'Gorgias' to the 'Laws'; no indication of the way in which the entire plot of the 'Republic' is determined by it, no illuminating comparisons of the treatment of the same theme in the ethical controversies of the past thirty or forty years. The third great conception of the 'Republic' is that these ethical problems must find their solution in education and the intelligent scrutiny of social ideals. This is the thought that Plato expressed in his famous doctrine of the "Idea of Good," which has been so generally misapprehended that it is perhaps unfair to complain that our editors have missed its full significance.

By the "Idea of Good" Plato means that conception of the maximum compatible individual and general weal which will take shape in the finest minds of the age when they have supplemented prolonged and systematic scientific and philosophic culture by the practical discipline of affairs. Of this idea he speaks in

the language of transcendent poetic mysticism, but he wisely refuses to define it otherwise than by the enumeration of the indispensable educational conditions of its apprehension. The value of the idea is regulative. Upon it depend in the last resort the meaning and validity of all ethical and political conceptions. Even virtue is ultimately desirable because it promotes "good." The average citizen is not required to consider the matter so curiously. He may be a gosling and obey instinct. But the rulers and educators of mankind must possess this profounder insight if they are not to be blind leaders of the blind. It is impossible to defend this interpretation of Plato's teaching in our space. It will verify itself for any reader who will employ it as a key to the 'Republic.'

But if this is Plato's meaning, why has it so often been missed? Partly because of the veil of poetical mysticism—the image of the sun, the allegory of the cave—which his enthusiasm and his sense of the inadequacy of language for the expression of our highest conceptions induced him to cast over it, but chiefly because of his insistence, in connection with the "Idea of Good," on mathematical conceptions and on a pure dialectic that should be independent of sensuous images, and should soar above hypothesis to an ultimate first principle. These utterances have been interpreted ontologically, and numerous attempts have been made to relate them to the metaphysics of the 'Parmenides' and 'Sophist'; and undoubtedly here as elsewhere Plato personifies and hypostasizes his ideas. But the dominant thought, as he plainly tells us, is a comparatively simple ethical one. The first principle beyond hypothesis is not the "Absolute" or the "Unconditioned" of modern speculation; it is simply the regulative conception of the highest attainable social "good," which, whenever we can run our reasonings back to it, is an end of controversy in all ethical and political discussion. He insists on mathematics merely or chiefly as an awakener and propædeutic training of the powers of reasoning in abstractions. For Plato believed that no man is competent to deal with the elusive and complicated abstractions of ethical and social science who has not previously disciplined his faculties by study of the simpler conceptions of the less abstract sciences. How many of our improvised reformers and professors of social science would this hard condition rule out!

The deficiencies of the commentary on the philosophic side would perhaps have been remedied had Prof. Jowett lived to complete the series of essays which he contemplated. Yet we may be permitted to doubt whether he would have given us anything essentially different from the delightful but inconclusive introductions to his translations. The philosophic temper, the philosophic breadth of survey, were his in large measure; but he seems to have been constitutionally averse to the philosophic precision of thought. By a natural confusion of ideas, he appears to have held that, because metaphysics admit of no demonstrably certain conclusions, therefore there is no such thing as precision of thought and expression concerning the relations of philosophic doctrines to each other and to their constituent elements. For example, in 505 D, he tells us that Plato's statement that, while men will sometimes acquiesce in the semblance of justice and virtue, they desire the reality of "good," is in some degree like the argument of Anselm and Descartes that the highest perfection involves existence. The author of such a comparison obviously regards the history of philosophy merely as a field for the exercise of epigrammatic ingenuity. He has no intellectual interest in precision of statement for its own sake. And the pity of it is that these fantastic *rapprochements* prevent him from seeing, or at least from clearly stating, what Plato did mean.

But it is idle to dwell longer on the inevitable limitations of a work that brings us so much that is helpful. We will only express in conclusion the hope that Prof. Campbell will find leisure to prepare a smaller edition for the use of college students, to whom the cost of these three volumes will be practically prohibitory. The work could easily be reduced to the compass of Monro's little two-volume 'Iliad' by excision of nearly everything that relates to text-criticism, condensation of the essay on Plato's use of language, and compression of the larger notes.

THE VARIORUM MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM.

A Midsommer Nights Dreame. [Variorum Shakespeare, Vol. X.] Edited by Horace Howard Furness. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1895.

WITH this publication, Dr. Furness completes the tenth volume of his New Variorum edition of Shakspere. The first volume appeared in 1874, and was received with acclamations, which each of its successors has called forth anew and in louder tones. Our readers are so well acquainted with the scope of the work and with the taste and learning of the editor, that any utterance on our part, beyond a mere announcement of the new volume and a gratulatory comment on the steady progress of the great enterprise, may seem superfluous. But we cannot rest content with so bare a mention. The very number *ten* tempts to a retrospect, and the richness of the volume forbids a mere passing notice.

In his sixth volume ("Othello") Dr. Furness abandoned his previous practice of constructing a critical text in modern spelling, and reproduced, as a basis for study, the text of the First Folio, printing it letter for letter with a high degree of accuracy. His reasons for this change of plan were eloquently set forth in the Preface.

"Who am I," he exclaimed, "that I should thrust myself in between the student and the text, as though in me resided the power to restore Shakespeare's own words? Even if a remedy be proposed which is by all acknowledged to be efficacious, it is not enough for the student that he should know the remedy; he must see the ailment. Let the ailment, therefore, appear in all its severity in the text, and let the remedies be exhibited in the notes."

This strong statement of opinion was, however, introduced by a hint that the change of plan was only experimental. Fortunately, the editor was satisfied with the success of his experiment, and has continued to reprint the Folio text in the plays that have since been issued. The advantages of the change are manifest, and it is hard to see any objection to it. The student has under his eye, in a marvellously condensed and legible arrangement, a collation of some forty texts, and he can choose for himself. The reading preferred by the editor is indicated in a note.

One result of this change of plan is interesting. Using the Folio in this way as a kind of standard, Dr. Furness has naturally come to have more and more respect for its readings. His respect in the present volume sometimes reaches the degree of an excessive reverence. Thus, in act i., scene 1, v. 149, he prefers "Or else it stood upon the choice of merit," to the Quarto reading "choice of friends," though the latter makes excellent sense and the former can with difficulty be harmonized with the context. To most editors the fact that the First Folio was printed from the Second Quarto has seemed an additional reason for preferring the Quarto reading in this passage. Dr. Furness argues differently. A stage copy of the Second Quarto having in all probability been sent to the printer by the editors of the Folio, it follows, he holds, "that the substitution of the word 'merit' for 'friends' . . . must have been made with authority." This seems to us a complete *non sequitur*. As Dr. Furness himself shows in his careful discussion of the three old texts (Preface, pp. xiv–xvii), the compositor of the Folio did some curious things in setting up this play. Besides, what is meant by "with authority"—a vague term, on the exacter definition of which the whole question hinges? When the variations between the Quartos and the Folio are in the aggregate so inconsiderable as in "A Midsummer Night's Dream," it is unsafe to make much of changes which are not corrections of obvious errors. Another instance of Dr. Furness's excessive regard for the Folio is his deciding for "His folly, Helena, is none of mine" in i., 1, 214. The mere fact that the Folio here follows the manifestly faulty reading of the Second Quarto when the First Quarto affords a better, is an argument against ascribing to the stage copy of the Second Quarto probably sent to the printer by Heminge and Condell any special superiority, in matters of detail, to uncorrected copies of the same impression.

For Heminge and Condell themselves Dr. Furness has abounding charity. His apology for them is pleasant to read; but "is not the truth the truth?" Be as grateful as we may for what they did for us, we cannot acquit them of disingenuousness almost amounting to falsehood in their account of the sources and the correctness of their edition. And it is the trustworthiness of Heminge and Condell, not their service to letters, that is of moment in textual questions.

Besides the ingenious apology for Heminge and Condell, which concludes a good discussion of the old editions, Dr. Furness's Preface contains interesting matter relating to the source of the plot and the duration of the action. The lost play "Huon of Bordeaux"—the illiterate Henslow's *hewen of burdokes*—is accepted as probably the immediate source of Shakspere's *Oberon*, and no importance is attached to Greene's "History of James IV.," in which Prof. A. W. (misprinted "W. A.") Ward finds Shakspere's hint for his fairy machinery. A strange error, which will no doubt be corrected in the next impression, is the ascription of "Otnit" in the 'Heldenbuch' to Wolfram von Eschenbach. The little excursus on the duration of the action is extremely clever and charming, whether meant in all seriousness or not.

The main value of a Variorum edition is, of course, in its notes, and the chief praise of the unselfish scholar who subjects himself to the toil of making such an edition is to have picked out from the mass of annotation such notes as are most significant, whether for their pertinency or because they throw light on the history of learning. To this task a mere accumulator, however laborious, and a mere compiler, however skilful in selection, are alike inadequate. What is needed is a rare combination of learning, enthusiasm, humor, industry, and

good taste. That Dr. Furness possesses these qualities and such other incidental gifts as are required of the Variorum editor was demonstrated by his first volume. With succeeding volumes the editing has grown steadily better, until now, in the tenth, we have the proportion between what is retained and what is omitted adjusted with much nicety. In his earlier volumes Dr. Furness, naturally less sure of his own judgment, sometimes, out of deference to an ideal of completeness, printed matter which he would now doubtless venture to omit. His ability to condense and otherwise to edit and arrange the work of his predecessors has constantly grown. The present volume, more than any of the others, gives one the impression of an easy management of an enormous collection of material. There is much nonsense in the notes, no doubt; but they would not correctly figure the course of Shaksperian editing if they were all rational. Occasionally one wishes we might have less of Warburton and his conjectures, but when it is remembered what a multitude of ineptitudes Dr. Furness has spared us, the rebellious wish subsides.

In his earliest volumes Dr. Furness was rather chary of giving his own opinion. He registered the utterances of others conscientiously and sifted them with skill, but he shrank from putting himself forward as a judge or arbitrator. As play after play has come out, however, "Ed." has appeared more and more frequently in the notes, and, in the volume before us, it is quite the rule to have a brief judgment from the editor at the end of a series of conflicting comments. This is as it should be. Not to speak of the mere convenience of a summing-up—though that is a consideration, too—the student wishes to know Dr. Furness's own views on controverted points. The original matter that the later volumes of the New Variorum contain is most of it well worthy of study. We find ourselves frequently in disagreement with Dr. Furness's interpretations, but we cannot help regarding them as among the most valuable parts of his work. They are marked not merely by an intimate knowledge of Shakspere, and by fine taste, but by a certain subtlety of poetic perception which few of his predecessors have possessed. The subtlety sometimes refines itself into super-subtlety, as in the attempt to explain the old reading in *Helena's* figure of the lodestone (ii. 1, 204).

In merely linguistic notes Dr. Furness is not quite so happy. He now and then lets the erroneous statements of others go unchallenged; and he occasionally ventures a philological suggestion of his own which will not pass muster. Thus the note on *as* (p. 163) betrays a temporary forgetfulness of the history of its meanings, and especially of its Elizabethan use. The suggestion (p. 215) that the accent of *certain* is misplaced, lacks exactness. The addition of *orange* to words which, like *auger* and *adder*, have lost an initial *n* by confusion with *n* of the indefinite article is ill advised. So of the remarks on *pert* (p. 7) and *jewel* (p. 10). In metrical doctrine the editor is a convert to Dr. Guest's theory of the "pause filling the place of an unaccented syllable"—a theory which, as usually stated, seems to ignore the essential difference between our metre and that of the Greeks. Whatever one may think of Guest's system, it can hardly be denied that Dr. Furness carries pause-substitution too far in his subtle discoursing on "Near this lack-love, this kill-courtesy" (p. 108). We are startled to observe (p. 98) that he scans "Quite over-canopied with luscious woodbine" as an Alexandrine—can our readers guess how?

The longest note in the volume concerns the vexed passage about the mermaid on the dolphin's back (ii. 1, 153–175). This note covers sixteen pages and a half—which will not surprise any one who remembers Halpin's 108-page essay on the same lines. As was to be expected, Dr. Furness rejects the wire-drawn allegory of Halpin; he is not even ready to accept Warburton's simpler explanation, but reverts to the opinion of Rowe. As a piece of editing, we regard this note as one of the best things in the ten volumes. Yet it is disheartening to think that the wheel has come full circle—that, on this particular point, the net result of Shaksperian scholarship from 1709 to 1895 has been exactly nothing. But there is one consolation: Dr. Furness's note should serve as Anticyra for mad allegorizers if they can be caught in time.

There are many other matters of detail on which we should like to comment, but space fails us. We will take a line, however, to wish Dr. Furness long life and "the wages of going on."

My Early Travels and Adventures in America and Asia. By Henry M. Stanley, D.C.L., etc. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols., 12mo. With portraits. 1895.

BECAUSE they are part of Stanley's 'prentice work, these volumes by the great explorer will have a special value. They mark the progress of his powers of description, and the growth of his education as an observer of men and of nature. The second volume gives his earliest knowledge of the African continent, where he witnessed the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, and made a voyage up the Nile to the First Cataract. Tours in Palestine, in the Caucasus, about the Caspian Sea, and in Persia followed, making eight or nine months of solid and pretty hard work in travel. Even in these early journeys we see the chief personal characteristics which marked his more mature work. His indefatigable industry, his nonchalance in new and strange situations, his faculty for getting on with men and making them serve his ends, his happy facility for falling on his feet in every sort of accident, his abounding self-confidence, his sturdy courage, all appear almost as strikingly as in his later adventures, and unmistakably show the stuff of which he is made.

For one so noted in his time, these volumes have a biographical interest which would fully justify their publication. They are a necessary part of the material for an adequate knowledge of Stanley himself and his career. And yet, besides this, they will be welcomed as contributions to the better knowledge of the world in some of its most interesting regions. The description of the opening of the Suez Canal not only is full of the local color which can never be quite the same as it was when the stream of European commerce first began to flow from Port Said to the Red Sea, but hits off the spirit of the time, the contrasts between French and English enterprise, the mercantile and political jealousies which were awakened, and which made it easy to see the Egyptian question looming up in the future. So, his observations on the progress of the Russian power in the great basin of the Caspian Sea, and his friendly hob nobbing with the Governor of Baku, touch up the spirit of the Russian officials in a way that is all the more instructive because of his manifest predilections in their favor. Such aids in understanding a great period of national development can hardly be overestimated, and it would have been a material loss to history if these letters had been suffered to be forgotten.

Of quite a different, but, as we think, a still higher value, are the chapters of the first volume which contain the letters that Stanley wrote from the Kansas and Nebraska plains in 1867. It was his fortune to be sent as a special correspondent to report upon the Indian outbreak of that year, and to accompany the military expedition under Gen. Hancock, as well as the Peace Commission of which Gen. Sherman was the head. This was the time when the railways to the Pacific were building, and when all the Indian tribes of the Missouri and Arkansas valleys were waking up to the fact that their great hunting grounds were being cut up into sections too small for the lasting existence of the great buffalo herds and of the timid antelope. It was therefore a crisis in the history of the American Indian. Such leading men as Satanta among the Kiowas and Red Cloud among the Sioux would gladly have played the part of Tecumseh and made a confederation of all the tribes east of the Rocky Mountains to resist the advance of the whites. But a vague conviction of the hopelessness of the struggle had penetrated the most remote of the aboriginal villages, and, although their inhabitants could be stirred to occasional outbreaks of war, it was a courage grounded on despair which they showed, more than a determined and hopeful resistance to the great wave of civilized migration.

Stanley's chapter descriptive of the councils held by Hancock at the head of his overpowering column of soldiers, and of those held by the mixed commission of peace-makers, is a contribution of capital importance to our knowledge of the red men and their history. The official reports in the War Department and in the Indian Bureau give the authentic record of the negotiations and their results; but we have here the descriptive picture of the Indians and their leaders, the unvarnished details of their modes of living and acting, the vivid presentation of their villages and their councils. We see their chief orators and braves, and get definite ideas of the qualities which constituted leadership among these simple and impulsive peoples. The special personal traits of the men who had gained and deserved the names of great chiefs are given by an eye-witness who was second to none in keenness of vision and quick appreciation of what he saw.

Stanley went to the frontier in fullest sympathy with the prejudices of the white pioneer. The squalor and the poverty of the red men caught his attention at first, and seemed destructive of the romantic associations connected with them. He felt the popular sentiment of the white community which assumed the spread of civilization to be the law of nature and of God. He was disposed to sneer at the idea of these wretched savages standing in the way of American progress. He caught the contagion of horror and of wrath when rumor spread the stories of cabins burned, men scalped, and women carried into a captivity which was worse than death. Little by little, however, a change is visible in his spirit, and the faithful record of the daily letter marks its progress. The earnest assertions of the red orators that God made them to roam the plains and chase the great game, that they should pine and die when penned up in the limits of a white man's farm, no longer seem fustian, but sound to him like heartfelt truths. He begins to feel that these men have clear in-

tellect, of a rude sort, and that they really see annihilation for them and theirs impending. He learns that their idea of home and country is as strong and as passionate as ours, though based on different impulses. He evidently feels the force of their appeal for a compromise upon one iron road across the continent, so that scope enough for the migratory pasturing of the buffalo may still be left. The wanton destruction of the vast herds which left millions of carcases to rot in the sun, in order that white men could have "sport" with their repeating rifles, or grow rich on the bales of buffalo robes, did not appear so much a matter of indifference when Spotted Tail, Swift Bear, or Big Mouth showed in vivid language how vitally it affected the Indian's life.

The whole Indian question comes out in startling clearness as we follow Stanley in his daily education in the subject through that long summer school upon the North Platte. He is much less dogmatic in October than he was in April. He is by no means so sure that he can solve the problem. The fruit of knowledge, in his case, as in that of other men before and after, is saddening rather than exhilarating in its effect. Whoever knew of the actual condition of the frontier in 1867, will bear witness to the absolute accuracy of Stanley's picture of it. The writer of this notice visited the "end of the road" when Gen. Casement and his force of trained men were pushing the Union Pacific Railroad up Lodge Pole Creek at the rate of six miles a day, and Julesburg was the canvas and shanty town where gamblers and bawds were the "residents" and lived by fleecing the frontiersmen who revelled in the rare chance of "seeing life." The Peace Commission was beginning its work, and the only news of interest was the story of some fresh Indian outrage. There is no feature of that strange episode which Stanley did not clearly see and fairly describe. The great reputation which he has since gained will make his narrative of that year's experience a leading authority as to the facts and an essential part of the history of the relations of the white and red men upon the continent.

That history cannot be pleasant reading to honest men. It is a long series of hollow treaties made only to be broken by the stronger party. It would have been better to boldly avow the rights of conquest, and to deal in a large way with the fate of the conquered, frankly dictating rules for their life, and enforcing them with full responsibility for the result. The resistless tide of migration would not be stayed by any bargain of the Government with the Indians; and when the Indians in exasperation broke out into hostility to the settlers, the warfare took on the character of a savage conflict, and its atrocities naturally excited the nation to destructive reprisals. Such veteran fighters of Indians as Generals Harney and Crook have unqualifiedly declared to the writer that they never knew of an Indian war in which the whites were not the aggressors and the first breakers of solemn treaties.

No one will argue that civilization must cease its progress, but every thoughtful person will feel what a deep reproach it is to our age that the irresistible power of a great nation could find no way of dealing with feeble nomadic tribes but by spasmodic and alternate resort to robbery and extermination, to fraud and to force, to cajolery and to war. Stanley has put a chapter of this continental history into permanent form which his reputation will save from oblivion, and will force all future historians of American progress to read with care, though with feelings the reverse of exultation.

The German Universities; their Character and Historical Development. By Friedrich Paulsen. Authorized translation by Edward A. Perry, with an introduction by Nicholas Murray Butler. Macmillan. 1895. Pp. xxxi, 254.

PAULSEN has earned for himself the title of an authority in matters of education. Every product of his pen, therefore, will be sure to reach a body of careful and sympathetic readers. The present volume forms, in the original text, the introduction to the work of the German Government in connection with the educational exhibit at Chicago in 1893. In its present shape it is by far the most readable treatise known to us, not merely upon the universities of Germany, but upon the general problems of higher education. For, in treating of the origin and growth of the German universities, one cannot help confronting such problems; and when the writer is a man of Paulsen's antecedents, he will of necessity infuse into his work the spirit of philosophic investigation.

The present treatise is free from the aggressiveness noticeable in some of the author's other writings. Being an official, at least a semi-official, publication, its tone is sober, and its plan is that of a comprehensive statement of facts and phenomena with the needed exposition of causal relations. As a result we are able to understand, better than ever before, how and why the universities of Germany arose, how they grew into their present system, what their training means to the nation at large. It does not enter into our purpose to recapitulate the author's positions. They are best learned from the book itself, which is admirably arranged, whether for continuous reading or for occasional consultation. We shall advert to one or two general topics only.

The author's mind is evidently not free from apprehensions for the future of the university system. We do not suggest that the temper of his book is in the least pessimistic; on the contrary, it is rather hopeful. Nevertheless, dangers exist, and the author is not blind to them. There is the spread of the money-making spirit, utilitarianism scornful of everything ideal; there is the all-pervading military spirit, the bureaucratic spirit, ready to subordinate learning to the so-called practical needs of the state; last, but not least, there is the ultramontane spirit, Protestant or Catholic, eager to subordinate learning to orthodoxy. Then there is the evil, inseparable from the good, of the *Lehrfreiheit* and *Lernfreiheit*; not to speak of the gulf between university life and the laboring classes. Paulsen is far from ignoring these tendencies and manifestations; but, surveying the university system throughout its entire past, his confidence in the deep-rooted attachment of the nation to learning as learning is unshaken.

It would be interesting to make, with the aid of Paulsen's book, some comparison between the German universities and our own. But it would scarcely be possible; some of our older and larger institutions give graduate instruction, even of the highest order, but as yet there is no system of higher liberal education. Yet the beginning has been made, and the progress is now both sure and rapid. Whoever looks back only twenty years, to the opening of the Johns Hopkins, may well shrink from setting limits to the progress of the coming twenty years. In wealth of endowment, in fulness of material equipment, above all in the zeal for research, we have abundant reason to be hopeful, even sanguine. But, whatever form the American university of the next century may evolve, it will assuredly not be identical with the German. On this point we commend to the reader Professor Butler's introduction, for its clearness and incisiveness. To our thinking, the form of our graduate instruction will be neither the American recitation nor the German lecture, but a *seminarium sui generis*, a free colloquium between instructor and student, a frank discussion of ways and means rather than a decision upon positive results. The relation between instructor and student will be more personal and intimate than it has ever yet been in Germany. Regular attendance at exercises will be a matter of course. But this personal intercourse will not, we believe, operate in the least as a drawback to independence and originality of research.

Of the translation we need only say that it reads smoothly and is an adequate rendering of the original. The index should have been fuller.

The Condition of Woman in the United States: A Traveller's Notes. By Mme. Blanc (Th. Bentzon). Translated by Abby Langdon Alger. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1895.

THIS volume proves that still another has been added to the file of wandering journalists whose appropriate legend is "I came, saw, and wrote." The attitude of mind in which it has been composed is by no means hard to come at. The writer has simply to determine beforehand that it is an astonishing country he is about to visit, and then to be ready at every turn, after his arrival, with his *mirabile dictu* and his exclamation-points. At the same time, all that has previously been written about the peculiar customs and institutions of the country in question is left out of account, and the astonished journalist behaves as the first observer to set foot on its shores. Thus it can be made a matter of agitated surprise to find women engaged in acts of mercy and charity adapted to the needs of time and place; or to discover in society all sorts and degrees of local and class variation in habit and manner; a primrose need never, in short, be regarded as a simple primrose and nothing else besides. "It would be impossible," writes Mme. Blanc, in contortions of wonder at the President of a woman's club, "for me to describe the quiet assurance or the polite authority of the three little blows struck on the table with a mallet to request silence."

It is not often that a dread of wide generalizations hampers the literary itinerant who has once set out to find the startling. In the search for sweeping assertions, nice distinctions are pretty sure to be overlooked. A slap-dash observer of persons and things can scarcely be expected to trouble himself about prudently guarded opinions, or tentative estimates of complex and shifting circumstances. So long as a broad generality comes patly to hand, it makes no particular difference what its source may be; the perfunctory remark of a hostess, of a stranger presented at a heterogeneous assembly, of an overinterrogated official showing a hurrying visitor around an institution—each and all may serve as the basis of one more unqualified assertion. Hence the fearlessness of exaggeration that makes it entirely in tone for Mme. Blanc to find at a woman's college "every means, without a single exception, for developing moral as well as physical growth,"

and, at the same time, a woman officer of the college who has a "perfect knowledge of the French language, French literature, and of everything French."

M. Mario Bertaux, who writes an introductory biographical sketch of the author, goes even a point beyond her: "In the United States woman is everything"; "she represents the intellectual and artistic element, is at the head of all moral and charitable work." One of her lighter missions discovered by the author is to "skim the reviews, the books, and the news for the benefit of the men." To the men, in fact, modesty would seem to be about the only merit left. Mme. Blanc is, apparently, not altogether unaware of this, for the one apology she finds it necessary to make for the quotation of a person by name is to a gentleman—the United States Commissioner of Education.

That personalities and the names of individuals, public and private alike, bristle all over Mme. Blanc's pages, it is needless to remark. Neither fulsomeness nor absurdity will, however, be found a drawback to the enjoyment of the large class of woman readers who look upon personal publicity as the final attainment of the rights and privileges of the sex. This desire for notoriety has been fostered by the methods of newspapers and periodicals until it has spread to the dimensions of an epidemic. A Frenchwoman has presumably been quick to note this, and, however distasteful her use of her perception may be to the few, it will undoubtedly succeed to a nicety with the many. Among those who are unfortunate enough to admire it, good judgment and the appreciation of relative values can only be still further shaken from their foundations by writing of this description.

Chinese Central Asia. By Henry Lansdell. In two volumes. Scribners.

THE REV. DR. LANSDELL is already known to the public as a traveller and a writer. He has distributed religious literature in various parts of the world, has journeyed many miles, and been in countries remote, difficult of access, and even dangerous; and these exploits he narrates with a certain pardonable satisfaction. He can also claim to be an explorer, as portions of his route have been over roads previously untraversed by Europeans. His last trip was during the years 1888 to 1890, and he here gives us a readable account of the most important part of it, namely, his wanderings in the territories which he calls Chinese Central Asia. He terms it "a successful failure" because, though content with what he accomplished, he did not succeed in the far more difficult achievement of getting to Lassa or even into Tibet proper. The incidents related may not always have been of the first importance, nor the opinions expressed of great weight, but we can forgive a certain amount of gentle prattle to an author who has done so much and whose intentions are so good. It is not every one who could or would go on such an expedition. The book is full of information at first and second hand, for Dr. Lansdell, who was well versed in the literature about the region he visited, cites valuable remarks from other travellers as well as some interesting history. His Appendix B contains a useful bibliography of his subject.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bickford-Smith, R. A. H. Publii Syri Sententiae. London: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Bierce, Ambrose. Tales of Soldiers and Civilians. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Black, J. S. The Christian Consciousness. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Cobbleigh, Tom. Gentleman Upcott's Daughter. Cassell. 25 cents.
Crackanthorpe, Hubert. Sentimental Studies, and A Set of Village Tales. Putnams. $1.
Davis, Varina A. J. The Veiled Doctor. Harpers. $1.25.
Dean, Mrs. Andrew. A Splendid Cousin. Cassell. 25 cents.
Deighton, K. Shakspere's King Henry the Eighth. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Dixon, Ella Hepworth. The Story of a Modern Woman. Cassell. 50 cents.
Dowden, Prof. Edward. New Studies in Literature. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Forsyth, Jean. The Making of Mary. Cassell. 50 cents.
Freeman, Edward A. Geschichte Siciliens. Deutsche Aufgabe. Erster Band. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Giles, P. A Short Manual of Comparative Philology for Classical Students. Macmillan. $3.
Glenn, Capt. E. F. Hand-book of International Law. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Guerber, H. A. Contes et Légendes. 1ère Partie. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Guerber, H. A. Myths of Northern Lands. American Book Co.
Guernsey, R. S. New York City and Vicinity during the War of 1812. 2 vols. C. L. Woodward. $10.
Hardy, Thomas. A Pair of Blue Eyes. Harpers. $1.50.
Hardy, Thomas. Desperate Remedies. Rand, McNally & Co.
Harris, W. C. The Fishes of North America. Part VII. Harris Publishing Co.
Hertwig, Prof. Oscar. The Cell: Outlines of General Anatomy and Physiology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Hichens, R. S. An Imaginative Man. Appletons. $1.25.
Hodgkin, T. Italy and her Invaders 535—553. Vol. IV. The Imperial Restoration. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Holmes, Mrs Mary J. Dr. Hathern's Daughters. G. W. Dillingham. $1.50.
Hume, Fergus. The Island of Fantasy. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Kelley-Hawkins, Emma D. Four Girls at Cottage City. Providence: Continental Printing Co.
Löher, F. von. Das Canarierbuch: Geschichte und Gesittung der Germanen auf den kanarischen Inseln. Munich: Jos. Eichbichler; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Lomax, A. E. Sir Henry Layard. Whittaker. 50 cents.
Lucas, Rev. G. J. Agnosticism and Religion. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.
Macdougal, D. T. Experimental Plant Physiology. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Macmahon, Ella. A Modern Man. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Macnie, John. Elements of Geometry, Plane and Solid. American Book Co. $1 25.
Maartens, Maarten. My Lady Nobody. Harpers. $1.75.
Martel, Comtesse de. Chiffon's Marriage. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents. Also, Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Marryat, Florence. At Heart a Rake. Cassell. $1.
Menshutkin, Prof. N. Analytical Chemistry. Macmillan. $4.
Parker, Gilbert. When Valmond Came to Pontiac. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Paull, Mrs. George A. Little Lady Valentine. Whittaker. 50 cents.
Pendered, Mary L. A Pastoral Played Out. Cassell, 50 cents.
Remington, Frederic. Pony Tracks. Harpers. $3.
Ross, A. A Black Adonis. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Stanton, S. W. American Steam Vessels. Smith & Stanton. $5.
Stedman, E. C., and Woodberry, Prof. G. E. The Works of Edgar Allan Poe. Vol. V. Tales of Adventure and Exploration. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Stephen, L. The Life of Sir James Fitzjames Stephen, Bart. Putnams. $4.50.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–83. Vol. XXIII. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stevens, Prof. G. B. Doctrine and Life. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1 25.
Stoffel, C. Studies in English, Written and Spoken, for the Use of Continental Students. London: Luzac & Co.
Van Dyke, T. S. Game Birds at Home. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.50.
Watts, H. E. Miguel de Cervantes: His Life and Works. New ed., revised and enlarged. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Webster's Academic Dictionary. American Book Co. $1.50.
Westall, William. Sons of Belial. Cassell. $1.
Williams, G. F. Bullet and Shell: A Soldier's Romance. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.50.
Winter, Noel. Pan-Gnosticism: A Suggestion in Philosophy. Transatlantic Publishing Co.

Paulsen's Introduction to Philosophy.

Translated, with the author's sanction, by FRANK THILLY, Professor in the University of Missouri. *First American from the Third German Edition.* With a Preface by WILLIAM JAMES, Professor in Harvard. xxiv+437 pp. 8vo, $3.50; postage 22c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 8, 1895.

The Week.

THE *Tribune's* report of the meeting of the Republican State Committee contains interviews with the leading politicians, some of which were evidently published through inadvertence. If they had been properly edited, we should not have been made acquainted with the fact that the return of prosperity is having a distressing effect on politics by eliminating the tariff as an issue. Thus, Mr. John Sabine Smith has just returned from a journey to the Northwest, where he found every preparation making for a boom in business, which led him to doubt whether the Republican party could carry another election as easily as it carried the last one. "I do not think there is any room to question our success in next year's campaign," he said, "if we can only hold to our present chances." "What do you mean by that?" asked the reporter. To which Mr. Smith replied:

"I was in Indiana, Illinois, and Minnesota, and the crop outlook there is almost marvellous. Not in ten years has there been such a crop-showing for the farmer; and a large proportion of the crop has been already harvested. If nothing interferes to injure that which is yet outstanding, it will be a great year indeed, and the danger, if any should arise, to be guarded against will be that of an *overflowing prosperity*, wherein the issue born of the last two years may be forgotten."

Mr. Sabine Smith's frankness was matched by that of Senator Lexow, who said: "This matter of reported increase in wages in various directions is a temporary thing. *If it is otherwise, then we are all wrong, and have been in the wrong all the time.*" He felt sure, however, that, in spite of appearances to the contrary, the situation was really bad, and that a thorough investigation would prove it to be so. He made the suggestion that the Republican newspapers should bestir themselves and show how bad it is.

Senator Peffer has a certain value as a kind of stormy petrel of politics, and when he says the silver agitation is dying out in the West, mariners may take it as a favorable weather sign. Silver is still "the leading question of the hour," declares the Kansas Senator, but people do not talk about it any more. There are no more public meetings on the subject, and during the last six or eight weeks there has been a marked indifference to the leading question of the hour except in the newspapers. We fear it is a sign of criminal neglect on the part of farmers and workingmen. They are so busy about their crops and their factories that they really have no time to meet for the purpose of denouncing a financial system that robs them of bread and destroys all industry. That, at least, is the excuse the silver agitators give now for the waning condition of their agitation. Ex-Speaker Crisp explained the fizzle of the Georgia silver convention in that way. How could you expect busy and prosperous farmers and workingmen whose wages had just been advanced for the second time, to drop everything, even under the witchery of Morgan's eloquence? No, we shall have to wait till the dreary winter days plunge the farmer into appropriate melancholy again. The worst of it is, though, that, as Peffer admits, the fall elections will be over by that time, and the silver men will have been "swamped."

The recent decision of the Supreme Court of Ohio that a municipality has no power to issue bonds payable in gold without special authority, simply affirmed a decision of the Circuit Court on the subject. The view taken by the latter court is published in full. The decision turns upon the construction of a statute. The city of Cincinnati was authorized by law to issue its bonds to the amount of a certain number of "dollars" for the purpose of refunding street-improvement bonds. It undertook upon this authority to issue bonds payable in gold dollars, and the court held that a "dollar" was "the unit of value of money as enacted by the Congress of the United States, and at the time of the passage of the law in question, as well as at the present time, the dollar of the United States consisted of a legal-tender currency dollar redeemable in gold or silver coin of the United States, and the gold coin and silver coin of the United States." Hence a bond payable in gold dollars would be a limitation on the statutory dollar, as excluding the use of the paper and silver dollars. As the bonds could be sold if they conformed to the statute and omitted the word "gold," the court held that this condition was not essential, and, not being essential, could not be implied. This conclusion was fortified by the fact that the Legislature had in several cases authorized the city of Cincinnati to issue bonds payable in gold or lawful money, or in coin or lawful money. These statutes were held to indicate that where this option was not specifically granted it was intentionally withheld.

The situation of the city of Cincinnati, therefore, was much the same as that of the Treasury of the United States before the last issue of bonds. The law authorized the issue of bonds payable in coin, and the Secretary of the Treasury desired to issue bonds payable in gold coin, but was considered to have no authority to do so without further legislation. But there is a difference between the cases which the Ohio court seems to have overlooked. The United States statute prescribed the issue of bonds "redeemable in coin." It would be hazardous to lend money on a bond which did not follow the wording of such a statute. But the Ohio statute did nothing of this kind. It did not direct that the bonds should be made payable in "dollars." It was silent upon that point. It merely limited the amount of the bonds issued for certain purposes to "twenty-six millions of dollars." Hence the decision of the Ohio court really amounts to forbidding a municipality to select the kind of dollars which it will borrow and repay. There are three kinds of dollars provided by the Government of the United States for the use of its subjects, presumably in order that every one may choose the kind that suits him best. But the municipalities of Ohio are regarded by its courts as not at liberty to exercise this choice without specific consent of the Legislature. When they contract to borrow, they must receive either paper dollars, silver dollars, or gold dollars, at the option of the lender. When they repay their loan, the creditor must receive dollars of any of these kinds at the option of the city. It is quite significant that this interpretation of the law was accepted by but three judges out of five, and it is obvious that other courts might not find it difficult to reach a different conclusion from that adopted in Ohio. We presume that this will be hailed as a great victory for silver by the bimetallists. If they could only obtain such decisions in all the States, they might succeed in driving up the rate of interest upon municipal loans at least one per cent.

The "original package" question has again come up in a case arising under a West Virginia law. The last Legislature of that State, in order to check indulgence in what was considered the vice of smoking cigarettes, passed a statute requiring dealers in the article to pay what was thought to be the prohibitory tax of $500 for a license. A tobacco company of this city shipped fifty packages of cigarettes to a dealer in Martinsburg who had refused to secure a license, and upon his making a sale he was arrested. His counsel took the case on a writ of habeas corpus before Judge Goff of the United States Circuit Court, claiming that the act of the Legislature, so far as it affected this case, was in violation of that provision of the Constitution which gives Congress the sole power to regulate commerce among the several States, and was consequently void so far as it concerned the business of dealing in cigarettes imported from another State into West Virginia and sold in the form in which they were received. Judge Goff sustained this contention, saying:

"The law, so far as it applies to cigarettes

imported from another State into the State of West Virginia and sold by the importer within said last-named State in the original package, is a burden upon commerce among the States, and to this extent in violation of the commercial clauses of the Constitution of the United States; and also so far as it relates to cigarettes manufactured in another State and by the manufacturer sent into West Virginia in the original packages for sale by the agent of the manufacturers, and so sold in such packages by such agent, it is for the same reason inoperative and void."

But the question is at once raised by the local press as to what is an "original package" of cigarettes within the meaning of this decision? Is it the case in which the cigarettes are shipped? or is it the little paper box which holds ten cigarettes? If it be the latter, the retailer could hardly do a profitable business, as to keep within the law he must apparently bring in each of these little packages separately, at two or three times the cost of the package at retail. It is thought probable that the State will make a test case of its own and secure an authoritative ruling on this point, which is a vital one.

Maryland newspapers of both parties testify to the indignation with which the outcome of the Democratic State convention of July 31 is received by Maryland Democrats. The declarations of the platform in sympathy with tariff reform and the financial views of President Cleveland are not accepted as worthy of serious consideration. Every one recognizes that Senator Gorman got what he wanted—which was the ticket; and that he will use every effort to elect that ticket in order to present the result as a Gorman vindication. The Baltimore *News*, speaking for anti-Gorman Democrats, declares that the latter threw away their opportunity in the convention as soon as they began negotiating for a compromise candidate, and that in such a contest "there is no middle ground—the Democracy of Cleveland and that of Gorman and Rasin will not mix"; and it plainly advises a Democratic bolt in November as the only way to disconcert the State boss. The Baltimore *American* (Rep.) says that Democrats in the rural counties are already planning to save their local tickets in anticipation of a State defeat. To offset this gloomy outlook, the Gorman machine will depend on a big campaign fund. The Senator's relations with rich Trusts and other corporations are notorious, and this will be just the time for them to show their appreciation of his past fidelity. Cleveland carried Maryland in 1892 by over 20,000 plurality, and every Congressman elected was a Democrat. Last year, with no State ticket in the field, the Republicans divided the delegation equally. Maryland will be a very uncertain State this year.

We are glad to see that Mr. Whitney's friends are putting him right with the public in the matter of his Presidential candidacy. He is not a seeker after the nomination—let that be understood. To the thousands of people who have besieged him with a request to announce himself as a candidate, he has repeatedly said that political strife is distasteful to him. He is not the man to enter upon a struggle for the honor. But, "in the opinion of many prominent Democrats," we are to see in a short time "a formidable movement" to make Mr. Whitney President. It is a mistake to suppose that he and Mr. Cleveland are at odds. The President is at Gray Gables, Mr. Whitney is at Bar Harbor. Perpend the significance of that, as also of Secretary Lamont's passing suspiciously from one place to the other. If the Whitney boom becomes truly formidable, his friends say he will not too violently withstand it. If an irresistible movement to nominate him sweeps over the whole country, "it is said he will accept." There are, it must be admitted, some faint signs that he would. One of them is his famous long-distance blood-boiling over a supposed insult to the flag. Another is his acute attack of international bimetallism. A third is the evidence that the rural press has begun to enjoy the fructifying showers that always descend upon it when the grateful cloud of a rich man's literary bureau passes that way. But the great thing is to have Mr. Whitney's friends insist that his position "must not be misunderstood." He is not a candidate, he affirms. But surely nobody will misunderstand that.

A new witness as to the evils of the spoils system in politics is brought forward in President Polk, an inside view of whose political opinion is given in some extracts from his diary prepared for the *Atlantic Monthly* by James Schouler. A number of the Presidents of the earlier days confessed their abhorrence of that part of their duties which made them office-mongers, but President Polk has not been cited among them. His diary shows, however, that the office-seekers were the bane of his existence. "Will this pressure never cease?" he wrote in 1846. "I most sincerely wish that I had no offices to bestow. As it is, I have no offices to bestow without turning out better men than a large majority of those who seek their places." More than a year later he wrote: "Almost the whole of my embarrassment in administering the Government grows out of the public patronage." The diary gives a number of illustrations of the wretched character of the general run of office-seekers, high and low. One prominent member of Congress who, not satisfied with the mission to Russia, demanded the mission to France, and was rejected by the Senate when named for that position, made his rejection an excuse for growing cool toward the Administration. Two other members who did not obtain offices created by a bill which they pushed through, also became opponents of the Administration. No wonder that President Polk wrote, "The herd of office-seekers are the most unprincipled persons in the country"; and "Patronage is injurious to a President." The diary relates an amusing incident in this connection. A man who filed an application for a place with the Secretary of State was asked what office he wanted. "I am a good hand at making treaties," he replied; "and as some are to be made soon, I should like to serve as Minister abroad."

One of the best practical tests of the value of the competitive over the spoils system of civil-service appointments is afforded in the railway mail service. This service calls for an intelligent and skilled force, so that when the places are filled at the dictation of politicians the evil effect cannot help manifesting itself. From the nature of the service, too, it is possible to form an exact statistical comparison between the kind of work done under one system and another. Postmaster-General Bissell, in his last report, using this service as a demonstration of the value of what he called "civil-service protection," showed that in 1889, after the service had been disorganized to meet the demands of political place-seekers, the errors, which the year before had been in the proportion of 1 in 3,694 pieces, increased to 1 in 2,834. Soon after this the civil-service rules were applied to this branch of the postal business, with the result that by 1893 the record for efficiency had risen to 1 in 7,144, and for 1894 to 1 in 7,831. Now comes the report of Superintendent Jackson for the branch of this service comprising the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and the peninsula of Maryland and Virginia, for the year ending June 30, 1895. The steady advance of efficiency under the competitive system is seen at a glance from the following table, showing the number of pieces correct to each error in the fiscal years named:

	Pieces.		Pieces.
1889	8,250	1893	13,887
1890	7,643	1894	15,972
1891	9,795	1895	16,433
1892	10,596		

This report also shows an increase of 42,000,000 in the number of pieces handled in the last year, and that 2,552,573 registered packages were handled with only 70 errors. Comment on these figures is unnecessary.

The industrial alliance, or combination, into which two great companies, the Westinghouse Electric Company of Pittsburgh and the Baldwin Locomotive Works of Philadelphia, are reported to have entered, is very significant of impending revolution in the methods of transportation and travel. It seems to indicate that economies long anticipated in theory have been realized in part, and that our existing railroads will presently enter upon the great work of substituting stationary for movable sources of power. For this, after all, is what is involved in what

is commonly spoken of as the substitution of electricity for steam. Really what is substituted is the stationary boiler and engine house for one that travels about on wheels. Instead of generating the power required to move every train of cars in immediate connection with that train, the power is to be generated at one spot, and drawn off where and when it is wanted. Perhaps the time may come when our magnificent locomotives, the pride of our ablest mechanicians, will be contemplated by posterity as curious instances of misapplication of power and waste of fuel. Already, when we compare the noiseless flow of energy through a slender wire with the terrific waste of hurling through space a locomotive weighing a hundred tons, we seem to feel that the old order must soon change. The possible economies in the wear of machinery and bridges and track are so great as to make it seem necessary that they should soon become practicable.

The Hawaiian newspapers, we observe, are greatly distressed over the July pilot chart of the North Pacific, issued by the Hydrographic Office at Washington. Upon this chart, at the request of the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce, the United States Naval Hydrographer, Commander C. D. Sigsbee, has traced the shortest steamer routes from this country and from the western terminus of the proposed Nicaragua Canal to Yokohama and Hong Kong. The result is horrible. Instead of Honolulu appearing in its well-known place as the key to the Pacific, the half-way house at which all commerce to and from the Orient must put up *en route*, it is left in a state of painful isolation. Commander Sigsbee shows that the shortest routes to the East pass hundreds of miles north of the Hawaiian Islands. The worst of it is that he figures it out, in a mean-spirited and un-American fashion, on the principles of great-circle sailing. In going from the Nicaragua Canal to Yokohama via Honolulu you would have to sail 374 knots more than via San Francisco, and to Hong Kong 367 knots further. No wonder the Hawaiian patriots, anxious to give away the country they have stolen, are alarmed and enraged by these figures. Commander Sigsbee ought to be removed at once. The San Francisco Chamber of Commerce brings itself under grave suspicion by even asking to have the steamer routes investigated in this way. Probably, if the truth were known, we should find the Sugar Trust or Claus Spreckels at the bottom of the nefarious business. As for the Washington Hydrographic Office, we should like to know what right it has to print such things on its pilot charts, anyhow. Pilot charts are legitimate only as they make forecasts of wind and weather, or indicate currents and prevailing winds. They are a scandal and a waste of public money when they undertake to upset long-standing and patriotic ideas about the true location of the cross-roads of the Pacific.

If we contrast some of the utterances of Mr. Chamberlain with those of Sir William Harcourt, we must admit that true Conservatism, as well as honesty, is better represented by the latter. Mr. Chamberlain undeniably resorts to the arts of the demagogue, and his speeches suggest those which we are unfortunately only too much accustomed to hear from our own party orators. Thus, at a meeting of miners in Staffordshire he promised his audience old-age pensions, assuring them that such schemes were much better than the abolition of the House of Lords. When one of his auditors called out, "We want enough to live on now, without pensions," Mr. Chamberlain replied that if the workingmen wanted their wages raised they must vote for the Unionist party, who would give them good trade by restoring confidence and developing enterprise. On the other hand, Sir William Harcourt told his hearers in West Monmouth that trade consisted in the demand which other countries made for the manufactures of England. The extent of this demand depended upon the condition of these foreign countries, and that condition was something with which the Government of England had nothing to do. The depression of business in America, in Australia, and in Argentina naturally affected business in England, but the English Government could exercise no control over such conditions. If the figures showing the movements of miners' wages in South Wales and Monmouth were examined, Sir William Harcourt pointed out, it would be found that under Liberal governments advances had taken place to the extent of 85 per cent., and under Tory governments to the extent of 60 per cent., while the reductions had been under the Tories 98 per cent., and under the Liberals 46 per cent. If it were true that governments had anything to do with wages, the Liberals had a fair percentage in their favor, but the fact was the governments had nothing at all to do with the matter, and to claim that they did was not an honest policy.

The difficulties experienced in having too great a majority have been recently illustrated in our own party history, and it is not improbable that they will be experienced by the English Tories. The depression of English agriculture has been most seriously aggravated by the disasters of the last two years, and the cry for protection is universally heard from farmers and land-owners. The reports of the Royal Commission on Agriculture contain the testimony of a large number of witnesses, and they concur in the opinion that the low prices of grain and meat are due chiefly to foreign competition, the remedy for which is to be found in protective duties. It will, of course, be impracticable to apply such a remedy as this in England, but the demand for it will under the present circumstances have so strong a backing as to be likely to prove embarrassing to the Government. The well-worn expedient of granting a Royal Commission to investigate can hardly be resorted to again. What the landed interest wants is not investigation but action. The results of investigation are already available, and show that in a number of the English counties rents have been reduced during the last fourteen years by one-third and in many cases one-half, to say nothing of losses from rents unpaid. In addition to this, the cost of keeping buildings in repair is now thrown altogether upon the landlord. On the other hand, the tenants complain that the embarrassments of the landlords react on them, making their tenure insecure and preventing them from obtaining necessary improvements. Under these influences the old system of long leases has been broken down, and agreements from year to year are now the rule. Altogether the situation is an extremely unfortunate one, for it appears to be beyond human power to ameliorate it. So long as the weather continues to be as adverse as during recent seasons, the condition of British agriculture must decline, and the new Government may well pray for favorable skies the coming year.

In one respect the Irish made a surprisingly good showing in the elections to the new Parliament. They captured some Unionist seats, and will have eighty-three Home-Rule members—almost up to Parnell's historic eighty-six. That they should have thus more than held their own in the face of the general Liberal slump, especially in the face of their own cruel and bitter dissensions, is certainly astonishing. It witnesses in a striking way to the depth and persistence of the national sentiment. But if we ask what it is all to amount to, what impression the Irish members will be able to make upon Parliament, by either appeal or obstruction, the immediate outlook cannot be said to be cheerful. The worst feature of the whole business is that the Irish are not at peace among themselves. It seems impossible to solidify their vote under a single leader. Mr. Healy's goings on are thought certain to lead to a movement to have him expelled from the Irish party as either a traitor or a man who has lost his wits. Yet he asserts, and appears to have, a following of 25 members. Then there are 11 Parnellites, sore and angry, and 47 of the old Nationalists. To combine them all into a compact and harmonious party seems impossible. The threatened reduction of Irish representation may do it; rough treatment of Ireland may do it; some now unknown leader of genius may arise to do it. But the most likely outcome, it must be confessed, is a continuance during the next Parliament of the wrangling and dissension which have wrought such discredit to the Irish cause the world over.

THE NEW GOSPEL OF PROTECTION.

THE learned pundits of protectionism have always assured us that their great principle of making people rich by taxing them was capable of infinite application and new developments. John Robinson was not more sure that new light would break from the Scriptures, to meet new needs, than they have been that protection, in the hands of its friends, is equal to every political problem that may present itself. If it is necessary to save the votes of the silver States, protection of silver at once becomes a logical extension of orthodox doctrine. The sugar bounty might be denounced by a fossilized old theologian of protection like Judge Kelley, as a heresy that would destroy the very foundations on which the righteous Pennsylvanians had builded and grown rich, but to the new lights of the protective system it was clear that a bounty was of the essence of the whole scheme, and hence the more bounties the better.

A new step forward is now to be taken, it would appear; a new article of faith added to the protectionist creed. Bounties on production, as for silver and sugar, are a part of the old orthodoxy; bounties on exports are to be added by progressive orthodoxy. The head doctor of this new theology is Lubin, David Lubin of California. A good deal of fun was poked at him by the Eastern press as long as he stuck to his native coasts. Even Republicans, not knowing that they were sneering at their future teacher and leader, spoke of him disrespectfully as a weak brother. But they are now learning that he is one of the weak things of the world chosen to confound the mighty. Lubin is on his travels. He has invaded the East, as ready as *Dogberry* to bestow all his tediousness upon any Chamber of Commerce that will hear him. And he seems to be carrying everything before him. Bath has capitulated, New York business men fled before him, Philadelphia has cast herself convulsively into his arms.

What is Lubin's doctrine? What are the weapons of his warfare? He has got hold of the great truth that the farmer is not and cannot be protected by import duties. The farmer is not in the importing business. He is our great exporter, sending abroad 75 per cent. of all we sell. What good does the sham tariff on corn or wheat do him? None at all, says Lubin, forcibly and truthfully. What shall he do, then? Refuse to be always the under dog in the tariff scramble, and insist that the tariff scramble shall cease? Not at all; that would be simply the wisdom of the children of this world. Lubin's doctrine is far deeper. Pay the farmer a bounty on all he sells, and the trick is done; the farmer is really protected, the political millennium is just around the corner.

Lubin's first great political success was won in the California Republican convention a year ago. His ideas were embodied in the platform, which demanded that "a limited portion of the receipts of the United States customs" should be applied to "reducing the cost of transporting staple agricultural products from American seaports to foreign seaports, to the end that the prices of these products should be advanced." There was the Lubin germ. If the Government would only pay the freight, the farmer would be so much to the good. But the germ has since expanded. Like other great pioneers of thought, Lubin did not at first fully get his bearings, did not fully understand his own principles. But his logical mind was at work, and the final result could not long be delayed. Why pay freight, which rascally monopolists might run off with, when payment might directly be made to the farmer? The very thing! Columbus's egg was balanced. An export bounty on agricultural products was the logical completion of protection, according to Lubin. With that faith in him he set out, a committee of one *de propaganda fide*.

But the propaganda did not propagate. Farmers are proverbially thick-headed and perennially busy, and did not take kindly to Lubin's new plan of salvation. He was puzzled for a time, but then went back to protectionist first principles. A bounty on agricultural exports must be log-rolled along with some other bounty. Why not try the ship-builders? No sooner said than done. The combination was made, Lubin's bounty was hitched to the star of a shipping bounty, and from that moment he went forth conquering and to conquer. The San Francisco Chamber of Commerce first surrendered to the inevitable. Portland, Oregon, and Seattle soon discovered how indissolubly agriculture and shipping were united, and how both must have bounties, or die on the spot. Eastward came Lubin's star of empire. The ship-builders of Bath, Me., hailed him as a deliverer, and passed his resolutions with enthusiasm. In New York, on July 15, fourteen men met with Lubin in a committee-room at the Produce Exchange, and adopted his resolutions "by a majority vote." This shows that the great business voice of the metropolis is for Lubin. But his completest triumph was at Philadelphia ten days ago. The shipping interests took him to their bosom and heartily agreed with him in "calling upon Congress to *equalize* the protection system by extending to agricultural staples and American shipping in the foreign trade that just measure of protection to which they are entitled, as long as protection is the controlling and public policy of this nation, and that this be done by an export bounty." In the "testimony meeting" for converted sinners that followed, Mr. Charles H. Cramp freely confessed his evil deeds "when we went to Congress and argued for a bounty for ourselves." That was a "grave error," and he was going to do the best he could to "repair it" by hereafter nobly arguing for a bounty to the farmers as well. So said all the other ship-builders.

This is no laughing matter. If protection is right, Lubin is right. If he is wrong, absurdly wrong, then it is time for the Republicans to say, as the confiding Lexow said about the relation of wages to a high tariff, "we are all wrong, and have been in the wrong all the time." Logic is logic, that's all we say, even protectionist logic. We have seen protection leave the "infant industry" stage for the "pauper labor" stage; seen it pass from hatred of foreign trade to glorying in it; seen it willing to wreck our finances and introduce the bounty system rather than abate a jot of its pretensions. Why not now go in, in a whole-hog way, as Benton used to say, for the bounty system, and make it universal? Down with the taxes and up with the bounties, and let the devil foot the bill, would be a popular campaign cry. We advise the *Tribune* to keep on being very tender of Lubin. Lubin is mighty and will prevail.

THE GROWTH OF CITIES.

IN the current number of the *Forum* Mr. H. J. Fletcher brings up once more the tendency of population to concentrate in the cities. This tendency prevails throughout the civilized world, and appears to be strongest in the most progressive communities. In our own country, Mr. Fletcher points out, the drift is from the farm to the village, from the village to the town, and from the town to the city. In other words, the communities of medium size experience both emigration and immigration. They both gain and lose population, and in many parts of the country they gain more than they lose. But in the older States, such as New York, and even Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio, half the townships were less populous in 1890 than in 1880. In New York State more than two-thirds of the townships lost population in that decade. From this evidence Mr. Fletcher deduces the law that wherever the land is fully occupied, all the people not actually needed to cultivate the soil are being drawn into the towns, and he reaches the conclusion that the evils and the dangers of the excessive massing of the people in the cities far outweigh the benefits.

It must be admitted that few conclusions are more firmly embedded in tradition. The maxim, God made the country and man made the town, has much of the force of a scriptural text, and many moralists have expatiated on the superior morality of the rural districts. But when we come to examine the premises from which this conclusion is drawn, we find that they are for the most part pure assumptions. Mr. Fletcher declares that, in the country, homes are cheap, the air is pure, all men are equal, and extreme poverty is unknown, while in the city all these conditions are reversed. The growth of cities "swells the number of the classes

most exposed to agitation and discontent, intensifies the dangers to be apprehended from social upheavals, and widens the growing chasm between the classes." He says that the student of social science "realizes that in times of social disturbance the great cities are an ever-growing menace to the public authority and even to the existing social order." The massing of dense populations means impaired public health and morals, and adds to crime, which is "increasing, like the cities, out of all proportion to everything else." In short, Mr. Fletcher offers the resolution that the growth of cities has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished.

Hardly one of these statements endures scrutiny. As to the cheapness of country homes, that is disposed of by a reference to the old story of the Irish immigrant who complained that he had to pay a shilling here for what cost only a sixpence in the old country; but when asked why he did not stay where things were so cheap, replied that there were no sixpences to be had there. Considering the quality of the homes, the rate of wages, and the steadiness of employment, it is far from certain that city homes are not cheaper on the whole than country ones. Even in the city of New York, where the conditions of residence are least favorable for the poor, the list of advantages provided by the community is something that the isolated farmer may well contemplate with envy. It is a mistake to suppose that extreme poverty is unknown in the country. Cases of actual starvation seldom occur anywhere; but, even in the most prosperous rural districts, suffering from penury is far from unknown. The mere laborer, who owns no land, is frequently thrown out of work in the winter months, and agricultural employment in general is far more subject to interruption than is the work carried on in cities.

The evidence also fails to show that the growth of cities increases the dangers from agitation, discontent, and social upheavals. The country has suffered much of late from these causes; but the trouble has originated, not in the cities, but in the sparsely settled regions of the country. The prairies of the West, not the towns of the East, have been swept by the greenback craze, the silver craze, and the Populist craze. There have been riots at Chicago, but there have been riots at Cripple Creek. There have been riots at Pittsburgh, but there have been riots at Cœur d'Alene. There is at least as much violence in proportion to its size in a mining town as in any great city, and probably a good deal more. The most atrocious murders take place in the most peaceful hamlets, and there are probably ten times as many homicides in the Southern rural districts as in the urban communities having an equal population. The assertion that crime is increasing "out of all proportion to everything else" lacks proof. It is doubtful if it is increasing in any proportion, and it certainly does not increase in large cities in any markedly greater ratio than population.

Taking everything into consideration, the dweller in the city can make out a pretty fair case for himself. He does not subsist upon pork, potatoes, and pie to the same extent as the farmer. He has better and purer water, and more of it, than half the farmers in the country. Trinity Church recently fell under grave reproach because in some of its tenements there was no running water. But the occupants of these tenements suffered less incovenience in getting water than most farmers regularly undergo. The inhabitant of the city has better schools, better sidewalks and streets, better light, better and prompter medical attendance and postal communication, and more if not better society. The farmer has purer air—so long as he stays out of doors—more opportunity for enjoying natural scenery, and, frequently, greater independence. That he is more virtuous than other people is a proposition which experience does not support.

Mr. Fletcher does not fail to observe that in changing his residence every man undoubtedly acts on his best judgment of his own needs; but somehow, when all act on this principle, the result is detrimental to society. But it is impossible that society should suffer unless its members suffer. Society is a mere abstract term, and we have the paradoxical conclusion that what is individually beneficial is collectively injurious. It is far more rational to turn to the great changes wrought by science and invention. One man can now produce bread for hundreds, and even bring it to their doors. The wants of men have incredibly multiplied, and they can be satisfied only by processes of manufacturing and distribution which are possible only in towns and cities. The increased power of producing food not only enables more people to live in towns, but compels them to do so. They would have no occupation on the farms, and they must live where they can find employment. Before these mighty forces human law is impotent. Under present conditions population necessarily tends to aggregate. There are results of this aggregation that are disquieting, but we cannot tell what the ultimate results may be; and if we try to resist what appears to be a universal process of evolution, we may only spend our strength in vain. We may be very sure that there will continue to be farmers enough to furnish food for the rest of the inhabitants of the earth, and, so far as we can now judge, the rest of the inhabitants not only will but must live in towns. There are many dispersive agencies at work, and there may eventually be a reaction from the present tendency. But its objectionable results are not so clear that we need consider that the public welfare requires the interference of the Legislature. If the tendency is prejudicial, it will come to naught; but if it is a phase of progress, we cannot overthrow it.

CONSERVATISM OF THE ENGLISH DEMOCRACY.

In a speech at Doncaster on July 20, after the sweeping victory of his party had been placed beyond doubt, Mr. Balfour summed up the general significance of the result with a clearness and comprehensiveness that we have not seen elsewhere equalled. Asking for the real cause of the "vast change which has taken place in the representation of England," he said it would ultimately have to be found in the fact that "the people of this country are, and must be, a conservative people."

"By conservative," went on Mr. Balfour, "I mean that the people of this country is, and must be, a people enamoured of its Constitution, loyal to its Constitution, and that it is as impossible for us to live upon perpetual political revolution as it is for the individual to obtain a wholesome diet on blue pills. The Gladstonian party appear to think that a passionate life of revolutionary change is a characteristic of democracies. Nothing of the kind. All history and reason is against such a supposition. The most vehemently conservative population now existing in the whole universe is the American Republic, where change is not desired, and where change, if desired, would be almost impossible to effect under the safeguards, the multitudinous safeguards, which their Constitution provides; and the Anglo-Saxon does not differ on the two sides of the Atlantic. We are, and we always have been throughout the long and glorious growth of our constitutional liberties—in the sense in which I used the word—a conservative people; and a conservative people in that sense we must ever remain. As a conservative people we must oppose—and it will be found that the people of this country always, in my judgment, will oppose—senseless and stupid revolutionary projects, ill-considered, forced upon them by no national necessity, required by no social growth, not called for by any real pressing need of the time."

It would be hard to dispute the essential justice of Mr. Balfour's inference. Leaving wholly out of view the question of Irish home rule—and it certainly cut but a ridiculously small figure in the contests in English constituencies—the programme of the Liberals, so far as they had any programme, was a complex of constitutional and social change far too vast for any party ever to promise or to hope to carry out, and much too revolutionary in its implications to find a welcome in cautious English heads. A few years ago it did look as if England was on the verge of a great social revolution. With no written constitution to fetter an omnipotent House of Commons, with labor agitators coming rapidly and arrogantly to the front, with both parties on their knees to the socialists—it did look, we say, as if almost anything might happen in English politics. But the deep safeguards of English political character have now manifested themselves. Constitution written or unwritten, the salvation of Anglo-Saxon democracy lies in its love for reform and improvement, not by cyclonic methods, but in the old, orderly, experimental, tentative fashion. The English elections do not at all prove that the English electorate is against all

change; they only prove that it is against changing all things, and changing them in one day.

In this respect they cannot fail to be reassuring, all partisan questions aside, to those who hope for the permanence of English political institutions. Especially reassuring is the terrific slaughter of labor and socialistic candidates for Parliament. Never before did so many of them stand. Never were they so vainglorious about their being the party of the future. Never was the "jolly smash" they were going to make of the obsolete British Constitution given so prominent a place in their election addresses and speeches. But never were they so smitten hip and thigh. Keir Hardie is still wondering over the "strange combination" that beat him so ignominiously in what he thought was a sure district. Ben Tillett is down, Tom Mann is gone. Messrs. Cremer, Howell, Rowlands, and Steadman are all turned out in their London constituencies; John Burns alone being saved, and he so as by fire. The only labor members to be returned, outside of London, are men like Messrs. Burt and Arch, who have been noted for their independence, and who have refused to swallow blindly the dose prepared by the tyrannical labor leaders.

This great result we consider most wholesome, both in itself and in its effects. It shows that even workingmen electors find out their own demagogues and throw them over. It shows that intelligence and character and a decent respect for the past still count for something. It will be a long time, we suspect, before dignitaries of church and state will again be found sitting at the feet of Tom Mann for instruction in their social and political duties. Confident talk about what the English democracy wants and is bound to have will not be so much heard. That greatest of all political fallacies of supposing that democracy, which is the most effective instrument the world ever saw for the diffusion of property, is especially fond of attacking the rights and security of property, will not deceive so many men so readily. Finally, both great English parties will be slow to kneel again, so abjectly as both have knelt, to social agitators. Already the *Times* is in a standing posture, and, in Lord Salisbury's name, busy brushing off the dirt as follows:

"Poor-law reform and the far larger questions opened up by old-age pensions will have to be tentatively and experimentally treated. None of us can see very far into the working of gigantic schemes resting upon some dubious fundamental assumptions. Recognition of the excellence of the end in view must not hurry us into financial complications of unknown extent, or into the dislocation of existing and well-tried agencies for the promotion of thrift."

Mr. Balfour would be the last man to say that England had pronounced against political reform and progress. If Lord Salisbury should rise in the Lords, as the Duke of Wellington did in 1830, and boldly declare his purpose to resist all measures of reform, he would bring on his head a fate like the Duke's. When the latter observed the stir his remarks had made, and asked one of his colleagues what he could have said to cause such a sensation, he got the candid answer, "You have announced the fall of your Government, that is all." Doubtless "the great social forces which move onward in their might and majesty" have, as Mr. Gladstone said in 1866, the political future in their hands, and doubtless they have great changes in store for England. But it is clear now that they must work hereafter, as heretofore, through the medium of an essentially conservative democracy. Change will come, doubtless, in ways and forms that we dream not of, but it will come in the good old English style—through the give and take of discussion, after cautious beginnings, by fair experiment, subject to retracing of steps or complete recall, and never in the whirlwind fashion of the socialists.

Correspondence.

LIBRARY STATISTICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia' is an admirable work, in many respects, but there is a curious mistake or oversight in the fifth volume of the new edition. On page 223, second column, under "Library," we read:

"The following table exhibits all the libraries of the world known to contain 100,000 volumes or upward at the latest dates. The figures given are for years varying from 1888 to 1892, except for the libraries of the United States, which are corrected to January 1, 1894."

The reports of a number of libraries of the United States are at hand, and the following table shows the number of volumes given in the Cyclopædia and the number of volumes in the annual report of the library covering the year 1893, or a part of that year. In no case is any part of the year 1894 included:

LIBRARY.	No. of Vols. in Cyclopædia.	No. of Vols. in Annual Report.
State Library, Albany, N.Y...	157,114	172,154
Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore.....	106,663	136,205
Peabody Institute, Baltimore.	110,000	115,750
Public Library, Boston.....	597,152	597,152
Brooklyn Library, Brooklyn, N.Y.....	113,251	117,669
Harvard University Library, Cambridge, Mass.....	400,332	421,872
Public Library, Chicago.....	175,874	189,350
Public Library, Cincinnati, O.	156,673	178,129
Public Library, Detroit, Mich.	108,720	123,828
Cornell University Library, Ithaca, N.Y.....	135,000	133,823
Astor Library, New York.....	238,946	250,422
Mercantile Library, New York.....	239,793	243,083
Columbia College Library, New York.....	135,000	160,000
Mercantile Library, Philadelphia.....	166,000	171,525

The figures for the Astor, Columbia College, and Cornell University Libraries are taken from the statistics of New York libraries for 1893, the reports for which closed, I believe, July 31, 1893. The reports of the Peabody Institute, Brooklyn, Chicago, and Cincinnati libraries include only part of 1893, from three to seven months. It may be worth noting that the Cyclopædia gives the Library of Congress 659,843 volumes, while the 'Official Congressional Directory' of the fifty-third Congress, second session, says that the Library of Congress contained "over 680,000 volumes." The Directory was corrected to February 1, 1894. It is evident that few libraries of the United States were "corrected to January 1, 1894." For a number of libraries the figures in the Cyclopædia are those of old reports, usually those of January 1, 1892; but in one instance the figures are at least five years old. The report of the Boston Public Library for 1893 is the only one at hand that contains the figures given in the Cyclopædia.

Very respectfully, Samuel H. Ranck.

Enoch Pratt Free Library,
Baltimore, July 23, 1895.

HISTOGEOGRAPHY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow one who is neither philologist nor historian to enter a mild protest against the attempt, in your issue of July 25, to coin a new word with which to designate a "science" not yet in existence?

In your review of Prof. Winsor's new volume on the Mississippi Basin, you go to the length of saying that the author "almost seems to have created a new science, for which as yet we have no name," and then proceed to name the result of this almost seeming act of genesis with a compound word which, from its faulty construction and awkward sound, grates too harshly upon the sensibilities as well as on the ear of even the average and unlearned reader. The term "histogeography," if there were a chance of its surviving, would not carry to the mind the concept of the influences of the earth's surface upon the course of human events occurring there, but rather, if it could convey any idea at all, of the geography of a web or tissue, for ἱστός means this latter, and its English form has already been preëmpted for the name of a science in actual existence. W. W.

Cambridge, July 28, 1895.

[We set no great store by our coinage, and natural selection will treat it as it has done thousands of like ventures. The seeming confusion of roots may displease the scientist, who, however, has no monopoly of ἱστός (which, by the way, was the weaver's beam before it became the web), and need no more see it in "*histo*-geography" than *demi-* in "demiurge." —Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

An edition of Shakspere's plays for school and college, making "an attempt to present the greater plays in their literary aspect, and not merely as material for the study of philology or grammar," is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

'The Minute Man on the Border,' an account of home-missionary experience, by the Rev. William G. Puddefoot, will be published by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

We lately gave some account of the way in which Gibbon's autobiography was pieced by a lady's hand out of several left by the historian. These are now to be printed together by

John Murray in a volume, entitled 'The Unpublished Works of Edward Gibbon,' along with his journals, mainly in French, from 1762 to 1764, and his correspondence. Mr. Murray will also publish a fresh selection of letters by the late Dean Stanley, with specimens of his verse, edited by Mr. Prothero.

The Selden Society have just published 'The Mirror of Justices,' edited by W. G. Whittaker, with an introduction by Prof. F. W. Maitland; and those lawyers and historians who have wondered about the book have now before them a text fit to work on, with some suggestion of a key to the puzzling contradictions in Prof. Maitland's introduction. Those who do not take the serious interest of lawyers will be pleased by the fascinating list of the abuses which the writer of the end of the thirteenth century found in our law. The one hundred and fifty-five abuses of the common law contain complaints as various as may well be, ranging from the stanch Tory view, that it is an abuse to drive a good and lawful man into trial by jury when he demands trial by battle, to the orthodox Benthamic complaint "that the laws and usages of the realm with their occasions are not put in writing so that they might be published and known to all." To these one may add the abuses which have crept into statutory law; and to the special attention of those who would like a comparison with the early Puritan New England view that a sin is a breach of law and a breach of law is a sin, we may commend the author's deductions from that view. To his mind there are three kinds of sins—real, personal, and mixed (p. 49). 'Bracton and Azo,' the parallel texts which are to be the Selden Society's next volume, are in the binder's hands. The 'Coroner's Rolls' (Henry III. to Henry V.) are also in press, and tell a bloody and dramatic story.

Any editor who sends the present generation back to Coleridge has a meritorious claim upon us—all the more if the selection from the poems be judicious and if the printed volume be tasteful. All these conditions are fully met in 'The Golden Book of Coleridge' (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan), compiled by the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke, who supplies notes and a long introduction, perhaps over-long from a writer whose powers of compression are exhibited in the opening biographical sketch of two pages. However, it proceeds from a mind saturated with a knowledge of the poems and the man, and is very sane in its literary judgments. There is excessive heat, mixed with some risky moral distinctions, in the argument for a special exemption of genius from exposure of its human frailties. We miss from the collection "Limbo," and "Beareth all things" in particular; and "A Character" might well have been included, both for its humor and for its autobiographical value. In the occasional curtailing which Mr. Brooke has openly ventured upon, we could wish he had spared "A Christmas Carol." The punctuation of the poems too slavishly adheres to the old editions.

From the 'Philosophical Works' of the late T. H. Green a selection has been made of the lectures on the 'Principles of Political Obligation,' together with a chapter on the different senses of the term "Freedom," by Prof. Bosanquet. These lectures make a volume of 250 pages, which is published by Longmans, Green & Co. Prof. Green's influence upon English thought was a powerful one, and this reprint shows that it is not extinct. Whatever opinion may be entertained of the soundness of his political theories, they are of sufficient importance to justify their presentation in a separate volume.

We do not know why C. McFall's 'With the Zhob Field Force' (Macmillan) was written, why it was printed, or, still less, who will read it with interest, except, perhaps, some Indian officers who lack better employment. The expedition described was utterly insignificant: there were no battles nor even skirmishes. The average reader will be bewildered by the mass of Indian expressions and geographical names—there is no map—and tired by the monotony of the style, which is that of a tame diary, and is relieved by the quantity, though hardly by the quality, of the illustrations.

The letters from Japan of the late Maj.-Gen. H. S. Palmer, F.R.A.S., published in their new dress ('Letters from the Land of the Rising Sun,' Yokohama: *Japan Mail* Office), deserve to be classed with Mr. Conder's works on Gardening and on Flower-Arrangement, and Mr. Morse's 'Japanese Homes,' as a handsome and entertaining work. Capt. Brinkley's careful and friendly editing, and the large type and broad margins, are worthy of a text which, originating in the shape of correspondence for the London *Times*, is yet sufficiently painstaking and polished to deserve this permanent record. The descriptions have a wide range, from "Japanese Polo" and "Cormorant Fishing" to "Parliamentary Reporting in Japan," and, as the work of a trained and sympathetic observer, are among the best sketches of modern Japan. The illustrations represent a tasteful selection, and are for the most part novel.

The 'Life of Henry Lamp, M.D.,' written by himself in 1710-11, printed from a MS. in the possession of L. R. Ayre, M.A., with an introduction by Joseph J. Green (London: Headley Brothers), is an interesting little volume and a welcome addition to the somewhat restricted number of really racy "Friends' books." All who take it up will be certain to follow the good doctor's narrative with interest, from his birth "in a large city called Conisberg, in a province called Prussia, situated on the Baltick Sea, in the year 1660, the 19th of the month called July," to where, as a "convinced Friend," he comes to anchor at Ulverston, in Lancashire, and marries one Tabitha Gurnell. He died in unity and good esteem in 1711, and was buried at Swarthmore. He suffered with the Huguenots, preached alchemy, and lost several fortunes, having had, apparently, as great a faculty for being taken in by designing friends as Moses in the 'Vicar of Wakefield.' The power of early Quakerism is strikingly shown in its ability to assimilate a man of such varied experiences. The interests of this memoir are much increased by the conscientious editing it has received at the hands of Mr. Green.

The translation of Oscar Hertwig's 'The Cell: Outlines of General Anatomy and Physiology' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan) will certainly prove useful to students who do not read German readily. Americans will be impressed by the apparently complete ignorance of the author and English editor that any cellular researches have been published by C. S. Minot and C. O. Whitman. Some, also, who have found in *proton* a short, simple, significant, and unambiguous equivalent for *Anlage*, will feel mingled amusement and impatience that one-half of the editor's preface should be devoted to a discussion of the troublesome German word, with the result of adding to *blast* and *fundament* the confessedly cumbrous expression, *elemental germ*.

We spoke briefly, a few weeks ago, of the Clarendon Press edition of St. Adamnan's 'Vita S. Columbæ.' This work has now been closely translated into English by "J. T. F.," and issued by the same press, under the title 'Prophecies, Miracles, and Visions of St. Columba' (New York: Macmillan). It furnishes much entertaining reading. There are a few annotations and glosses from the hand of the translator.

'Schiller, dem deutschen Volke dargestellt,' by Dr. J. Wychgram, is a just-completed popular biography prepared with a view of making Schiller more than ever the favorite poet of the German people. The discussion of the poet's works is woven into the biography, but is made a subordinate part of the work. The particular feature that distinguishes this from other biographies is its illustrations, which reach the number of two hundred and fifty-four. They are connected with every period of the poet's life, and are procured from almost every conceivable source, but most of them are taken from the collections of Schiller relics—in the Goethe-Schiller Archives at Weimar, at the home of Schiller's grandson, Freiherr von Gleichen-Russwurm, in the Schiller house at Marbach, in the libraries at Stuttgart and Weimar, and in the Zarncke collection at Leipzig. Among these illustrations the first place is given to portraits, and all of Schiller's relatives and intimate friends are represented. Pictures of places and houses interesting from their association with the poet are also exhibited, together with several facsimiles of his letters and manuscripts. The book is published by Velhagen & Klasing, and adds one more to their already excellent list of popular works, such as König's 'Litteraturgeschichte,' Knackfuss's 'Kunstgeschichte,' and Stacke's 'Deutsche Geschichte.'

Mr. Percival Lowell guides the reader gracefully through the mazes of the new Martian geography (or Areography) in the *New England Magazine* for August. The best service of his article is that it makes the classical nomenclature of Signor Schiaparelli less unfamiliar. Most wisely Mr. Lowell adopts this *in toto*, and has conformably named the features newly found, as embodied in his painstaking sketches last year at his private observatory in Flagstaff, Arizona, more than 7,000 feet above the sea. The so-called photographs of Mars are not, as he explains, direct pictures of planetary detail, such being thus far impossible; but they are photographs in varying presentments of a globe on which all the visible detail has been carefully plotted. Thus is obtained a chart of Mars exhibiting great advances over Schiaparelli's famous map of seven years ago, itself almost incredible at that time. The marvellous spider-web system of the *canali* has never been better shown, and Mr. Lowell advocates here as elsewhere the theory, by no means an unlikely one, that these thread like markings actually are irrigated and vegetation strips, and their dark circular intersecting areas real oases in the general desert surface of our neighbor planet.

In Mr. Barnard's sketchily written paper in the August *Photographic Times* is told again in outline the story of the achievements, many of them most remarkable, of photography in the service of astronomy. The splendid array of illustrations, unusually well presented, is made up entirely from negatives of Mr. Barnard's own taking; and the whole conveys to the uninitiated an excellent notion of the state of astronomical photography to-day. Mr. Barnard brings out clearly the vast advantages accruing from the introduction of the

dry plate about fifteen years ago, enabling comets and the faintest stars to be photographed, and enormously large but exceedingly faint nebulæ to be discovered which the eye will probably never directly see. But, with all the advances, much yet remains to be done —in securing all those fine details of the moon and planets which the eye readily sees, but which the photographic film, from the coarseness of its grain, is still powerless to record.

Visitors to Florence who have overlooked at Fiesole the ancient theatre built on a Pelasgic retaining-wall, have not done well. Discovery has within the past three years been made near by of Roman thermæ identified with the "Baths of Catiline," and the plan laid bare. This and the very considerable architectural remains are well shown and described in the *Reliquary* for July, 1895 (London: Bemrose & Sons).

The recent completion of the harbor works at Bizerta in Tunis gives a timely interest to an account of that place by Capt. Maumemé in the *Annales de Géographie*. Formerly one of the most important of North African ports, it had been suffered to fall into decay mainly through the silting up of the channel which connects the Lake of Bizerta, famous for its fisheries, with the Mediterranean, and the destruction of the ancient mole which had been built to protect it. The French have restored this and built another, three thousand feet in length, on the opposite side of the channel, which has been dredged to a depth of twenty-four feet and a width of three hundred. This is not deep enough to admit the large vessels of the French navy into the lake, so that at present Bizerta is not a menace to the English supremacy in the Mediterranean. But the author explicitly acknowledges that the main object of the works is to make it as soon as possible a "port de guerre." As this is apparently in direct defiance of pledges given to England that Bizerta would not be permanently occupied, it has the tendency still further to embitter the feelings of the two nations. Another article discusses the treaties of 1894 delimiting the French and German zones of influence in western Central Africa, and describing the territories assigned to each country. Very useful maps accompany both these papers M. Gaston Bonnier treats of the Alpine plants and their climatic relations, and M. Bérard continues his scholarly exposition of the Phœnician Mediterranean.

—Three of the magazines have this month one or more social studies of greater or less importance. In *Harper's*, Mr. Warner devotes part of the "Editor's Study" to comment on the quality of our consular service, and its influence on our trade with foreign countries. As his remarks have a hard headed relation to the interests of our merchants and manufacturers, they are not so likely to be brushed aside as the chimerical notions of a sentimental reformer. The extent to which these interests are neglected and ignored by the haphazard horde of our representatives in foreign ports, can best be realized by contrast with the keen business methods of the British consular service, with its grades and promotions, its life tenure, and its suitable pensions at the end. To insist, in view of Mr. Warner's observation among Englishmen in the consular employ, that American consuls must naturally become denationalized by lengthened residence abroad, involves an admission of the inferior staying-power of our patriotism which even the practical politician would be loath to make in plain terms. In the paper which most ornaments the number, Mr. Howells dates from the period of his own consular service in Venice his record of the shifting of the literary winds that at last blew him safe to port. These seemingly unreserved revelations reveal nothing of the internal processes in the composition of those poems and sketches by which the coyness of the Olympians who then inhabited the editorial offices of New York and Boston was finally overcome; but, so far as external adventure or misadventure with them is concerned, the curiosity of the most curious reader could scarcely crave greater frankness. Mr. Abbey's illustrations to "A Midsummer Night's Dream" are below the level of his best work in this vein; while in the accompanying letter-press Andrew Lang's parting thrusts at modern progress, Mr. Pepys, and Darwin are hardly lively enough to conceal the fact, obvious to any reader, that Mr. Lang also sometimes nods.

—The more restricted view of Mr. Warner's subject in the foregoing magazine gains breadth and impetus in the paper in *Scribner's*, "Six Years of Civil-Service Reform," by Theodore Roosevelt. Concentration of popular energy in pushing through Congress a bill to include the consular in the classified service is advocated in this paper, rather than the continued diffuse support of a number of bills in the general interest of civil-service reform. A further practical suggestion thrown out by Mr. Roosevelt is that "every man interested in decent government should keep an eye on his Congressman and see how he votes on the question of appropriations for the Commission." His inside view, from the vantage-ground of a National Commissioner, of the covert attacks in both houses on the existence of civil-service reform—by refusing to appropriate for the Commission—is at once an interesting bit of political history and an object-lesson to the general reader in what are glibly termed parliamentary tactics. Mr. Roosevelt distributes blame with a pretty even hand to both the Harrison and the Cleveland Administrations for their violations of the principles of civil-service reform; but in selecting for praise the Congressmen who have especially supported the Commission in its efforts to strengthen itself and to extend the scope of the law, he almost takes pains to ignore Dr. William Everett in favor of Senator Lodge. It need hardly be said that Mr. Lodge's loyalty to Mr. Roosevelt has been at the expense of his own consistency as a hardy "Machinist" and dispenser of patronage, while Dr. Everett notoriously refused to exert "influence," and, both in committee and on the floor of the House, blocked many a scheme to crush the Commission and undermine the statute. *Scribner's* is further kept in line with *Harper's* by attractive reproductions of some of Mr. Abbey's pastels, with comment thereon by Hopkinson Smith. For the rest, fiction, and, on the whole, very creditable fiction, swells the number to the expected bulk. H. C. Bunner is especially happy in the delicacy and grace of both his imagination and its expression, bringing to light, in "Our Aromatic Uncle," one of the possible cases of the obscure, minor heroism which suffices to cover a multitude of humanity's shortcomings.

—The particular social grievance to which the current issue of the *Atlantic* gives voice, in the form of an article by Harvey N. Shepard, is the present mean and injurious treatment in many States of that somewhat doubtful bulwark of equity, the juryman. The wrongs of the juryman, which, pushed to their limit, have been seen to expose him to locking up without "meat, fire, drink, or tobacco," have been feelingly discussed ere now; but in this paper it is temperately argued that, with the ordinary privileges of food and sleep at the usual hours, and with no more time required for duties in court than other officers of the law are obliged to give, "some of the objections in the minds of business men to jury service will have been removed." Without openly avowed intention of showing a rent in the social garment, the brief and dramatic sketch, pregnantly entitled "Thrift," might, if tracts were still among approved methods of proselytizing, safely be printed as a campaign document for the social reformer. Whether the married girl or the priest was the sinner, in this compactly packed page of human experience, would be an interesting question to propound to the casuist who still declines to let the individual go scot free at the expense of his or her environment. In a fourth paper on "Oases," Percival Lowell brings to a conclusion his stimulating account of the planet Mars, leaving the reader with an agreeable sensation of having considered more things in the heavens than is his daily wont, and with a final remark that, though "he will probably never find his double anywhere, he is destined to discover any number of cousins scattered through space." Of the most important paper of the issue, "How Judge Hoar Ceased to be Attorney-General," we have already spoken at length.

—The *Century* emphasizes, by giving space to two papers on the single theme of the battle of the Yalu, the international importance of the struggle for sea-power in the Orient. Capt. Mahan's "Lessons" from the fight, while technical in character, carry instruction to laymen as well as seamen, and might profitably be conned by certain Congressional committees. He finds the Japanese victory simply as a naval engagement inconclusive, while, as regards systems, the result is "a drawn battle," Japan and China sharing the high-priced privilege of settling the wearisome contest waged by Jingo experts over guns versus armor. Apparently (until the next great sea slaughter) the rapid-fire gun of moderate calibre has established "its position as the greatest offensive power in naval warfare"; and armor, "thanks to the operation of causes carefully excluded in testing, has come out ahead when it was struck." The name of Sonya Kovalevsky will be sure to attract readers to the article by Isabel F. Hapgood. Miss Hapgood's account of this notable woman, the first to hold a university professorship in Europe, is full of interest, notwithstanding its unsympathetic conclusion and a marked determination to point the writer's own moral at the expense of the weaknesses, not unparalleled in masculine annals, of the famous subject of her sketch. Henry Dwight Sedgwick's "Reminiscences of Literary Berkshire" are of an old-fashioned order of wholly appreciative recollections of notabilities with whom a life-time of fortunate acquaintance has brought him in contact, and who have given to the country about Stockbridge, Lenox, and Pittsfield the atmosphere of personal association which makes its history no less attractive than its scenery. In "The Lilies of Nola" is pleasantly described and illustrated an Italian June festival with which few readers are likely to be familiar.

—The two Fellowships in Classical Archæology, recently mentioned in these columns, offered for the year 1895-'96 by the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, have just been awarded. The successful applicants were Frank C. Babbitt, A.B. (1890) and Ph.D. (1895) at Harvard, and Herbert F. De Cou, A.B. (1888) and A.M. (1890) at the University of Michigan. Mr. De Cou was a student at the School at Athens in 1891-'92, and for the last three years has been an instructor in the University of Michigan. These fellowships, each of the value of $600, were awarded by a special committee, on the basis of such written evidence of fitness as the candidates were able to furnish. The showing made by the applicants was unexpectedly strong. This was gratifying, but it made the decision of the committee difficult. There were seventeen applicants, two of them women. These candidates had taken their first degree at thirteen different American colleges; four had received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy by examination; six had studied abroad. Fifteen were teachers, five holding the rank of professor or assistant-professor. Twenty-four fellowships or scholarships had been held by them. Their studies had been carried on in twenty-one different colleges and universities, five in Germany included. Three applicants had previously been students at the School at Athens. All the applicants, except four, had done graduate work in some university of good reputation. In 1896-'97, and thereafter, the fellowships within the gift of the Managing Committee of the School at Athens will be awarded by competitive examination. The examination will be held, about the middle of May, at different colleges in this country, at Athens, and in northern Europe. Full information as to subjects, time, and place will be given in the next report of the Managing Committee, to be published in September or October of the present year. Special inquiries should be addressed to Prof. John Williams White, Chairman of the Committee on Fellowships, Cambridge, Mass.

—When a student at the School in 1891-'92, Mr. De Cou made an important discovery which furnishes another amusing instance of the disposition of the makers of books to draw on their predecessors for facts without verification. While making a careful study of the frieze of the choregic monument of Lysicrates, he discovered that the frieze would not square with the representations of it in the books. The original frieze naturally seemed to him to have the greater authority. He traced the error back through seven different works by authors of reputation, published between 1825 and 1890, and discovered that its source was the original publication of Stuart and Revett, in which two of the sheets containing the drawings had been misplaced, thus reversing the proper order of the figures! This set the original composition sadly askew, but the learned authors of the books never twigged the blunder—one of them, indeed, especially commended the *symmetry* shown in the composition of this portion of the relief. The deductions which Mr. De Cou was himself able to draw from a correct knowledge of the relief are of great importance.

—This quarter's instalment of the Oxford English Dictionary (Macmillan) leads us, under Dr. Murray's guidance, from *Deject* to *Depravation*—a tract, as he points out, so fully occupied by words of Latin origin largely taken over through the French that only ten out of 1,269 "main words" are of Old English origin. Of the borrowings, he cites eight words of very great utility, and it is noticeable that these all have a poetical capacity. Hatzfeld and Darmesteter's new French Dictionary now begins to be of obvious service as supplementing Littré for dates and etymology. French of derivation is *dentist*, and, as an innovation for the less comprehensive *tooth-drawer*, it was not acceptable to the purists of 1759; *dentistry* was a neologism as late as 1838. *Demoralize* and *denationalize* we owe to the French Revolution, but Noah Webster makes a prior claim to the former vocable. *Delimit* and *delimitation* are of the French of 1773, and, so far as appears, Gladstone was the first to avail himself of the verb, in 1852, and Sir H. Taylor of the noun, in 1836. *Delaine* was abbreviated from *mousseline de laine*, and how English writers and printers fumbled with it is shown in the forms *De Laine* (1849), *de-laine* (Dr. O. W. Holmes, 1860), and the now current *delaine*. *Depot* is fourteenth-century French, disregarded in English till the last decade of the eighteenth century, and still in a state of flux as respects both orthography and pronunciation. One may write *depot*, as in the earliest quotations and in common usage at the present day, or *depôt* or *dépôt;* and may pronounce as in French, or as day'po, dip'o, or deep'o. A similar uncertainty attends the derivates of *demagogue*—a word which we seem to have outstripped the French in adopting. *Fraser's Magazine* wrote *demagoguic* and *demagoguism* in 1831, affirming the hard *g;* Coleridge, ambiguously, *demagogic* in 1834; *Blackwood* preferred *demagogism* in 1824. And chiefly in this country is used *demagoguery*. *Demagoguish* or *demagogish* can be written, and *demagogy* pronounced, according to taste.

—The Latin prefix *de-* enters into the composition of the great majority of the words in this section of the Dictionary, and its primitive sense is often perverted. In "demereri," 'to merit, deserve,' it had an intensive force, and accordingly the earliest meaning attached to *demerit* in English was 'merit, desert'; but in this instance "in Romance the prefix appears to have been taken in a privative sense," and that influence presently engendered in our tongue a parallel and contemporary usage of 'desert in a bad sense, sin, offence,' which finally carried the day. In general, too, as an active element in forming compounds, the privative sense has come decidedly to the fore, and is naturally first hazarded in popular etymologizing. An unfamiliar word like *denigration*, for example, apart from the context, would perhaps suggest to most minds 'whitewashing' rather than 'blackening,' and the former meaning was plainly intended to be given to it by the scholarly J. H. Blunt in 1868, when, in a passage cited by Dr. Murray, he wrote the word with a hyphen ("de-nigration"). We may accordingly surmise that the ambiguity of *de-* has contributed to the obsolescence of longer forms like *depeculation* and *deperdition*, which the poets might have wished to retain for the sake of the extra syllable. And would it be a rash guess that the following is the original reading—afterwards, with his not always sober second thought, changed to *descending*—of the first stanza of Wordsworth's "Beggars"—

> "nor the hood
> Of that blue cloak which to her feet
> *Depended* with a graceful flow"?

This lection we do not find quoted by Dr. Murray, though it would have filled a gap in the historic chronology between Cowper and Jefferies, as likewise, by the way, would Lowell's "lone Inventor by his *demon* haunted"; and it would have been refreshing to meet with Cotton Mather's account of his father's last illness, that "he fell into an Apoplectic sort of *Deliquium*."

THE MORANT BAY TRAGEDY.

The Tragedy of Morant Bay: A Narrative of the Disturbances in the Island of Jamaica in 1865. By Edward Bean Underhill, LL.D., Honorary Secretary of the Baptist Missionary Society. London: Alexander & Shepheard. 1895. 8vo, pp. xix, 219.

THE Morant Bay Tragedy is the name given to the catastrophe at Jamaica by Dr. E. B. Underhill, a Baptist missionary who played a leading part on the side of humanity in those events, and now puts forth an apologetic narrative on his own behalf and that of his order. That man must be an historical optimist indeed who can see in the transportation of the negro to the New World a step in a beneficent evolution. Hayti and the war of secession proclaimed the ban of nature and morality on the slave trade. Nor will the cup of wrath have been drained till the problem of the South has been solved and the lynchings cease. England may be said to have escaped materially with a fine of a hundred and fifty millions of dollars. But she suffered morally by her unhallowed acquisition. The wealth which West Indian proprietors brought her was unblessed. They were as a class vulgar and luxurious plutocrats, socially less desirable than are the returned colonial millionaires of the present day, while they could not fail to be somewhat tainted in character by the evil source of their wealth. Of one of them the story was current that, seeing some of his guests, after a grand entertainment, at a loss about their conveyances, he waved his hand and said, "Bring round more carriages and four."

That the work of West Indian emancipation was, on the whole, well done and set a good example to the world, none but an Anglophobe will deny. In this case there was, what in the case of slavery in the United States there was not, a superior power to enact the measure and dictate the terms. Nor was it a power unfavorable to the negro; for in England the black man, having there never borne the brand of slavery, was regarded not with contempt or aversion, but rather as an object of sympathy or amused curiosity, and, when brought by the West Indian proprietor as a servant, was well received in the servants' hall. While the Governor of a Southern State is forced publicly to apologize for having inadvertently admitted a black man to his table, a leading club in London has admitted a coal-black African bishop as its guest. Unfortunately the British Government did not understand, and, perhaps, with such lights as it had in those days, could hardly be expected to understand, the social and political situation which, by emancipating the blacks, it had created. When two races, a stronger and a weaker, are brought together, the only effectual security for peace and equity is the balance of justice held by the hand of a superior and impartial power. Representative government in Jamaica was sure to lead to a strife of races, to the oppression of the weaker race, to insurrection when oppression passed endurance, and in the end to some such tragedy as that of Morant Bay.

The whites, as might have been expected, got power, both legislative and judicial, into their own hands and used it in their own interests as

a race. Representative institutions were in fact a mockery. In 1864 the number of persons qualified to vote for the forty-seven members of the House of Assembly was only 1,903, and the number of actual voters only 1,457, out of a population of 436,000. Secretaries for the Colonies deplored the lack of regard for the interests of the black people evinced in Jamaican legislation, and the exclusion of the bulk of the population from the suffrage, without seeing, or at least without doing, what was necessary to avert disaster. To the black peasantry the legislative and judicial firmament was brass and iron. Their discontent had been increased by bad seasons. They had a leader in George William Gordon, a half-caste, married to an English wife, a man of property, religious, and of fair repute. They had advocates in the Baptist missionaries, who were afterwards accused of stirring up disaffection because they had tried to obtain redress of the grievances which were its cause. Under these auspices they had been holding meetings; but no evidence of anything like a conspiracy or even of combination among them was ever produced. The riot at Morant Bay which fired the mine was local and accidental. It arose out of the arbitrary conduct of the district Custos, or Justice of the Peace. A mob gathered and assaulted the police. The volunteers were called out, fired on the mob, and killed or wounded a number of them. The mob being armed, a combat ensued in which twenty persons, volunteers and others, including the Custos and an Anglican clergyman who had made himself much hated, were slain by the mob, while thirty-four of the party were allowed to escape. A wave of disturbance spread over the adjoining district; but after the first affray only one white was killed, though for three days the blacks were in possession of that angle of the island. That the blacks had mutilated bodies, flayed one man, roasted another alive, disembowelled a third, and put out the eyes of a fourth, were the wild imaginings of white panic. Not a single woman or child suffered, and the suggestion that the women were spared only for worse horrors was perfectly gratuitous. A small body of regular troops would soon have restored order, and the Governor had ample force, military and naval, at his command.

It is but justice to British governors to say that in such circumstances they have usually borne themselves well. In the case of the Sepoy mutiny the Governor-General of India, Lord Canning, saved the honor of England by nobly controlling the sanguinary panic of the dominant race. But Edward John Eyre, the Governor of Jamaica, was an unhappy exception to the character of his class. Dr. Underhill, wishing to be candid, says that Eyre came with benevolent intentions. The intentions of most men are benevolent till their evil passions get the upper hand. Instead of attempting to control the panic rage of the whites, Eyre threw himself headlong into it, and gave the signal for a murderous reign of terror which has left a deep and ineffaceable stain on the honor of his country.

In a few days the insurrection was at an end. Not the slightest stand was ever made against the troops. On the 20th of October, Gov. Eyre certified under his own hand that the rebellion had been crushed, and that all the principal persons concerned in the outrages had been killed or captured. Yet on that very day fifty-one men and women were tried and hanged, and the reign of terror went on for twenty-five more days, with an average during three weeks of eighteen executions a day. Altogether four hundred and thirty-nine men and women were put to death, and the number flogged could not have been less than six hundred. Out of the four hundred and thirty-nine put to death, three hundred and twenty-six were executed on and after the 20th of October. The hangings went on till the thirty-fourth day (nearly five weeks) from the outbreak. The floggings were awfully severe; a hundred lashes was a common number for men and thirty for women. One of the officers employed officially notes that "the writhing and intense agony of the lash is dreadful to witness." Wire was twined with the whips. Of those who were flogged with the cat-o'-nine-tails many were women, on the simple charge of stealing. Among them was a woman with child. In hardly any case was there the shadow of evidence of guilt or even a decent form of judicial investigation. To complete the scene of devilry, the savage Maroons were called in and let loose upon the peasantry. By the ferocious exultation with which the atrocities were committed and the language held in glorification of them, the perpetrators showed that they were actuated not merely by wild panic but by murderous hatred and contempt of the inferior race. Conspicuous for cowardly ferocity, even among these butchers and torturers, was Ramsay, the Provost-Marshal, who wore the Victoria Cross. Among his exploits was the execution of George Marshall, a colored man who, on bare suspicion that he had stolen some woollen goods, was, by Ramsay's order, tied to a gun and flogged. On receiving the forty-seventh or forty-eighth lash, when his back was like a piece of raw flesh, bleeding profusely, the victim turned round and ground his teeth. Ramsay ordered him at once to be hanged. He was taken down, thrown on his back, his hands and feet tied, a rope put over his head and thrown over a rail, and "he was twisted up as you would a barrel of flour." He had no drop. After he had been suspended three minutes, a huge stone was taken and put between his arms which were tied behind him. The Provost Marshal then said, "Take him from the gun and hang him." A thousand cottages of the peasantry were burned in the mere wantonness of hatred.

The case of William Gordon stands apart. There was personal enmity of the bitterest kind between him and Governor Eyre, whose measures Gordon, as champion of the blacks, had often opposed in the Assembly. In connection with the quarrel, Eyre had drawn on himself a rebuke from the Colonial Secretary for irrelevant aspersions of private character. Gordon had nothing whatever to do with the rising at Morant Bay. At the time he was at Kingston, many miles away. His friends advised him to withdraw. But he, conscious of his innocence, refused. Hearing that a warrant had been issued for his arrest, he voluntarily gave himself up. Kingston was not under martial law. Eyre himself put Gordon on shipboard, carried him to Morant Bay, where martial law prevailed, and handed him over to the court-martial which was sitting there. The prisoner was tried and condemned to death by a court of reckless butchers with every circumstance of insolence, injustice, and cruelty; and the sentence was executed with the special and personal approbation of Governor Eyre. A Royal Commission pronounced afterwards that there was no sufficient proof either of Gordon's complicity in the outbreak at Morant Bay, or of his being a party to general conspiracy against the Government; and the Chief Justice of England condemned the whole proceeding as illegal. It seems impossible to designate the act of Governor Eyre in thus taking the life of his personal enemy under the abused forms of martial law as anything but murder.

The friends of humanity in England, headed by Bright and Mill, forming themselves into a committee, did their best to obtain justice and purge the honor of their country. They were, of course, denounced by the Tories and Jingoes as traitors to the empire, and they would have freely avowed that they cared little for empire if it was not to be an empire of law. Their efforts had but a very limited measure of success. All attempts to bring Eyre to trial for the death of Gordon were frustrated by Toryism and Jingoism, which, predominating in London grand juries and aristocratic Courts of Quarter Sessions, had power to bar the gates of justice. The State Church played her usual part—the part which, as Burke tells us, she played at the time of the American Revolution, as the pious handmaid of arbitrary power. The evangelical clergy of the Establishment, few in number, were inclined to the side of Christianity; but the bulk of the order showed their political sympathy with Eyre, while the Nonconformist ministers as a class took the better part. A bishop signed the manifesto in Eyre's favor, and the church-bells of a country parson were rung when the Quarter Sessions refused to commit. Carlyle's set, including Ruskin, were, of course, on the side of sanguinary violence, which they mistook for force, while morally it was the extreme of weakness. Kingsley specially distinguished himself by the part he took in a complimentary banquet to Eyre, as he had before by his conspicuous apostasy on the subject of American slavery at the time of secession. Lord Chief Justice Cockburn, in a charge to the grand jury of London, vindicated the principles of personal liberty against the abominable doctrines of martial law proclaimed on the bench by Judge Blackburn and supported in Parliament by Disraeli and the Jingoes. The Jamaica Committee did not want Eyre hanged, but they did want to have it established that a Governor of a Colony who put a man to death without law should answer for his act at the bar of Imperial justice.

The Government sent out a Commission of Inquiry, whose report, whitewashing as it was, could not fail to record indisputable facts. Governor Eyre was suspended and was not reappointed. Cockburn's charge and the removal of Eyre were the sum of the success achieved by the Jamaica Committee. In Jamaica, Ramsay was brought to trial, but was of course acquitted by the white jury, and stalked out of court with his Victoria Cross upon his breast. The best result of the catastrophe was the abolition of the Jamaica Constitution and the resumption of a tutelary power by the Imperial Government. Since that time, if the island has not prospered, there has been peace between the races.

This history is full of important warning, not only with regard to the race problem in the South, but in regard to the future of Africa, for the possession of which the European powers are now scrambling, too regardless of the existence of the large native population. Before, the black man was transported to the home of the white; now, the white man is settling in the home of the black. The exploits of Stanley are in themselves enough to show that the tragedy of Morant Bay is not likely to be the last of the series. To future British governors and to British settlers gene-

rally in Africa Dr. Underhill's history may be a salutary warning.

BIRD-LORE AT HELIGOLAND.

Heligoland as an Ornithological Observatory: The Result of Fifty Years' Experience. By Heinrich Gätke. Translated by Rudolph Rosenstock. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1895. Royal 8vo, pp. xii, 599, 2 portraits and other illustrations.

HELIGOLAND is the magnetic pole of the bird-world, and few ornithologists can remember a time when it was not an observing-station in charge of a keeper, now in his eighty-third year, who has stood during half a century a unique figure in our annals—a sort of Pharos, not less conspicuous than the beacon on the island itself, steadily throwing light on that "way of the eagle in the air" which the wise man of old declared to be a mystery. This volume is the mature fruit of experiences unparalleled in the life of any single observer, and what Herr Gätke has not learned of bird-migration is known to no one. Billions of birds have winged their way in the eyes of one man, and sounded in his ears the messages they bore; if there be any mystery left, then some of the problems are insoluble, and full explanation of such phenomena is, as of yore, forbidden fruit in the ornithological garden. Sciolists who have written books upon what they do not know about flight and migration will find that the schoolmaster is abroad, with ruthless iconoclasm; but those whose experiences are ripest and soundest will prize this book most highly, for it will justify their own confessions of ignorance, while it confirms them in all they have well and truly learned.

Heligoland is the most peculiarly situated and most successfully operated ornithological observatory on the face of the globe—this little three-cornered island in the German Ocean, hardly more than a mile on its longest side—a mere red rock, flat-topped and steep-sided, with a low white sandspit at one end, and bare but for greensward. A more unpromising place could hardly be imagined for anything beyond a fair sprinkling of sea-birds the year around, and moderate migrations in spring and fall. But the name means "holy land," and all good birds go to this Mecca at least once in their lives, or perish in the attempt to reach it; there is no Heligoland but this one, and Gätke is its prophet. At least it would seem so when we scan the record and find that birds have flown from every quarter of the globe to swell the most remarkable list ever drawn up for a single isolated locality of no considerable extent and no obvious attractions. To be sure, it includes no ostriches or cassowaries; but the penguin or the hummingbird would hardly be more miraculous than some of the epiphanies actually witnessed.

To appreciate the Heligolandish ornis aright, in comparison with a thousand other local avifaunæ, we must first eliminate Gätke's personal equation, by making due allowance for the exceptional length of time this extraordinary observer has conducted his researches. A like period would give any local list—say of Central Park in this city—an amplitude few ornithologists picture to themselves, accustomed as they are to records of 200 to 300 species in fairly favored continental localities. But Gätke's total of 397 for such a small sterile spot as his island is far from being due entirely to his own ability as an observer and his long experience. As Heligoland has yielded nearly half as many species as have ever been ascertained to occur in the whole continent of North America, and as comparisons would show similar numerical proportions in the cases of other large areas, the discrepancy must be sought neither in Gätke himself nor in the physiography of his station, but in the geographical position of Heligoland with reference to *Zugstrassen*—as the Germans call the lines of ebb and flow of the bird-tides—and in the surrounding conditions which make this rock a way-station where feathered travellers stop for rest and refreshment. In calling this island literally a magnetic pole, or figuratively a Mecca, we refer to the wholly exceptional attraction it seems to have for birds *en route*, whether they be migrants in their regular courses or wanderers which have lost their way in the air.

For hardly any birds belong to Heligoland, except the ubiquitous sparrow; few seek to breed on the island, and fewer still to stay the year around. The breeders and residents together are wholly insignificant in comparison with the regular migrants, whether we count the species of the latter, or attempt to estimate the astounding multitudes of individuals by which they are represented. Then again, in the cases of such migrants, the numbers of land-birds which descend upon this sea-girt rock are out of all usual proportion to the waders and swimmers which we should expect, and which do in fact occur. Finally, the percentage of stragglers from far-distant lands which have actually visited the island is extraordinary; there is no record of any other place which compares with Heligoland in this respect. For example, sixteen distinctively North American species figure in the list—nine of them land birds, and nine of them also birds which have never been seen in England; and many other species, not less characteristic of Ethiopian and Oriental faunal areas than the sixteen are of the Nearctic region, also claim what Herr Gätke calls "honorary citizenship" of Heligoland. Such stragglers outnumber all the other species combined—200 to 197.

Consideration in detail of all such cases, and of all the rest that go to make up the "Four Hundred" of bird-society in this very select island, occupies about three-fourths of the book—p. 165 to the end. This "account of the birds observed in Heligoland" really goes back of the author's half-century, into the twenties; for his own observations are supplemented by still earlier ones of some of the fowlers and gunners with whom he has been so long associated. Bird-catching and bird-shooting have been for many years among the regular and profitable industries of the islanders, especially during the seasons of migration; they have occasioned legal enactments, and some curious customs, as that of the "first woodcock"; and some of the feathered prizes which have from time to time enriched the cabinet of the great ornithologist, were brought to him by others whose birdcraft was second only to his own unequalled acquirements. We cannot go into particulars here; we simply witness the fidelity with which the long record has been kept, and the precision with which it has been finally rendered, without a trace of flagging interest or failing powers which an octogenarian might be forgiven for betraying; and if the contemporary of a Blasius and a Naumann retains the nomenclature to which all the German ornithologists were accustomed in his youth, he is fortunate in a translator who supplies a modern terminology in rendering a faithful English version.

The interesting points to which we have thus called attention are of less consequence, as a contribution to science, than the treatise on flight and migration which occupies about one-fourth of this remarkable book. Under the exceptional circumstances already noted, Herr Gätke speaks with preëminent authority in all that relates to the facts in the case; and such experiences as his give an almost *ex-cathedra* character to his utterances—though that is exactly what his modesty never claims for the views he advances, as distinguished from his statements of fact. The subject has engaged the attention of uncounted writers; and the very excellence of Gätke's contribution to its elucidation certifies that he has not said the last word, for it reopens the whole question and will be sure to stimulate renewed discussion. The author considers: the course of migration generally in Heligoland; direction of the migration flight; altitude of the migration flight; velocity of the migration flight; meteorological conditions which influence migration; order of migration according to sex and age; exceptional migration phenomena; what guides birds during their migrations; and the cause of the migratory movement. We rise from the study of these chapters with two strong suspicions—first, that we knew nothing about migration before, and, second, that Herr Gätke knows entirely too much for our peace of mind and his own. Have such as Middendorf and Palmén and Marey written in vain? Are isepipteses, magnetic meridians, coast lines, food supply, breeding impulses, homing instincts, inherited memory, all of them idols, to be smashed by an arch-iconoclast who sticks to his facts and leaves us at the mercy of our fables? Instead of north and south movements in all cases, we are confronted with others due east and west. Instead of the millions we supposed we might reckon in the tidal waves of some birds, we are told of billions—of such incalculable myriads flying past one rock that all the destruction human agency could effect in all time would be imperceptible in the aggregate. Some fly at altitudes untold if not undreamed of before, with velocities that seem incredible—miles high in the air, across the Atlantic in nine hours from Newfoundland to Ireland; and among such are tender little land-birds we ordinarily see hopping about bushes. Barometric and hygrometric conditions influence migrations to such an extent that we begin to believe that what the Roman haruspices thought of birds as weather-prophets was short of the truth. Birds in the water alter their specific gravity to an unsuspected extent, in some unexplained way; birds in the air do as much; and some of their modes of flight, notably sailing and towering, are absolutely in defiance of much that has been alleged and believed. But Gätke insists upon his facts, gives our theories over to the winds, and has none of his own. For example, what guides birds during their migration? This is his answer (p. 142):

"Having thus examined the many various attempts made to explain the wonderful faculty possessed by migrants of discovering the right path of their migration, and shown how insufficient most of them are when confronted with actual facts, observed directly in nature, in the course of more than fifty years' investigations, and at a spot so favored as Heligoland, I cannot say that I feel encouraged to add further to the number of such attempts by others of my own."

This reminds us of the adage about fools and angels, and suggests the paraphrase, that some ornithologists rush in where a bird would fear to fly. We will hear a wise one again (p. 148):

"Both in regard to this question as to the

immediate departure of birds on their migrations, as well as in reference to that propounded in the previous chapter [just cited], we are confronted with a riddle which has hitherto defied every attempt at a solution, and which, indeed, we may hardly expect will ever be likely to receive a final explanation. Long and profound study has been devoted to the subject in many quarters, and has resulted in the enunciation of several very ingenious and plausible hypotheses. None of these, however, will stand their ground when the actual facts, which the life of birds in nature presents in such abundance, are marshalled against them. . . . In treating of the various momenta of the migratory flight, we have striven as much as possible to place before the reader only such facts as are beyond question or criticism, but no attempt has been made to furnish a solution of the wide problems which they involve. In thus abstaining from setting forth new theories I have been guided by the conviction, rendered firmer with increasing knowledge of the phenomena, that what at present has been ascertained in reference to the migration of birds furnishes us with no clue by the aid of which we are enabled to penetrate the depths of this wondrous mystery."

This is serious enough to make some authors we could name turn over in their graves and prick up their ears. It is distinctly a challenge to the present generation, some of whom have more or less reputation for sagacity to maintain.

We cannot close an already protracted review without noticing one important chapter, in a different field of research, concerning color-changes of plumage without moult. This is a phenomenon to which Schlegel called particular attention in 1852, with the result of exciting much discussion of his then novel views. It is better known now under Coues's name of aptosochromatism, but the subject is far from being exhausted. Gätke finds the processes more complicated than would appear at first sight, as there are various ways in which the change may be effected in different birds, in the same bird at different seasons, in different feathers of the same bird, and even in different parts of the same feather. The two factors, variable pigmentation and changes in the shape and texture of feathers with wear and tear of the plumage, are known to be mainly concerned; but the numerous details of these processes which may be observed in various cases offer an inviting field for further research. Aptosochromatism is not a subject of special difficulty, or one that requires exceptional training for its successful examination, but simply a matter of careful, patient, and protracted observation. It is one in which some bright young ornithologist might win enviable laurels if he would take time enough to study a sufficient amount of material, and avoid those hasty generalizations to which youth is prone.

It is not probable that Gätke's work will be widely known in this country, and interest in Heligoland is not sufficiently widespread to warrant the republication of the whole book. But the American Ornithologists' Union would do well to see if some arrangement could not be made to reprint for their own use the chapters on migration and color-changes.

VINCENT'S COMING CONTINENT.

Actual Africa, or, The Coming Continent: A Tour of Exploration. By Frank Vincent. With map and illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 541.

MR. FRANK VINCENT has closed his exceptional career as a traveller by the circumnavigation of Africa. During this journey of 65,000 miles, which lasted three years, he touched at nearly every important port on the continent, besides making several extensive trips into the interior. He seems to have travelled in a leisurely, comfortable way, as if neither time nor money were of any account, and we attribute his wonderful immunity from sickness—a sharp attack of Malagasy fever, ill omen for the French, he did not escape—in great part to his freedom from the worry arising from haste. The story of this journey is told in an unusually entertaining way, although it was without exciting incidents or adventures. Mr. Vincent's happy faculty of describing the little details of a traveller's life will enable most readers to realize unfamiliar scenes more vividly than would pages of elaborate description. He endeavors, also, to give some idea of the commercial and industrial resources of the places visited, together with historical information about them, as well as to picture the dress, dwellings, and customs of the people. Into the deeper questions of their race, religion, and capacity for development he does not enter, possibly from lack of space. As it is, the size of the volume will prove, we fear, a deterrent to the hasty reader of to-day. It would have been wiser, in our judgment, to divide it into three, giving a separate volume to the author's travels in North Africa and Egypt, in Madagascar and South Africa, and in Angola and the Congo Free State, respectively.

Mr. Vincent began his journey at Tangier in October, 1891, and passed through northern Morocco and Algeria to Tunis. As he did not leave the beaten track so fully and frequently described of late, there is nothing especially noteworthy in his account. Tripoli is more rarely visited, but this town presented no distinctive feature, except its closeness to the desert. "In twenty minutes after leaving the city we had reached the edge of the desert—a vast, smoothly undulating surface of fine sand and small stones. There was not even a weed in sight." Nor does the detailed description of the Nile trip by steamer to Wady Halfa call for comment. From Egypt our author went direct to Mauritius and Madagascar without touching at any of the Red Sea ports. This prevented his seeing the Italian colony of Eritrea, Abyssinia, or the British possessions in Somali-land, the only important and easily accessible parts of the continent, we may add, which he omitted to visit.

Madagascar was crossed from Tamatave on the east coast by way of the capital to Majunga on the Mozambique Channel. A graphic description is given of this journey, which was made by means of the national conveyance, the filanzana, a canvas chair swung between two poles and borne on the shoulders of four men. There seem to have been no difficulties beyond what the execrable paths (roads there were none) in the mountain region occasioned. The coast district was uninviting, malarious, and thinly inhabited, but the high land in the interior was more inviting. Little clusters of villages, with houses having "sharply pitched grass roofs, the ridge-poles being ornamented by pretty little pillars," were to be seen. Near Antananarivo were brown meadows, cultivated fields, threshing-floors, pits for fattening cattle, little roadside bazaars, numerous churches, streams bordered with great flat rice fields, or plains on which were large herds of sleek-looking cattle. One town through which Mr. Vincent passed was "surrounded by gardens of coffee, tea, manioc, bananas, sugar-cane, and peaches." The capital consists of 16,000 houses, mostly of stone and sun-dried bricks, built on streets or pathways, many of which are "little better than great rough gullies." The most interesting spectacle was the great Friday market held in a large open space on the side of a hill, where were innumerable rows of little grass-thatched booths, containing English and American cotton goods, articles of native manufacture, and great quantities of fruit. In one corner was the slave-market, where about fifty slaves, "of both sexes and all ages, were squatting in a long row against a wall, and would-be purchasers simply stood looking at them and asking them questions: there was no physical examination, no tests applied." They seemed happy and contented, and were apparently well treated by their owners. Mr. Vincent did not see the Queen, but he had an interview with her husband, the Prime Minister, whom he describes as a slight man "with a fine head, a high, broad, and prominent brow, and bright, piercing eyes"; quiet and dignified in manner. In their short conversation he referred to the fact "that the United States had always been friendly to Madagascar, a feeling which he cordially reciprocated and hoped might always endure."

The fortified posts on the route which the French expedition has taken, and over which Mr. Vincent passed to the coast, were at that time (September, 1892) "in a sadly dilapidated condition and the moats full of trees." A battalion of soldiers which he met were armed with modern rifles, but "they wore no distinctive uniform, and most of them used their rifles to carry their kit at one end and their ammunition at the other." Shortly before reaching the coast, Mr. Vincent visited a gold-mine worked by a Frenchman who pays fifty-five per cent. of the gold to the Government, which in return provides the laborers. "A Hova official will go to a village, impress every man, woman, and child there, and send them away to work at the mines." This forced labor is greatly dreaded by the natives, who have generally deserted this part of the country for the desolate mountain region, where many of them lead the life of banditti. Criminals also are compelled to labor in the mines and in chains. Formerly three or four thousand workmen were employed, but at the time of Mr. Vincent's visit there were only eight hundred, owing to the difficulty of obtaining men. The product of the mines is not stated, though the gold is said to be "nearly the purest in the world." The port Majunga, formerly important on account of the slave-trade, had lost most of its inhabitants and was quite dead commercially.

At Zanzibar Mr. Vincent is again on very familiar ground, and his trip from that place down the coast, touching at the various ports, is without special interest. Nor is it necessary to dwell upon his account of Johannesburg and Kimberley, through which he passed on his way from Durban to Cape Town. In order to reach the Portuguese possessions on the west coast he was obliged to go to Madeira, this being "the only part (save that between Tripoli and Alexandria) of the whole 16,000 miles of African sea-coast not served by several lines and nationalities of steamers." This *détour* enables him to devote two chapters to a description of Funchal, the Canary Islands, and a mid-winter ascent of the peak of Teneriffe. Following these is the account of an excursion of some five hundred miles into the interior of the province of Angola, during which he visited some extensive coffee and sugar-plantations. The Portuguese are displaying considerable energy in developing the rich natural resources of this region, but they are hampered, not so much by lack of means, as they assert, but by the fact

that one of the principal industries, if not the chief, is distilling. As no restriction is laid on the sale of liquor to the natives, it is not surprising to read that in Benguela (and the same was apparently true of all the other towns), Mr. Vincent was struck with "the frequency of the native rum-shops and their great number of noisy patrons."

The most interesting as well as the most valuable part of Mr. Vincent's book is the chapters devoted to the Congo Free State. These give ample testimony to the work which the Belgians have accomplished in the ten years of its existence. At Kinchassa, for instance, the principal post of the Belgian Commercial Company, on Stanley Pool, "a large square was nearly covered with bundles of rubber, and a peep into a warehouse disclosed a great pile of tusks of ivory. Gangs of blacks, superintended by whites, were carrying boxes and bales of goods and provisions down to some steamers about to depart up the river. Here was a busy scene of men at work on the steamers, and in the shops, from which came the noise of forges, of hammers and saws, like that of great shipyards at home." Here the traveller can take passage on one of the fleet of forty-two steamers on the upper river for Stanley Falls or for Lusambo on the Sankuru, 1,500 miles from the Atlantic. Mr. Vincent chose the latter, his ticket for the round trip costing him 300 francs. This does not include food or a cabin, which are 20 francs a day additional. This voyage up the river gave him an admirable opportunity of observing how civilization is being carried into the heart of the continent. His account impresses us with the immensity of the country and its comparative solitude. There were apparently days when no villages were to be seen. In other places, especially on a river which was ascended on this voyage for the first time, "villages followed one another in quick succession, and there were immense tracts covered almost wholly with oil-palms." Elephants too were numerous on this river, four being killed from the deck of the steamboat. Notwithstanding the number of stations scattered throughout the state—and there are apparently more than a hundred, not including the missionary stations, of which there are thirty, manned by upwards of one hundred missionaries—there are no evidences of colonization or a permanent settlement. These stations are mere factories for barter with the natives, and the reader cannot at times repress the thought that there is something unsubstantial about it, and that the fabric which has been so suddenly raised might vanish away as speedily. There can be little doubt, from the latest accounts, that too much has been attempted, and that the resources of the state are well-nigh exhausted, while the returns from the trade in rubber and ivory and the other products of the Congo Basin are still comparatively insignificant.

The closing chapters of this entertaining book are upon the Cameroons, the Niger Territory, and the Guinea Coast. They are chiefly concerned with historical and statistical information about the various colonies. In the statement that Cape Juby "now belongs to France" the author is in error. It was the site of an English factory which was transferred to Morocco by treaty last winter. The illustrations, taken from photographs, are admirable, and add much to the value of the book. There is a useful map and an excellent index.

The Life and Writings of Turgot. Edited for English readers by W. Walker Stephens. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

Mr. Rae justified his 'Life of Adam Smith,' which we recently reviewed, by the plea that it was a hundred years since Dugald Stewart's eulogy of that philosopher had appeared; and Mr. Stephens reminds us that the only Life of Turgot in English is the translation of Condorcet's work, published in London in 1787 and now extremely rare. But it is unnecessary to offer any apology in either case. The times in which we live afford a sufficient justification. From our point of view no more wholesome work can be done than to diffuse information concerning these older economists as widely as possible. The benevolent impulses are strong in this generation, and philanthropy is fast drawing to its support all the sanctions of religion. The improvement of the general condition of mankind, however, is an enterprise of such comprehensive character as to require thorough training on the part of those who would engage in it, and the lives of two of the greatest benefactors of the race are the best of lessons for the social reformer. Very many, perhaps most, of those who are engaged in philanthropical work, exhibit a marked disposition to call upon Government to interfere in the dealings of its subjects, and to regulate by the strong arm of the law the terms of their contracts and the conditions of their lives. It would be ungracious, if not unreasonable, to question the sincerity of people who devote their time and their money to the elevation of their fellow-creatures; but it is neither ungracious nor unreasonable to ask them to obtain all the light that experience can afford before they invoke the power of the law to enforce their ideals.

Although Adam Smith had a keen eye for practical matters, and possessed a remarkable acquaintance with the details of the arts, he was not properly a "man of affairs." He lived for many years in retirement, and his influence was mainly posthumous. Turgot was also of a modest and retiring disposition, but he was, during most of his life, intensely active as a judge and a ruler over men. He was thoroughly educated, according to the standards of the day, at the Sorbonne, and had such family influence as would have secured his advancement in the church. But, although poor, he decided that he could best serve his fellowmen by engaging directly in the administration of Government. His clerical friends and comrades protested at such disregard of his own interests, and pointed out that he could have his choice of excellent abbeys and was sure in good time to obtain a rich bishopric. But he declared it impossible for him to give himself up, all his life, "to wearing a mask," and took a comparatively humble position as a magistrate.

The spirit in which he discharged the duties of his position for nearly ten years is shown by a single anecdote. It fell to him to decide upon the case of a subordinate revenue officer, accused of some malversation; and as there seemed little doubt of the man's guilt, while the penalty provided by the law was excessively severe, Turgot, in the goodness of his heart, postponed action as long as possible. But when he took up the case, he found that the charge was baseless, and, having ascertained the amount of income lost by the accused pending the process, he made it up to him out of his own pocket, explaining that it was done as an act not of generosity but of justice. We should be glad to believe that our judges are similarly conscientious concerning the losses suffered by poor litigants from legal delays; but such anecdotes are not prominent in the annals of the bar.

As De Tocqueville points out, the Government of France was, before the Revolution, in the hands of "thirty tyrants," the intendants of the provinces. It had been the ambition of Turgot to administer one of these offices, and at the age of thirty-four he was appointed to the intendancy of Limoges. Owing to the poverty of the soil, the oppression of Government, and the ignorance of the peasantry, Limousin was perhaps the poorest province of France. The inhabitants barely escaped starvation in good years, living for six months upon chestnuts and the rest of the year on black bread; and the frequent failures of the crops were invariably followed by famine. After thirteen years of the most arduous labor, marked not less by kindliness than by sagacity, Turgot left the province with the finest roads in France, with free trade in grain, with an infinitely improved administration, and with such enlarged industries as promised to avert famine for the future. He had abolished the *corvées* for the highways and for military transportation; he had organized charities; he had established bureaus of employment, of relief, bakeries, eating-houses, and sewing-schools. He had reformed the system of conscription and put a stop to the practice of billeting the soldiery upon the people. He had introduced the culture of clover, lucern, and sainfoin, and, most important of all, the potato. He had disseminated the principles of veterinary science, and had even improved the practice of midwifery.

As to the manner in which all this was accomplished, Mr. Stephens is not so explicit as we could have wished. That Turgot's methods were despotic is only saying that he exercised the customary powers of intendants; but that his motives were pure is shown by all his acts. He might have secured other intendancies where the emoluments were far greater and the difficulties much less; but he preferred to devote himself to the poor peasantry whose rescue he had undertaken, rather than to let them fall back into the misery from which he was raising them.

The achievements of Turgot as Comptroller-General of Finances belong, as Mr. Morley says, "to the general history of France." For that reason it is unnecessary to dwell upon them. The whole country was steeped in aristocratic and religious prejudice, and the network of privilege was almost inconceivably minute in its ramifications. What would be thought at the present day of a minister that should propose to have ships of war built in a foreign country, because they could be built there for three-fifths of their cost at home? Yet this is but one example of the audacious reforms proposed and actually instituted by Turgot. Of course he had the whole world against him. He failed, and the Revolution was the consequence; but all the beneficial results of the Revolution would have been secured by following his plans, and most of its mischievous consequences would have been averted. It pleased the gods to have it otherwise, but the policy of Turgot stands justified by the event. It may be summed up in one word—Freedom. The abolition of exemptions and privileges, the suppression of monopolies and sinecure offices, the revocation of all laws restraining free trade, free intercourse, and free labor, the reduction of governmental expenditures—these were the great aims of this statesman, of whom it might truly be said that he was "one of Plutarch's men." And, if

we may venture a somewhat abrupt descent, our modern reformers may be pleased to learn that he arranged that his domestic servants should be lodged as comfortably as himself.

We cannot say that Mr. Stephens has been fortunate in his selections from Turgot's writings. Compositions upon the advances of the human mind and sketches of universal history are seldom profitable reading even when the work of brilliant young men. We could have spared these, if we could have had fuller particulars of Turgot's methods of administration. But we are grateful to Mr. Stephens for what he has given us, and we commend to all philanthropists the Life of the statesman of whom Mr. Morley says: "It was no small proof of originality and enlightenment to precede Adam Smith by ten years in the doctrines of free trade, of free industry, of loans on interest, of the constitutive elements of price, of the effects of the division of labor, and of the processes of the formation of capital."

The Principles of the Critical Philosophy: Introduction to the Theory of Science and Metaphysics. By Dr. A. Riehl, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Freiburg i. B. Translated by Dr. Arthur Fairbanks, Lecturer on the Philosophy of Religion in the Divinity School of Yale University. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THERE are occasions on which a translator justly feels himself bound to literalness—to go abroad in the coat and trousers his original provides him with, whether they fit him or not. He may be supposed to heave a sigh of relief when, as in the case of the present addition to the "English and Foreign Philosophical Library," no such occasion exists. Dr. Fairbanks has felt justified, even at the expense of a certain gentle violence, in aiming at a "fit," and has achieved it. The book is rather better English than the writings at first hand of most of the Kantians of Great Britain and America.

About the propriety of translating it there can hardly be a question. It forms the third section of Riehl's well-known 'Der Philosophische Kriticismus und seine Bedeutung für die positive Wissenschaft,' and presents chapters on the Problem of Philosophy, the Limits and Presuppositions of Knowledge, the Origin and Concept of Experience, Darwinism and Transcendental Philosophy, Reality of the External World and Idealistic Theories, the Relation of Psychic Phenomena to Material Processes, Cosmological Problem of the Infinite, Necessity and Adaptation. These are discussed from the general point of view of post-Kantianism (the word is sufficiently vague!), and with the finished competence that one has learned to expect from academic Germany. It should be added that "certain minor changes and corrections" which will appear in the second edition (now preparing) of the original work, are here offered to the English-speaking public in advance.

The point at which Prof. Riehl lays his fingers most firmly on the unexpected—breaks most resolutely with his traditions—is the freedom of the will. He calls the attention of the reader to it in his preface. Determinists have always had to meet the objection that if the will is not free, responsibility is an illusion and an outrage—that if, for example, one couldn't help murdering, it is abominable to hang him for it. They have always replied that the abomination is with their opponents. If the will, they have said, is determinable by motives, holding one responsible for a line of conduct, punishing one in case of failure, is educatory, is one of the most intelligent and necessary devices known to society for accomplishing its ends, and stands as little in need of justification as the existence of a government and the assessment of taxes. But if the will is not determinable by motives, holding one responsible can accomplish no worthy end. If a man's conduct is not ruled by fixed motives—by his character—the fact that he murdered to-day is no evidence that he will murder again to-morrow; and the knowledge that he will be punished if he murders, can in no wise hinder him from doing so. Punishment, responsibility, on the hypothesis of indeterminism, becomes a matter of vindictiveness simply, of systematic malice and revenge. But Prof. Riehl goes a step further. He holds that responsibility is not only reasonable and fair on the deterministic theory, but that it is not even intelligible on any other, for on the doctrine of free will to whom can you trace the action? Whom can you hold responsible as the cause of it?

"The character of the actor? That cannot be the cause of the action if the will is really to be free, free in the sense of indeterminism. The circumstances of the external world? They belong to the external world, and are governed by its laws. Perhaps the motive, *i. e.*, the mode in which those circumstances affect the actor? But this mode itself evidently presupposes a predetermined character of the actor, because it betrays the essential constitution of this character even more immediately than the action itself. A free being can have no predetermined, no definite character, for the most essential mark of character is persistence; but a free being can change his character constantly, and without reason. If I attempted to make such a being guilty of an evil action, and give him credit for a good one, he might meantime become a different being."

The point to which the translator calls attention as especially instructive to English readers (he mentions others besides)—Prof. Riehl's theory of the immediate perception of an external world—is not, we think, so well chosen. Inferior as the English philosophers not uncommonly were in a knowledge of the literature of their subject, against the points they attacked they brought a battery of logic—a dialectic scrupulosity and fight-to-the-finish—that one looks for in vain even in the best German things. To go, on any question of ethics or of the Perception of an External World, from the British Isles to Germany is like retreating from a deadly cut-and-thrust to martial evolutions and salutes at long range. "The facts of consciousness," says Prof. Riehl (p. 153), "cannot be understood by themselves; it is necessary to assume a reality on which consciousness is dependent. We know consciousness only as a phenomenon of life connected with an organism." It is a remark that lost its point a hundred and fifty years ago. He speaks of perceiving the external object just as it is. Hylas was enticed one peaceful morning shortly after sunrise into that specious position, and was driven from it in inextricable contradiction and confusion. Prof. Riehl's whole message on the subject is that the ego and the non-ego are given in the same pulse of consciousness—that we cannot know our own existence except as distinguished from a not-ourself. But the whole question is, whether they exist apart from consciousness and independently of it? Yes. Prof. Riehl says (p. 136): "What does not exist cannot enter into relation with anything, and what enters into a relation must have an independent existence. The relative existence of things as objects of consciousness presupposes absolute existence (existence independent of this relation)." But this would imply that a pain, or an emotion, or an illusion, or a fiction, or a hypothetical construction, or a "mistake" must have an existence independent of consciousness. The things related in consciousness must of course be real, but the very claim of idealists (done scant justice to by their opponents) is that mental states are the only realities.

Much more important for English thought (Dr. Fairbanks mentions it also) are Riehl's remarks on the social aspect of morality and experience. The original impulse of English speculation carried it to the doctrine of a multitude of separate individuals, "streams of thought," distinct universes, what you will—so many individuals, so many standards of truth, and goodness, and beauty. The debt it is to owe to Germany seems likely to be the perception that what is commonly called truth, virtue, and so on involves something more than this—a social convention. When the deliverances of the different individuals, the different standards, disagree (Prof. Riehl greatly exaggerates their consistency, and ridicules it as a preëstablished harmony of monads), the decision is left to a majority vote, and the minority if not large is apt to be confined in an asylum as lunatic, or in a workhouse as criminal, or in an æsthetic pillory as decadent or symbolist.

Selected Essays of James Darmesteter. The translations from the French by Helen B. Jastrow. Edited with an Introductory Memoir by Morris Jastrow, Jr., Professor in the University of Pennsylvania. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THIS volume was projected before the death of Prof. Darmesteter. It is doubly precious now, laid as a wreath upon his grave. Some of the articles it contains were written by Prof. Darmesteter in English, of which he had an easy mastery. That we pass from these to the translations without any sense of difference is all the praise that the translations need. The introductory Memoir is extremely brief. James was a younger brother of Arsène Darmesteter, also a distinguished scholar. The father was a poor Jewish bookbinder in Lorraine, who took his family to Paris in 1852, when James was three years old. Reared in the orthodox tradition, he departed from it widely in his maturity, but his early knowledge of the Hebrew Bible and the Talmud did much to fix the direction of his studies, nor did he ever escape the bias of his blood and early state. Only a Jew could write the studies we have here of Jewish prophecy and Jewish history, so enthusiastic, while so indifferent to the traditional dogma and cult. But it was in an Aryan, not a Semitic, field that he did his most monumental work—a translation, with commentary, of the Zend-Avesta, to which the French Academy gave a prize of 20,000 francs. The central conception of the Avesta, as of late origin and gradual growth, harmonizes well with the results of Kuenen and Wellhausen and others in Old Testament studies.

A great admirer of Renan, it was for James Darmesteter, as for his master, a necessity to put his thought into beautiful and effective literary form. But Renan was never allowed to guide his pen; the style is all his own. He was no intellectual recluse, but had his lighter studies—wrote poetry and admired that of Miss Mary Robinson, translating it in 1888, whence a lofty friendship, bearing the fruit of love and marriage in due time. He was a

Frenchman in all his personal tendencies and traits, and nothing of importance to the French people could be foreign to him. The photogravure likeness is that of a man already very ill. We should say that it was deeply marked with the characteristics of the Jewish race had not his essay "Race and Tradition" just been read.

The purpose of that essay is to minimize race and maximize tradition as a factor in history and civilization. Race, we are told, is one of the most palpable fictions of the popular mind. The Aryan race is merely a group of different races using varieties of a common speech. In the religious battles of these races with the Semites, *Hamlet* and *Laertes* are continually changing swords. To say the Aryan is a monotheist and the Semite is a polytheist is quite as true as the converse proposition. The application of this doctrine to Judaism is full of interest, as the following sentences will show:

"The permanence of the Jewish type, or, to speak more exactly, of the Jewish types—for there are several—is a secondary, not a primary fact. . . . It was the Ghetto that detached and fixed the Jewish types. It is the Ghetto that produced that unity of habits and customs which we are wont to regard as the result of race, and which in reality is the mark of a religious minority concentrated and thrown back upon its own resources. . . . Judaism is born in a Semitic medium, but it is the most absolute reaction imaginable against the religion, the manners, the tradition that prevailed in that medium."

Hence the absurdity and wickedness of representing the quarrel with the Jew in Russia and Germany as a battle of the races, Aryan against Semite. When we are told that all the civilized nations have removed the disabilities of the Jew, and Russia and Germany are not included in the enumeration, the implication is too evident to be escaped. "A nationality is all the more solid the more elements there are mixed in it." England and France are good examples. It is the misfortune of Germany that she preserves the element of race so well. The doctrine ought to be encouraging to America.

In the introductory essay, "The Religions of the Future," the treatment is too brief to be entirely satisfactory. It calls upon the Church, the Roman Catholic Church, to ally itself with prophecy and science, the two great forces that must recreate religion and assume again the direction of human society. But when we are told that the necessary revolution could be accomplished "without changing a dogma, a rite, a priestly gesture," we do not seem to understand. For there is elsewhere the assertion that, once organized in dogma and ritual, a religion tends inevitably to become fixed and hardened, and to oppose itself to science and the ever-changing conscience of mankind. A much more elaborate essay is "The Prophets of Israel." It is to some extent a review of Renan's 'Histoire du Peuple d'Israël,' which it warmly commends, without entirely reflecting its spirit. It is much more sympathetic, Prof. Darmesteter having a capacity for moral enthusiasm which was strange to Renan's breast. But the sympathy is not complete. Often as we read we are in danger of forgetting this, so ardent is the tone. But what makes the glow is not the prophetic theology, but the ever-greatening moral ideal of the prophets and their devotion thereunto. They called it by the name of God, and so does Prof. Darmesteter, but they imagined that their ideal was a divine reality, that they were *discovering* God and not *inventing* him. "Their Jehovah was, after all, only the dominant conscience of certain men deified, the human conscience projected heavenward." One can easily imagine that if Isaiah and Jeremiah had heard that "the unity of law throughout the world and the terrestrial triumph of justice" was the substance of their teaching, they would have "looked at each other with a wild surmise."

"Afghan Life in Afghan Songs" is an article of very great interest, the songs all being popular and the translations full of "birr and smeddum." Those exhibiting the Afghan sense of honor are particularly good. The characterization of Renan is reprinted from the pages of the *New World*, for which it was prepared. It is not only very generous in its appreciation of Renan's intellectual part, but it takes up the cudgels manfully for his moral earnestness. "Morality was to him the only thing absolutely certain." Can it be possible that Prof. Darmesteter had not read some of Renan's lighter lucubrations?

"The History of the Jews" is remarkable for its scope and condensation. Beginning with the earliest hints imbedded in the Old Testament, it traces the course of Jewish thought and life down to the present time. Hardly could an orthodox rabbi have written with more ardor and affection, but the same things would not have stirred his heart. The claim is made, perhaps justly, that no other history has ever touched life at so many points. The shame of the Old Testament for many—its silence concerning another life—is for him its joy and crown; or rather its hope of righteousness and justice on the earth is these. Here is a characterization of Christianity which, to say the least, is perfectly frank and far from being trite:

"—a mixed religion, a compromise between the past and the future, which conquered the world, bringing to it an abundance of good and much of evil—an abundance of good because it raised the moral standard of humanity; much of evil, because it arrested its intellectual growth by rejuvenating the mythical spirit, and by fixing for centuries the metaphysical ideal of Europe in accordance with the dreams of Alexandrine decadence, and with the last combinations of Hellenism in its dotage, . . . a new branch of the old Aryo-Semitic mythology."

It is an interesting suggestion that the substance of Judaism is not implicated in its miraculous elements to the same extent as those of Christianity, or, indeed, at all. But while we are assured that this religion never has entered into conflict with science or social progress, nor without violence can be made to do so, it is warned that it must not assume the rôle of a universal religion. Only by dying as a positive religion will it best serve the widest human need. "Hellenism, abolished, counts less sceptics to-day than in the days of Socrates and Anaxagoras." A book which contains scores of sentences like this—packed with significance and food for thought—is one for which to be profoundly glad, and one to pass along, whether we agree with all of it or only with a part.

L'Oeuvre de P. V. Galland. Par Henry Havard, Inspecteur-Général des Beaux-Arts. Paris: Quantin. 1895. 4to, pp. 224.

THIS book, which bears the additional and preliminary title, 'La Peinture Décorative au XIX^e^ Siècle,' is very handsomely printed on unusually heavy paper, with many full-page illustrations which are counted in the pagination, and very many other illustrations in the text. It is, therefore, a small book made large, and its thickness is increased by thirteen mezzotint engravings which are not paged and which have their own table. It tells the story of a very able decorative artist who lived, mainly in Paris and its neighborhood, for the seventy years ending in 1892; one who was little known to the public, because he rarely exhibited in the Salon or elsewhere, but whose paintings on the walls and ceilings of important buildings are known, as their painter is known, most favorably in the world of fine art. The details of the life and work which had earned this most enviable reputation were little understood before the appearance of the present very complete biographical treatise. It appears that, for many years, M. Galland, or his wife for him, kept a journal, in which are noted many very intimate opinions, many facts concerning his employment as artist which throw a great light upon other persons than himself and other achievements than his own, and many expressions of the artist's judgment of his own and other men's work and of fine art in general—all of singular value.

There might be included in the category of such critical remarks the numerous instances here given of Galland's habit of noting down his observations of nature and of man. Thus, in one place he notes (page 105) that children less than ten years old are not apt to look each other or any one in the face "unless," as he says, "they are badly brought up." He had seen a man talking with two children on the steps of the Church of St. Louis d'Antin, and he had observed that the children, even while answering his questions, "se dandinaient, se balançaient, et parfois faisaient la cabriole autour de la rampe du perron." A little farther on he notes under what circumstances grown persons look one another in the eye. At another time he notes the way in which the sleeves of a flannel shirt retain their folds and creases, and the importance of allowing for this tendency in textile fabrics whenever one has a study of drapery to make. "If one dared criticise the beautiful draperies of Poussin," he says in continuation, "one would say that his manner of draping reminds one of the lay figure. The sleeves of Leonardo da Vinci, on the contrary, are perfect in this respect." An admirable decorative composition is shown in a plate opposite page 56, and the journal explains (page 65) how it originated. Galland was talking to Gérardy, he says, while he was working on a piece of theatrical scenery, and as he talked he made this study in the middle of his large canvas. Gérardy cut it out and replaced it by a fresh piece of canvas, and the journal goes on to state what he, the artist, saw as possible and as it were latent in his composition.

Galland was the son of a goldsmith who brought him from Geneva to Paris and introduced him, about 1837, to Ciceri, then fifty-five years old and at the height of his celebrity. Upon his rejection by Ciceri, concerning which a series of amusing anecdotes are given, he became a student of architecture under Henri Labrouste and later a student of painting under Michel Drolling, pursuing both courses of study at the same time. When he was twenty years old, a portrait by him was hung in the Salon of 1842, and, having attained this success, he gained what he had sought, a place in Ciceri's atelier. There he worked until 1848, the time of revolution and tumult and the breaking up of industries. The pupils and the assistants of Ciceri found their legitimate occupations gone, and amused themselves by various escapades, of which an electoral squib painted by them on all the walls of Paris will serve as an example. It offered, as a candi-

date for the Constituent Assembly, a fellow-pupil named Turbry, stated to be very advanced in his views and very moderate in his ability, and it said: "Let us elect Turbry; poor and devoid of talent, he well represents the majority of Frenchmen and the majority of artists."

Galland's first independent work was the decoration of a large private palace at Constantinople. Returning to France about 1853, he undertook wall paintings in the official residence of the Minister of Finance, and a ceiling and other works in the palace of St. Cloud. These were all destroyed during the war and insurrection of 1871, and a few paintings in the Church of St. Eustache remain as the only public works left from among those executed by Galland under the Second Empire. Some struggles with the authorities of the Gobelin works are described in chapter 5, and form an amusing contrast with his later mastership in the same famous establishment. He had to provide designs for half-length portraits of the Emperor and Empress surrounded by borders of flowers, and the journal notices curious experiments in decoration as distinguished from such painting as (for instance) that of easel pictures. He doubts whether it may not be better to paint his flowers after drawings rather than directly from nature. Poorly as the Imperial Government acquitted itself with regard to Galland, the Paris of the Imperial epoch was friendly enough. We are told of important decorative painting for Mr. Garfunkel in 1856, for Mr. Lebœuf in 1858, for Mr. De Presles in 1859, for Mr. d'Erlanger in 1863, for Mr. Cail in the same year, for the Hôtel Parent in 1864, for the Hôtel Agnado in the same year, and also for the residence of Mr. Scherer at Lille, for that of Mr. Grandval at Marseilles, and for the Baron de Rothschild in London. Many photographic reproductions are given of ceilings, panels, and separate details drawn from these important works. Chapters 6 and 7 are devoted to them and to several others which we have not named, one of them a ceiling for Mr. Herter of New York.

Still, the important part of Mr. Galland's career was to come with the present republic. It was under the republic that the well-known picture in the Panthéon was painted, the "St. Denis Preaching," in which the misery of life, the wretchedness of the deformed, the feeble, and the infirm are combined into a vast composition full of religious hope. The cupola which covers the great rotunda of the Sorbonne was also of these later times. The long row of cupolas in the Hôtel de Ville, with their admirable compositions in which the active labor of men and women in the daily toils of life are conventionalized as if by mediæval artists, but with the knowledge and science of the nineteenth century, were perhaps not even completed when the artist died. At the same time private commissions poured in upon him, and he produced among other decorative paintings those for Prince Narishkin at St. Petersburg, of which charming specimens, reminding one of Paul Veronese, are here given in photographic reproductions, and those of the Vanderbilt house in New York. Space does not allow us to speak of Galland's work at the Gobelins, or to comment even briefly upon the hard work and the many disappointments which he met with at the École des Beaux-Arts. The value of this book to architects and to decorative artists is in the lively and brilliant picture it gives of the labors of an accomplished and most skilful and dexterous workman in their own line; and, in the second place, in the true portrait of artist life in Paris—its good side and its side that is not so good.

A History of Newfoundland, from the English, Colonial, and Foreign Records. By D. W. Prowse. With a prefatory note by Edmund Gosse. Illustrated. Macmillan. 1895.

Judge Prowse has been somewhat slow in publishing his 'History of Newfoundland,' but its appearance at the present moment is so opportune that one cannot complain of the delay. Misfortunes are always interesting, and few countries whose annals are limited to four hundred years can show a longer, more diversified list of misfortunes than this oldest colony of the British Crown. The feuds of fishermen and settlers, incursions of the French and raids of Sallee rovers, famine, fire, and scurvy were among the island's calamities in former generations. Recent events at St. John's are fresh in the memory of every one. The climax was reached with the political chaos of 1894 and the financial crash of last winter. Newfoundland now stands at the parting of the ways. Its situation has two sides—the one economic and local, the other political and international. Never have the affairs of the island been so critical for its inhabitants, or so well worth the attention of strangers. It is fortunate that we should have an admirable survey of its history just when one is most needed.

The materials upon which Judge Prowse has based his work are more ample than those which have been at the disposal of any other historian. In his quest he has gone far beyond the limit of printed books. The British Museum, the Record Office, the library at Hatfield, have all been ransacked for documents:

"The history of the colony . . . lies buried under great rubbish-heaps of unprinted records, English, municipal, colonial, and foreign, in rare pamphlets, old Blue Books, forgotten manuscripts, old English newspapers and magazines, and in the political tracts of the eighteenth century. The accounts of the defence of St. John's against D'Iberville, and the gallant fight of Captain Holman are from affidavits made before Devonshire justices, the latter to get tardy payment from the Crown for the powder expended in defending the colony."

These fresh sources have been used with much judgment and self-control. Judge Prowse is careful not to submerge his reader beneath a tide of ill-digested facts. Each chapter is followed by an appendix of citations from unpublished records, and the text, thus relieved of paraphrase and synopsis, rises above the flats of learned dulness. One would not suppose, *à priori*, that the catching of cod could be invested with a glamour of romance; but such is the case. What the herring was to townsmen of the Hanseatic League, that, and more, the cod has been to the fishing villages of western England. Yorkshire in the sixteenth century probably made more money from its wool than Devon made from the Great Bank; but the sea transmutes everything which comes from or sails upon it. No one was ever stirred by thought of the sheep-walks of Fountains and Melsa, but each cruise of a Bideford smack was an heroic adventure. Along with flakes, and curing-houses, and train oil, we hear of Biscayan and Spanish and Portuguese fleets, of gentlemen adventurers like Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Lord Baltimore, of sack, and sherry, and calabogus. Newfoundland went without a parson till 1697; but every spring brought its fishing Admiral, who was expected to maintain order in the fleet and administer such justice as the colonists required. Judge Prowse has drawn a picture of this important official—

"clothed, not in the dignity of office, not in flowing judicial robes, not in the simple and sober black of the police magistrate, but in his ordinary blue flushing jacket and trousers, economically besmeared with pitch, tar, and fish slime, his head adorned with an old seal-skin cap robbed from an Indian or bartered for a glass of rum and a stick of tobacco. The sacred temple of law and equity was a fish-store, the judicial seat an inverted butter-firkin. Justice was freely dispensed to the suitor who paid the most for it. In the absence of a higher bribe, his Worship's decision was often favorably affected by the judicious presentation of a few New England apples."

We are bound to take part with the colonists whom this despot harried and abused; but it must be confessed that Newfoundland's history loses much warmth of color when it passes into the constitutional phase.

Judge Prowse's narrative, from the landing of Cabot to the Peace of Utrecht, is so intimately connected with Devon that it might serve as a supplement to Westcote or Polwhele. Two centuries after its discovery the island had less than two thousand inhabitants. The period 1713–1825 is marked by more serious colonization. It was in the latter year that the first resident Governor, Sir Thomas Cochrane, was appointed. The population had then risen to fifty-five thousand. With the grant of a legislature in 1832, Newfoundland enters upon its autonomous career, and its history becomes hard for a local historian to write. Judge Prowse is on his guard against party bias, but not always on his guard against patriotism. The lenience of some of his contemporary judgments will need revision in the dry light of future scrutiny.

The subjects upon which Judge Prowse speaks with most feeling and vigor are the French possession of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and French treaty rights on the Newfoundland coast. Every concession made to the French since their surrender of Placentia has been a source of annoyance to the colonists, who claim that the mother country yielded their rights. The Imperial Government disliked the Bait Act, Newfoundland's great protective measure, and ratified it with reluctance. In the spring of 1888, Sir R. Thorburn proceeded to put the law into force, and placed Judge Prowse at the head of a fleet. It was while acting as "Bombarde Admiral" that he decided to write the present volume. The chapters on "St. Pierre and Miquelon" and the "French Fishery Question" are among his best. They are strong and a little *ex parte* in tone, but not unfair. The disgrace of St. Pierre is wholesale smuggling, and so long as the French Government excludes an English Consul, it must bear the brunt of any imputations which are cast upon it.

As in the case of most large works, a few slips occur. Surely Pope's line on Bacon does not run, "the *greatest*, wisest, meanest of mankind," nor was Mirabeau the orator who exclaimed, "Il nous faut de l'auduce, et encore de l'audace, et toujours de l'audace." Algernon Sidney is confused, p. 93, with Sir Philip Sidney. The former, born in 1622, could not have been concerned in any of the schemes which led up to the founding of Guy's Colony. Again, love of his subject sometimes betrays Judge Prowse into exaggeration. Can it be said, for instance, that the destruction of the Spanish fishing fleet in 1585—called "the most daring blow" of the years 1584–'88—was a more daring blow than the "singeing of the King of Spain's beard"? These, however, are small points, not to be dwelt upon when we

have so much to praise. Judge Prowse merits the thanks not only of Devon and of Newfoundland, but of all who care for American history in its wider sense. He throws light on much which has been imperfectly treated, and discloses much which has not been treated at all. His work will be the standard history of Newfoundland for a long time to come.

M. Tulli Ciceronis pro T. Annio Milone ad Judices Oratio. Edited, with Introduction and Commentary, by Albert C. Clark, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895. Pp. lxiv, 145.

THIS elaborate edition of a well-known oration is unusually varied in its contents. There is a fresh recension of the text, with critical and exegetical notes; an historical introduction, a rhetorical analysis, and a most minute account of the diplomatic material, prepared obviously for the disciples of the inmost chamber—exhaustive at once of the subject and the reader. There is also an interesting account of our sources of illustrative information; and we have the commentary of Asconius, and scholia from Bobbio appended entire to the oration.

It is not easy to determine exactly for what readers this edition is mainly intended. The editor seems to disclaim writing a school-book, and certainly much of his matter will suit only advanced students. Yet some of his notes are hardly above the elementary, and appear obtrusive in a special edition. One example will suffice. Cicero speaks of Clodius ironically as *mansuetum;* whereon Mr. Clark annotates: "= χειροήθη, of a domestic pet: cf. Aen. vii., 470 Ille *manum* patiens, mensæque *assuetus* herili." As a piece of derivation, *quid hoc ad Clodium?* As an interpretation of Cicero's meaning, it is forced and improbable. The style of the introduction and of many notes is not to be commended. It belongs to the would-be smart and vivacious dialect by which so many English commentators seek to impart an unnatural realism, as in this sentence: "Fausta, a daughter of Sulla, a great lady with a seamy past, wedded the doughty fighter." Mr. Clark remarks that in Cicero's *narratio* "the language employed is that of good conversation, never attempting to soar, but neither vulgar nor bald." It is a pity he had not profited by the example.

It seems as if the English university writers of the present day could not possibly comprehend Cicero, or, indeed, the rhetorical and self-exhibiting men of southern Europe, at all. The Briton's undefined notion that there must be some good in men so fiercely attacked as Clodius, and that a thoroughly high minded person could not talk about himself as Cicero does, issues in this strange account: "The orator was a good hater, and it was a necessity of his nature to have an enemy. Clodius may not have been so black as he is painted. . . . An act of generous forgiveness on the part of Clodius became classic." Now the very authority for this act which Mr. Clark cites, tells us it was done in imitation of Cicero's conduct to Gabinius, which Mr. Clark chooses to say was at the dictation of Pompey. To speak of "the necessity of Cicero's nature to have an enemy," is like talking of the necessity of Bonaparte's nature to sacrifice his own purposes.

Mr. Clark has taken very great pains to revise the text according to the best MSS. He is particularly confident that in § 27 (74) the reading *harenam* should be substituted for the vulgate *arma*. This last word he thinks cannot possibly bear the meaning "tools." Such a use seems authorized by the 'Georgics,' i., 160; and if Cicero wanted to say "tools," what word could he use except *arma* or *armamenta?*

The book appears, in spite of the inevitable difficulties of its press-work, to have all the beauty and accuracy of the Clarendon press; but *Atque* at the top of p. 9 looks very much like a misprint for *Atqui*.

Celia Thaxter. Letters edited by her Friends A. F. and R. L. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE editors of this biography have generously interpreted their right to withhold whatever would not bear out their notion of the woman and friend whose good fame was intrusted to them. They have supplied a brief account of the outward events of her life, and four portraits. In an introductory note they suggest the purpose which more or less obviously governs their choice of extracts from her letters: "Except for a light from within, which irradiated the world she lived in, her life could easily have worn the sad-colored hues of ordinary mortality." In the faith that she was a woman of radiant nature, they have shown her almost exclusively from the side of her affections. Incidentally, of course, the reader gets glimpses of her relation to wider interests in the world of thought and action, but for the most part the narrative is one of the affectionate duties and interests of Celia Thaxter as wife, mother, daughter, and friend. The narrative is one of a curiously sustained serenity. It suggests the possibility not only of an insular variety of literature, but of an island type of character. The woman described, spite of the evident purpose of her editors, constantly eludes their description, and appears half concealed, half revealed, in some tantalizing word or phrase quite remote from their characterization of her. She constantly suggests comparison with two women whose lives presented at different points great contrasts to hers. These two women are Maria Mitchell and Emily Dickinson. In her strong and durable personality she was like Maria Mitchell; so, too, in her love for birds and flowers. She shared with Emily Dickinson her curious incapacity for growth. Instead, she seems to have had the power to turn to a larger and larger world about her, to form wider relations with men and women. But, meantime, she does not change essentially. There are no stages in her poetry, no periods in her life. From season to season, like her own island, she seems to persist. She is there—to be discovered. Her duties are for the most part those of New England women two or three generations back, before "help" had been transformed into hired girls, and before the home-making had become so mechanically separated from housekeeping.

The most attractive part of Mrs. Thaxter's story is not that associated with her literary friends, her painted china, or the warm glow of her love for her grandchildren. It is not even her brave fight with death when she felt herself sustained by a faith half Oriental, half Christian. It is her early married life, when she loved her island, baked and brewed, hammered, and got temporarily cross over the washtub. One naturally compares Mrs. Thaxter's domestic struggles with Mrs. Carlyle's, and one discovers a similar stimulating effect on the struggler's rhetoric.

"Karly [her son], I think, is getting less nervous than he was. I try very hard to let him alone, but he is so mischievous that I can't help visiting him with small thunder occasionally, also spanks. . . . The biddies are fine. The other day we killed the old rooster, the magnificent sultan of the flock, and boiled him in a floured bag, and he was delicious. We had company to dinner, a strange young lady from Boston, and John kept saying, 'Please, Mamma, give me another piece of cockerel!' to my intense private amusement. . . . Oh, Lizzie, do you have races with things to get them eaten up? What with trying to eat up the quinces, apples, squashes, pumpkins, etc., as fast as they get a leaning towards decay, we are obliged to eat very little else; everybody in the neighborhood is so rich there's nobody to give them away to. I think Lamartine would be perfectly satisfied with our present diet. I've just got rid of the last tomatoes, to my great satisfaction. I've been lugging them about the county to my various friends for the last month, in the vain endeavor to get rid of them, and now there's only one *mess* left."

It must be admitted that, as the years go by, and Mrs. Thaxter gets to be petted by the literary great, and finds herself more interesting because they think her so, a slight affectation crops into her expression. But to the end there comes every now and then a whiff of charming downrightness—like lavender. This downrightness is all the more valuable since it comes associated with a sane, healthful view of life as worth living, of friends as worth cherishing, and of duty as worth the doing. Of late years, we have had many books about women, saints and sinners, cranks, simpletons, geniuses, but it is a question whether we have had one about a woman who was, on the whole, more encouraging than Celia Thaxter.

The Story of Sonny Sahib. By Mrs. Everard Cotes (Sara Jeannette Duncan). D. Appleton & Co.

MRS. COTES has made the massacre of the Indian mutiny of 1857 the starting-point of her semi-juvenile, semi-adult story, and the foundation of the very slight and transparent plot that underlies it. The court of an independant Rajput prince supplies the scenery to most of the incidents in its development. Amid dusky faces, Eastern coloring, and tropical accessories stands forth, in inward and spiritual, no less than outward and visible contrast, the figure of a fair haired English boy, an infant three days old, saved by his faithful ayah from the slaughter of women and children at Cawnpore, first to be made the playmate of the little prince of Chita, and finally for better things than this. The fact that its motive, as old as the history of story-telling, has been more skilfully managed elsewhere, and might conceivably have been more skilfully managed here, will hardly prevent the sympathetic reader from falling in with the emotional mood of the scene that brings the boy into the presence of his father, who could, according to the natural laws of fiction, be no other than the red-coated officer ordered into Rajputana to make martial remonstrance for the murder of the English medical missionary.

Enjoyment of the story consists largely in discerning, through its warp and woof, familiar aspects and habits of Indian domestic life, whether in the hill-village of Rubbulgurh or in the palace of Lalpore. Hindu dignitaries are depicted as *bouffe* dignitaries, or nearly so. A vein of ironical pleasantry serves at one and the same time to make the story move more lightly and to show the writer's light estimate of the national character. In regard to the dominant race, opinion is reversed. "A sahib's promise is written in gold," says old Tooni, the ayah; and the moral of Mrs. Cotes's pretty tale is nothing else

than an "Amen," variously illustrated, to this sentiment. Even at the threat of his life, Sunni "did not tell" that which would have been to the disadvantage of his selfish but indulgent friend, the Maharajah, thereby preserving to the end the cordial estimation in which the reader has held him from the early moment when he discreetly slept and throve under adverse circumstances.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bowen, E. W. An Historical Study of the O-Vowel in Accented Syllables in English. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. In Old New England: The Romance of a Colonial Fireside. Appletons.
Farnham, G. L. The Sentence Method of Teaching Reading, Writing and Spelling. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Fischer, Prof. Kuno. Goethe's Faust. Vol. I. Manchester, Iowa: H. R. Wolcott.
Fisher, Mary. Twenty five Letters on English Authors. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Gage, A. P. The Principles of Physics. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.55.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 15, 1895.

The Week.

WHILE the absolute and relative volume of a harvest always exerts profound influence upon a community's prosperity, there are times when crop results become a peculiarly critical factor in the situation. That this year's anticipated harvest in the United States is of such a character, no one can doubt. It can never be affirmed with certainty how far the outcome of last year's corn harvest created or emphasized the trade depression. In the entire United States the season's corn yield footed up but 60 per cent. of the crop of 1891. In some States the result meant ruin. Iowa produced less than one-third its corn yield of 1893; Kansas had still less to show; Nebraska's farmers gathered hardly one-twelfth of their ordinary harvest. Since discontent is the child of penury, and since financial heresy is the certain political result of discontent, it is not strange that free silver coinage should have seemed, six months ago, to have absolutely captured Kansas and Nebraska. If this season had witnessed another deficient crop of 1,200,000,000 bushels or less, it might reasonably be doubted whether the Iowa conventions would have taken the stand they have for a sound currency. The results now so well assured are little short of providential.

No less than 80,000,000 bushels of marketable wheat overhung the market, in this country alone, when the panic of 1893 came on us. The sudden decline of fifteen cents a bushel was the simple consequence of "realizing" to protect outstanding debts and acquire actual money against emergency. The enormous world's production, after the price of wheat was thus fixed, steadily kept down the market, even below the panic level, until this year's returns proved that the farmer had sought out his own cure—had diversified his crops and cut down his acreage of wheat. The poor wheat crops in Europe, even on the diminished acreage, and the partial failure of our own winter-sown crop, have worked in the same direction. Last week the American "visible supply" was but 38,000,000 bushels, against 89,000,000 at the close of 1894. The decrease continues despite the fact that the Northwestern farmers, who suffered severely a year ago, are raising a bountiful "spring wheat" yield. Nature, in other words, may be said to have distributed her favors this year with a judicious hand, the enormous corn crop in particular promising to be the mainstay of our reviving trade prosperity.

Bland's Missouri convention was for Bland first and last, and only incidentally for 16-to-1 silver and down with a "panic-breeding currency," banks, and bonds. Bland was both kinds of chairman, temporary and permanent, Bland drafted the resolutions, and Bland announced his purpose to take charge of the party machinery, new created by himself, and run it for all it is worth in the interest of silver—meaning himself. It was a rather low-down trick on Senator Cockrell, and especially on Senator Vest, upon whose seat Bland has his eye firmly fixed. They walked most guilelessly into Bland's trap. He really packed the convention with his own followers, the so-called primaries being held almost without notice, and attended only, as in the case of the now absurd Illinois convention, by silverites, and then, assuming to speak for "the Democrats of Missouri," reorganized the State committee so as to make it his own tool and give him the inside track for the senatorship. It was as vulgar a piece of boss politics as ever was seen. We observe that Bland telegraphed his congratulations to Blackburn of Kentucky. This is intended, we suppose, to show how much better the Missouri way is than the Kentucky way. If you call a regular party convention and have the delegates elected in the usual way, you may get beaten. Bland's plan is much simpler—call a "snap" convention, keep your opponents out of the primaries, and you can resolve as you please for silver and endorse yourself for the Presidency, the Senatorship, or Examiner in Lunacy.

The overthrow of the free-silverites in the Iowa Democratic State convention is another staggering blow for that faction in all the other States. Even in Missouri it will have a strong influence. The result of the fight shows what can be done among intelligent people by intelligent work. In 1890 the Democrats of Iowa in their State convention went for free coinage with hardly a dissenting vote, the following resolution being part of the platform of that year:

> "We demand the free coinage of silver, and that it be made a legal tender for all debts, public and private, and denounce as unjust and dishonest the provision of the law recently enacted allowing parties to stipulate against payment in silver and silver certificates, thus setting up one standard of value for the poor man and the other for the rich man."

This senseless resolution was again passed in the following year. We call it senseless because the second half of it speaks of a law "recently enacted" which never was enacted at all, the right to stipulate for payment in any kind of money that the parties choose being a common-law right which existed anterior to the Constitution. But the resolutions of 1890 and 1891 are all rubbish now, the convention of July 7 having voted against the free-silverites by an overwhelming majority. The Des Moines *Leader* (Dem.) tells us that the party in the State is entirely satisfied with the national platform of 1892, which, whatever else it may mean, is not free coinage at 16 to 1 or on any basis which would land us on the silver standard.

The prospect of a new international conference to promote bimetallism grows fainter. A few days ago ex-Speaker Crisp was interviewed on the subject in London. He said that he could not discover that any interest was taken in the subject in Great Britain, and although he had been assured that the cause was gaining, the gain would be considered very slow in the United States. We have already adverted to the fact that although a general election has just taken place in England which fixes the government probably for seven years, not a word about bimetallism was heard on the hustings. The cause does not seem to be prospering in Germany any more than in England. Dr. Arendt (the German Bland) has become impatient at the slowness of the movement, and has issued a pamphlet attacking Director Koch of the Reichsbank as an ignoramus, unfit for his position. Dr. Koch replies that Arendt's pamphlet is unworthy of notice, but he adds that the holding of an international conference at Germany's invitation is further off than ever, and that not one important German State has declared in favor of bimetallism since the subject was formally submitted to them. This is a flat contradiction of Mr. Moreton Frewen's letter to the London *Times*, in which he said that Chancellor Hohenlohe had assured the silver men in the United States that a conference would soon be called.

The decision of Judge Goff in the South Carolina registration cases, dismissing the bill praying for an injunction, is a victory for the Tillman Government in the State, although it is yet possible that the Supreme Court of the United States may take a different view of the matter. Judge Goff's opinion states that he feels himself bound by the decision of the Circuit Court of Appeals to make this decision, but he does not conceal the fact that he believes it to be erroneous. The appellate court held that the plaintiffs, although deprived of their rights as citizens of the United States and of the State of South Carolina, had an adequate remedy at law, and that a bill in equity would, therefore, not lie. Judge Goff expresses his regret that the character of the remedy at law was not indicated, for he says that he cannot find any. But he goes further, and takes the position that as the United States courts are established for the purpose of determining controversies

arising from conflicting provisions of State and federal constitutions and enactments, they should not so limit their action as to make it useless. It is vain for a court to say that there is an adequate remedy at law when the injury will be completed before the remedy can be applied, and when it is of an irreparable character. Between the decision of the Supreme Court of South Carolina holding that it cannot interfere with the registration act, and that of the United States appellate court, many citizens will undoubtedly be deprived of the suffrage. To say that they have their actions for damages is no sufficient reply to their complaints. It is the free exercise of the right that they demand, not compensation for being deprived of it. But as the case is likely to come before the Supreme Court, we shall doubtless soon have a final adjudication upon the important principles involved.

The announcement that the California State Labor Commissioner is ready with a petition to Congress, asking for the passage of a law to restrict the immigration of Japanese to this country, is not unexpected. The labor department of California is a part of the political machinery of the State, and that machinery is always on the side of "labor," in the sense of the labor demagogue. The number of Japanese immigrants to this country has increased in the last few years. In the Treasury statistics, our Asiatic emigrants are classified as coming from China and from "other Asia." The Chinese Immigration Act reduced the emigrants from that country, who numbered nearly 40,000 in 1882, to 10 in 1887. The immigrants from "other Asia," principally Japanese, who numbered 50 in 1882, increased to 2,732 in 1890, to 5,984 in 1892, and, probably owing to the business depression, declined to 3,304 in 1894. There are no complaints in California against the Japanese such as have been raised so largely against the Chinese, in regard to their mode of living, personal habits, etc. The trouble is that California requires a vast army of laborers to gather its crops, especially the fruit, the working season being short. Then it becomes a problem what to do with the unemployed. There is a dearth of labor at one season, a plethora at another. Because the Chinamen and Japanese can accommodate themselves to these circumstances, living most economically during the period of their non-employment, they have incurred the deadly hatred of white men, who think that, but for the Asiatics, the supply of employment would last the year round. We shall hear a great deal about the Japanese character in Congress in the immediate future.

One of the most impudent manifestations of the pension-grabbing spirit yet seen is in a recent act of the New York Legislature which authorizes towns to recompense the men who were drafted under the law of 1863 for their patriotic sacrifices, and provides that if the drafted men are no longer living, their heirs at law shall receive the compensation so long withheld from their gallant ancestors. In case the drafted patriot had raised the $300 which enabled him to purchase exemption from military duty by borrowing it, or had received it as a gift, the lender or the donor is to be compensated. If the drafted man did not purchase exemption, but went to the war, he is to get his $300, and, if he was killed in the war, his heirs are to have it. If the drafted man paid for a substitute, he is to have his money back; and, in every case, interest for the last thirty years is to be allowed. When it comes to honoring patriotism, the New York Legislature does not do things by halves. But the courts, unfortunately for the drafted patriots, are less liberal, and this act has just been held to be unconstitutional by Judge Brown. As to the money paid by a drafted man, Judge Brown asserts that the sole object of such payment was to escape the performance of a public service, and that it was an affair which concerned the drafted man alone. This is a terrible blow to the drafted men and their heirs. Three hundred dollars with interest since 1864 is a very comfortable sum of money, and would go far to sweeten the recollections of the trials and sufferings occasioned by having to send a substitute to the war or pay for exemption. But let not these patriots be cast down. All is not lost while honor remains. No court can tear the laurels from the heads of our drafted compatriots. The proud distinction of having suffered in pocket for their country will ever be theirs. The Legislature has shown its appreciation of their gallant services, although ineffectively, from a pecuniary point of view. But Congress may yet be appealed to. When the Republicans get power again, a more liberal spirit will be manifested in dealing with pensions, and the drafted men and their heirs may at last obtain the pecuniary recognition of their patriotism which an ungrateful country has so long denied them.

The cases of the persons accused of defrauding the State of New Jersey in various ways, as charged in the testimony brought out before the Senate committee last spring, will not be improved in the public view by the defence made by the first of them who has been brought to trial, Col. Van Cleef, whom the disclosures forced out of the office of Secretary of the State Board of Assessors. The indictment against him charged him with obtaining money for 15,000 maps which had never been furnished to the State. This was a very direct charge and capable of a very direct denial. Instead of making such a denial, however, his counsel put in no testimony at all in his behalf before the court, relying wholly on technicalities to destroy the effect of the indictment, such as an effort to show that the money did not pass directly from the State to Van Cleef, that Van Cleef did not receive from the contractors for the work the identical money which they were paid by the State, and that the matter of false pretence on Van Cleef's part could be disposed of by a confusion of dates. The Judge, in his charge to the jury, brushed all this defence aside as utterly frivolous. Experience has shown the difficulty of convicting a man with a political pull before a jury selected at a State capital, and Van Cleef's acquittal will occasion no surprise. But his trial will only confirm the public impression that the Senate investigation was timely, and that perhaps it might go considerably deeper.

We are gradually learning the other side of the Bannock Indian massacre—that is, the Indian side. The first thing of importance is, that there was no legal authority for arresting the Indians at all. The charge was that they were violating the game laws of Wyoming, the maximum penalty of which is a fine of $10 and three months' confinement in the county jail. But, in order to execute the law, somebody must be charged with an infraction of it, and a warrant must be issued by a magistrate for that particular person. The warrants in this case were issued in blank. Therefore the constable and his posse committed an assault when they arrested the Indians. They had no right to molest them. It follows that the killing was murder, and it is said that Col. Coppinger takes that view of it. Another fact of importance is, that the Indian who was killed was not running away, although he perhaps had the intention to do so. His horse's bridle was held by one of the posse at the time of the shooting. Of course, the Governor of Wyoming takes the frontier view of these things, and laments that people at the East should say hard things about the bloodthirsty constable and his posse. This is easily understood. These men have votes; the Indians have none.

Two great Socialist congresses are to be held in October, one for France, at Limoges, and the German one at Breslau. At present "the programme" to be submitted at each of these gatherings is being labored over by the leaders of Socialistic thought, and the results are far from harmonious or reassuring. An especial gloom rests upon the French Socialists just now owing to their distinct rebuff in the recent election of the "General Councils." These councils are very much like our State Legislatures, ruling the departments and electing Senators to the national Parliament. Out of some 1,500 members, the Socialists succeeded in electing just twelve in all France. This adjourns the millennium again. It also makes it harder than ever for the French Socialists to arrange a plan of campaign

on which all classes can unite. In the cities they say they are going to extinguish private property; but that doctrine does not fall on itching ears when preached to the land-holding peasant. Hence the programme must continue to be two-faced. A like difficulty is felt in Germany. Bebel is for putting a strong agrarian plank into the Socialist platform, but is meeting with noisy and powerful opposition, even among his own followers. The *Sozial-Demokrat* calls Bebel's scheme a "tape-worm creation," which is an elegant way of saying it has no true place in the internal economy of Socialism. From such unseemly striving it is a relief to turn to the proposals of the managers of the Congress of German Catholic Socialists. They are sweetly going to "remedy existing social evils by the application of the principles of Christianity to the economic life." Some of the applications they propose to make, however, will surely expose them, if ever practically urged, to the rebuke which the Pope addressed to the Belgian clergy when he warned them "not to confound divine right and human law."

The Rev. Joseph Parker of the London City Temple has given his views of the causes of the Liberal collapse. Coming from an old Nonconformist and Liberal leader they will command, as they deserve, attention. He is very frank in charging the disaster to the fooling of the Liberal party with "Radicalism, Socialism, and Laborism." Labor tyranny, he maintains, "cost Liberalism dear in this election," and he sees no salvation for the party except in harking back to "Liberalism in the good old healthy sense." He objects to making any more "false promises to the farmer and to the unemployed," and to thinking that a great party can live on "the labor problem." Striking confirmation of these ideas may be found in many of the letters to the *Star*, explaining, on the editor's invitation, "why we lost." One correspondent writes, "Each of us workers wants to do his own work in his own way, in as many or as few hours a day as he pleases, and for as much or as little as he can get." That is clearly the voice of an old-style workingman Liberal, and the number of his kind that gave their votes against new-style Liberalism in the election ought to be a warning to politicians against supposing that all workingmen desire to have their labor and their lives regulated by walking delegates or a fussily paternal government. It is to be said for Mr. Gladstone that he never gave in to this Liberal labor and Socialist craze. He was not trained in that school. Labor delegations he would receive courteously, but would invariably stick pins in their bubbles. His style of meeting them may grow more popular now that the other style is shown not to have even the merit of succeeding in winning votes. Any other merit it never had.

Lord Salisbury has already been waited upon by representatives of workingmen in Government employ, and informed that his victory at the polls was due solely to them. They were the ones who smashed the Liberal party, and they are now prepared to smash his party unless some of their modest demands are promptly complied with. Samples of the little things they would like the new Premier to promise them are a minimum wage of thirty shillings a week for unskilled labor, and a pension of twenty shillings a week after fifty-five. They would also have the Government at once put an end to the pernicious plan of buying goods when it could just as well manufacture itself, at a much higher cost, everything it needs. One knows not which most to admire about this, its impudence or its ingratitude. The Liberals went further towards meeting the demands of workmen employed by Government than any party ever did before. They enforced the eight-hour law in all Government works; they passed the factory act; they practically said to the labor leaders, If you don't see what you want, ask for it. Now these same leaders turn and bite the hand that fed them. Their cool assumption that they settled the election will not deceive even themselves. Their main influence was to disgust the public with the party that truckled to them. This is not exactly an argument to make the other party begin truckling. But the Socialists are always good at claiming electoral importance. They were going to do tremendous things in the recent departmental elections in France, but, as a matter of fact, they were beaten disastrously.

The unanimous reëlection of Speaker Gully by the new Parliament on Monday was determined upon by the Cabinet some days ago; but the squelching of the attempt to override the unwritten law of Parliament, and oust him for a Conservative, is an event of great importance. It cannot be denied that the Conservatives were under peculiar temptation to elect a Speaker of their own. Mr. Gully had been chosen almost in the last hours of a dying Parliament by a moribund ministry, and under circumstances exasperating in more ways than one to the party that felt itself certain of coming soon into power. It was flatly intimated at the time, in fact, that if the Conservatives won the impending election, they would turn Mr. Gully out. This was understood to be Mr. Chamberlain's intention, and probably Mr. Balfour's. The latter, at any rate, went to Carlisle to speak against Mr. Gully's election to Parliament, though, as it turned out, the Speaker was one of the two or three Liberals who came back with increased majorities. But when the election was over, the party organs and party leaders changed their tune. It was time to be magnanimous, not grasping. It especially behooved a party that stood for the ancient traditions of Parliament in the matter of the powers and privileges of the Lords, to be careful about interfering with any of the dignities and safeguards of the Commons. But what really settled the thing was, no doubt, the open assertion of some of the oldest and most honored Conservatives, and some of the most influential Liberal Unionists without the fear of Mr. Chamberlain before their eyes, that they would not vote for a Conservative candidate should one be put up against Mr. Gully. Of course the Government could have elected a Speaker if they had insisted upon it, but they had no wish to precipitate a split on the first day of the session, and so chose the better part of making a virtue of an old custom which it would have been politically awkward for them to violate.

Before surrendering the Colonial Office to Mr. Chamberlain, Lord Ripon gave out a Parliamentary paper of great importance in the shape of a despatch to the Governor-General of Canada, the Governors of the Australasian colonies, and the Governor of the Cape. In it he takes up and examines the recommendations of the famous Ottawa conference, of a year ago, looking to the formation of a customs union between British colonies. It will be recalled that the conference declared a general British customs union impracticable, inasmuch as the colonies depend on their tariffs for so large a part of their revenue, but that it resolved heartily in favor of a system of "differential duties," by which the products of one colony should be favored above foreign products in the markets of the others and of the mother country. Lord Ripon first points out to the eager colonists the economic folly of such a scheme. Differential duties are only another name for protective duties, and he asks if anybody supposes England is going further to disable herself in the competition for the world's trade by increasing the cost of her raw material in that way. Moreover, he reminds the colonial governors, the Imperial Government has oversight of the colonies in all that relates to international obligations, and cannot permit treaties to be overridden. Existing treaties with Belgium and Germany contain clauses which would make differential duties, as against them, in a British colony impossible. The Ottawa resolutions asked the Colonial Office to have these clauses "removed." Lord Ripon says that he has referred the matter to the German and Belgian governments, and that they, maliciously enough, decline to remove them. He therefore tells the Governors that no differential-duty bill must be allowed to pass a Colonial Parliament except provisionally and subject to the approval of the Home Office. Lord Ripon's icy tone and cold logic will go far towards effectually chilling the enthusiasm of the colonists on the subject.

CATHOLICS AND THE SALOONS.

THE convention of the Catholic Total Abstinence Union was, of course, planned to meet in this city last week without the least foresight of the remarkable conflict in which it would find the authorities and the saloons. But it could not have been more happily timed if carefully arranged for just such a situation. No single event, in fact, since the agitation began has been of equal moral and political significance with the extraordinary demonstration of Catholic sentiment, witnessed on Wednesday week, against the arrogant saloon power. Endorsed by the presence and sympathy of the highest dignitaries of the Church in this country, and of the special legate of the Pope himself, the religious celebrations of the day were highly important, but had to yield in popular effect to the great evening meeting held in Carnegie Hall. The audience gathered there was fairly representative, we are told, of what may be called the middle-class Catholics of this city. Many active politicians were present of the kind that attend primaries and manage conventions. Yet the feeling of the meeting was so evidently and overwhelmingly in favor of enforcing the excise law, especially of closing the saloons on Sunday, that the lone Tammany orator put up to test the sentiment of Catholics on the great Tammany platform of not enforcing the law retired in complete discomfiture.

Discomfiture is visible in other quarters also. The *Sun* got wind last week of what was coming—was flatly notified, in fact, that the uproarious Tammany campaign it was going to conduct on the platform of violating the Sunday law would be a campaign in which the Catholic Church would take the other side. Since then it has worn a distant and abstracted air when the subject was referred to. Now that the threatened has become the actual, now that the authorities and the representatives of the Catholic Church have made their position so unmistakable, the hilarity of a great many statesmen will in like manner be checked. Senator Hill will take a little time to think it over before he writes another letter in favor of open saloons on Sunday, law or no law. The Democratic State committee will be fully as cautious as was the Republican in handling this dynamite cartridge. Inner Tammany circles will be again shrouded in that gloom which they thought was surely lifting before the prospect of their coming back to power as the champions of lawlessness.

That the Catholic Church could have been expected to take any other position only shows how inconceivably stupid politicians can be when they set about it. Her official and authoritative attitude towards the liquor traffic and the Sunday question has long been known. It was explicitly set forth in Archbishop Ryan's sermon last week. The Church does not lay down any absolute and binding doctrine of total abstinence. It does not declare liquor-selling of all kinds and under all circumstances to be a sin. But it has pronounced and will continue to pronounce in favor of temperance, and has stigmatized saloon-keeping as an "unbecoming business" for a Catholic. The Archbishop freely acknowledged that a stigma had been brought on the Catholic name by the fact of so many Catholics being intemperate and so many nominal Catholics being saloon-keepers. But that was only an added reason, he maintained, for making the true teaching and attitude of the Church known, and for encouraging the Total Abstinence Union and every other moral or legal influence which would tend to diminish or cure the evils of drunkenness. Most outspoken was the Rev. Father Cleary, President of the Union. Amidst loud applause, he denounced "the liquor power, intrenched behind a fortification of wealth gathered from the earnings of the unfortunate," now grown "defiant of public opinion," "the uncompromising enemy of religion and country," "desecrating the sanctity of our Sunday and making a mockery of universal suffrage."

Of course, the peculiar value of this great Catholic demonstration at the present juncture lies in the fact that it reveals the existence of an immense political power on the side of the observance of law and a quiet Sunday. The Catholic vote has undoubtedly been largely a Tammany vote. Therefore, some hasty political reasoners have argued, Tammany being for an excise law to be enforced or not according as the authorities were paid or not, and especially for a lawless Sunday, the Catholic Church will be for those things, too. No greater mistake could be made. Senator O'Sullivan knows more about his subject now than he did before the Catholics in Carnegie Hall hissed and hooted him for his law-defying words. Far from Tammany being likely to swing the Catholic vote on this question, the Catholic vote is likely to make Tammany see a great light such as has already dawned upon the *Sun*. Tammany may hope and mean to win the next election as the party pledged to restore the old fraudulent and corrupt excise régime, but it will be pretty secret about it; it will not go on openly boasting that the platform of lawlessness is the one on which to carry this city.

It is further to be considered that the working Catholic priests of New York are in a position to know and to influence the political sentiments of vast numbers of foreign-born voters. Their testimony is far more valuable than that of an equal body of Protestant clergymen. Many of them have assured the Police Board that the policy of Sunday closing is by no means working such havoc or proving so unpopular in the tenement-house districts as has been alleged. They also carry greater weight than Protestants because their views have a way of affecting the votes of their congregations. Of too many Protestant clergymen the politicians will say, as Lord Carteret said of Bishop Sherlock, "Oh, he talks like a parson, and consequently is so used to talk to people that don't mind him that I left him to find it out at his leisure, and shall have him again for all this whenever I want him." Catholic priests are not so open to this charge, and their arraying themselves, with so many of their people, on the side of enforcement of law and resistance to the arrogant pretensions of saloonists to special privileges, cannot fail to give a different political aspect to the whole question. For one thing, it puts an end, for a time at least, to the talk about Tammany, as the great exemplar of lawlessness and disorder, "coming back with a whoop."

LORD SALISBURY AND ARMENIA.

LORD SALISBURY'S natural predilection is for foreign affairs, and his equally natural predilection is to conduct them with a high hand. The big majority now behind him will not have a tendency to rein him in. The chances are, therefore, that he would, in any case, adopt a peremptory tone in the negotiations with Turkey about ravaged Armenia; these chances really amount to a certainty in view of the powerful and united sentiment in England now clamorous for such a course.

A highly significant fact about Mr. Gladstone's recent speech on the Armenian horrors is, that it was made practically at Lord Salisbury's request. Some of the latter's friends and supporters, notably the Duke of Westminster, chairman of the Chester meeting on August 6, arranged the demonstration and obtained Mr. Gladstone's promise to speak. He had steadily refused to say anything until the general election was over, lest a partisan twist might be given to his remarks. Then he virtually came forward to strengthen Lord Salisbury's hands. This was put beyond all doubt by the terms of the resolution he introduced, which declared that the Government would have "the cordial support of the entire nation, without distinction of party," in providing effective guarantees for "the safety of life, honor, religion, and property" in Armenia.

This coöperation of two rival leaders in such a cause is an incident which might be used to point a moral to some of our small-minded politicians. To have invited the assistance of Mr. Gladstone was practically a confession by Lord Salisbury that he and his party were not the only ones concerned about the national honor, not the only ones in whose keeping that honor was safe. And for Mr. Gladstone to go forward cheerfully, even ardently, not to put his old antagonist "in a hole," but actually to help and strengthen him, betrays woful mismanagement from the standpoint of higher American politics. But the one great result

of such a union of forces is to assure Lord Salisbury of support in the most vigorous measures he may see fit to adopt with the Porte. When Gladstone cries out, "Do not let us be afraid of the word coercion," it is safe to say that Salisbury will not be afraid of it.

The question is now an old one, but in its present phase it may be said to date from 1878. In that year England and Turkey made a convention, by the first article of which the Sultan agreed to introduce reforms into the government of his Christian and other subjects in Armenia, and in the same year the Treaty of Berlin was signed. It provided for religious liberty in all Turkey, and the Sultan undertook "to carry out, without further delay, the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and to guarantee their security against the Circassians and Kurds." It was further required that the Sultan should report periodically what steps were being taken to carry out this article, and that the Powers should superintend the application of them. The Porte, being responsible to all the Powers, has stood in real fear of none, and the Powers, not having decided upon the *modus operandi* to be employed in superintending the carrying out of the reforms, have stood idly by while the Turks and Kurds have played into each other's hands, and, actuated by a common hatred of the Armenians, have run riot in outrage and oppression. "Christian and civilized Europe," as M. Rolin-Jacquemyns said in an article in the *Revue de Droit International* in 1887, "was more occupied with its intestine quarrels and jealousies than with its collective duties." That since the treaty of Berlin the condition of the Armenians has not improved, and that Turkey has not introduced any real reforms in amelioration of their condition, there is abundant evidence.

Soon after the treaty went into effect, the British Consul at Erzerum wrote to his Government that the condition of the Christians was worse than ever, that the Kurds had the upper hand, and that in some localities arson, assault, and rape were committed with impunity. The regular troops were as bad as the Kurds, and committed precisely the same offences. Bribery of officials existed almost everywhere, and the occasional pure official was powerless in the face of extended organized official corruption. In 1879 Sir A. H. Layard, British Ambassador to Turkey, wrote as follows to Lord Salisbury:

> "Unless the Porte takes care, and acts with prudence and forethought, there will be an Armenian question in Asia similar to the Bulgarian question in Europe, from which the last war arose. The same intrigues are being resorted to in Asia Minor to establish an Armenian nationality, and to bring about a state of things which will cause a cry of horror among the Christian population, and a European intervention."

In 1880 the Powers addressed a collective note to the Porte on the subject of Armenia. It called attention to the fact that anarchy existed in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and that the existing state of affairs, if not remedied, "would, in all probability, lead to the destruction of the Christian population of vast districts." To this remonstrance the Sultan made no reply whatsoever.

But the question has now reached a stage where common humanity demands that it be settled. Whether Armenia is taken entirely away from Turkey and erected into an independency, or whether the Sultan shall be permitted to govern it only in such a way as European influence or coercion shall direct, are questions for discussion; but that existing conditions cannot be endured much longer is palpable. The extent of the massacre near Mush a year ago cannot yet be estimated accurately, and, in view of past experience in similar cases, it is probable that it will never be entirely known. That it embraced fully 10,000 people is not at all improbable. As the Armenians are not permitted to carry arms, there can have been no real contest, nor can the inspiration of the slaughter be properly attributed to a rebellion against the Turkish Government. An organized uprising is an impossibility under the circumstances. Mr. Gladstone, in his speech at Chester, merely repeated what he said in his speech of December last. After touching upon the evidence of the massacre which tended "strongly to a conclusion to the general effect that the outrages and the scenes and abominations of 1876 in Bulgaria had been repeated in 1894 in Armenia," he added:

> "As I have said, I hope it is not so, and I will hope to the last; but if it is so, it is time that one general shout of execration—not of men, but of deeds—one general shout of execration, directed against deeds of wickedness, should rise from outraged humanity, and should force itself into the ears of the ultan of Turkey and make him sensible, if anything can make him sensible, of the madness of such a course."

THE LEGION OF HONOR.

The French Chamber has furnished another example of its incapacity as a governing body by its recent action concerning the Legion of Honor. M. Eiffel, the eminent engineer, was a member of the Legion of Honor, and was also involved in the Panama Canal scandal. For his dealings in this matter he was prosecuted, and in the first instance convicted of fraud. His conviction was reversed by the Court of Cassation upon the ground that what we should call the statute of limitations protected him. The defence urged by M. Eiffel, that he was not guilty of fraud because he acted in the capacity of a contractor and not that of an agent, was not considered by the Court of Cassation, as his conviction was irregular upon the ground above mentioned. Upon the suggestion of the Minister of Justice, the council of the Legion of Honor undertook an investigation upon its own account. After prolonged inquiry the committee to whom the investigation was intrusted reported that the evidence showed that M. Eiffel had undoubtedly been too much "preoccupied with his own pecuniary interests," and had not sufficiently regarded his responsibilities as a member of the Legion of Honor. Nevertheless they declared that he had dealt "at arm's length" with the Panama Company and had been guilty of no breach of trust. He had made a contract with the company which no doubt brought him in enormous gains, but which the company deliberately agreed to. In view of all the circumstances, however, the committee reported that M. Eiffel, as a member of the Legion of Honor, deserved censure.

Upon this the Chancellor of the Legion requested the opinion of the President of the Court of Cassation, who submitted conclusions similar to those reached by the committee. The matter then came before the full Council of the Legion of Honor and received there also full discussion. At last one member, wearied by the prolonged debate, arose and said, "M. Eiffel is either guilty or not guilty. If he is guilty, he ought to be expelled; if he is not guilty, he ought to be acquitted." A vote being taken, the majority of the Council declared that M. Eiffel had not been guilty of dishonorable conduct, and was therefore not amenable to discipline. Upon this the French Chamber, in a tempest of virtuous indignation, voted, with only two dissentient voices, that the Government should undertake the reorganization of the Council of the Legion of Honor. There was nothing for the members of the Council to do after such a vote except to resign; but the Chamber was entirely unprepared with any scheme of reorganization. The Government has, therefore, requested the Council to continue its functions for the present, and, so far as yet appears, its members may retain their offices for an indefinite period. Their personal character, it is fair to add, appears to be above reproach.

While the action of the Chamber was hasty and ill-considered, it can hardly be said that it justified the virulent denunciation which it has received from the partisans of the Legion of Honor. This vituperation strikingly resembles that which our Grand Army pours forth whenever any reform of our pension abuses is proposed, and it may be apprehended that it has a similar cause. For it must be remembered that honor is not the sole advantage that goes with the red ribbon. Something more substantial in the shape of pecuniary emolument is very extensively enjoyed. Experience has shown that recipients of pensions are a sensitive class. They estimate highly the services for which their pensions are bestowed, and they resent angrily any manifestation on the part of the public of a disposition to question the accuracy of this estimate or to scrutinize the pension roll. Experience has also proved that where honorary distinctions have been combined with pecuniary gains,

a sordid condition of affairs tends to result. It must be admitted that the outcries of the champions of the Legion of Honor suggest that "that sensibility of principle, that chastity of honor, which felt a stain like a wound, is gone." Nowhere is it suggested that the inability of the Legion of Honor to purge itself of such dubious characters as M. Eiffel shows that its title has become inappropriate. Apparently its journalistic defenders are as indifferent as are the members of our Grand Army to the moral delinquencies of its members. It is not honor that is involved, but titles and pensions. It is not what the organization represents that is sacred, but the organization itself.

Every such organization bears within itself the seeds of its own decay, and the existence of this and similar organizations in France has had much to do with the perversion of the brilliant qualities of that country. The man who sets his heart upon obtaining a decoration—and a pension—on the ground of his virtue, is not ideally virtuous. Such decorations are appropriate in ages when bravery and virtue are synonymous. The motives which make men perform daring acts are then immaterial. It is enough when, from whatever motive, they are willing to take their lives in their hands. Superstition, race hatred, desire for fame, or whiskey may be the inspiring cause of bold deeds, but it is the deeds themselves that must be honored without questioning the consciences of the heroes. In peaceful times it is unnecessary to encourage moral excellence by any public "recompense of reward." The French nature, however, seems to crave open recognition of virtue, and thus tends to subordinate virtue to glory.

Napoleon, who founded the Legion of Honor, understood his countrymen, and he understood also the spirit of his age. That spirit demanded equality of opportunity—*la carrière ouverte aux talents*—and he offered a decoration to every common soldier who distinguished himself. In the quality of this decoration differences of rank or position were ignored, and the order was at once military and democratic. Under Napoleon III., however, aristocratical distinctions were introduced. The red ribbon was reserved for officers, while yellow was the color for private soldiers. For a time after the war of 1870 the Legion of Honor was again a purely military order. But, during a quarter of a century of peace, soldiers have had little opportunity to perform acts worthy of glorification, and the non-military element has increased until now nearly one-half of the members are civilians. The pitiful jealousies and heartburnings and intrigues which the anxiety to be decorated has injected into Parisian life are too well known to need to be dwelt upon. "Plus on la donne, plus on la demande," was Napoleon's experience with his creation, and the pressure to obtain the ribbon is like that to obtain office in this country. Doubtless the Legion of Honor will be after some fashion reorganized, but it is beyond the power of the French Chamber to make it "the nurse of manly sentiment and heroic enterprise," or to impart to it that "unbought grace of life" which is indeed the grace of a day that is dead.

ANOTHER HYMN TO APOLLO.

THE discovery of another hymn to Apollo, accompanied by the musical notation, is a piece of good luck which was well deserved by the explorers at Delphi, and, we may add, not entirely unexpected. It was thought probable that the Treasury of the Athenians which yielded the hymns described last year might furnish another contribution to the history of Greek music. This has proved to be the case, and the results are figured and described in the latest issue of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* (xi-xii, November, December, 1894). The fragment of forty-two lines, with some letters missing in every line, is engraved in two columns on a marble slab sixty-one centimetres high and eighty wide. As in the former hymn, the stonecutter, following the musician's copy, pursues the practice of writing vowels and diphthongs twice, whether naturally long or long by position, when the rhythm and musical notes make them stand, by resolution, for two short syllables. The first column numbers twenty-eight lines, the beginnings of which are generally well preserved; the left-hand upper corner was broken off, but this lacuna is fortunately filled by a fragment figured in the last volume of the Bulletin. The second column has been reconstructed from nine fragments ingeniously pieced together by the efforts of MM. Homolle and Bourguet and the suggestions of Prof. Otto Crusius. The text is restored and ably edited by M. Henri Weil, the music transcribed by M. Théodore Reinach. It is a noteworthy fact that M. Weil was aided in his conjectures by a curious refinement of the musician, a correspondence between the word-accent and the melody, which requires us, for example, in line eleven, to read δρό]μους instead of ἀτ]μοὺς. The principle upon which this is based, and which was discovered by MM. Havet and Reinach while studying the Seikelos inscription, was observed by Crusius and Monro in the former hymn, and has just been completely formulated by M. Reinach.

The general sense of the hymn is given in a very satisfactory degree by M. Weil's restitution. It was a species of thanksgiving performed by a chorus of Dionysiac artists from Athens, and it belonged in strictness to the class called *hyporchemes*—that is to say, the words were chanted to the accompaniment of the flute and the lyre by a portion of the chorus, while the remaining portion executed a dance of appropriate character. The rhythm, like that of the first-discovered hymn, is pæonic; it consists of a succession of pæons or Cretics (— ⏑ —) in five-eighths time, except that the prayer at the close passes over into a Glyconic system. There is also a close family resemblance between the subject and the occasion of the two hymns. The epoch of the latter is absolutely fixed by the forty-first line as falling after the time of the Roman conquest, and may be placed near the end of the second century B. C. We may therefore assume the poem to be commemorative of the defeat of the Gauls. It was doubtless written by some member of the guild of Dionysiac artists, the τεχνιτῶν of line twenty-two; and it displays the conventional arrangement and sentiments that might be expected from a versifier who wrote professionally to order, without inspiration or with borrowed inspiration.

Beginning, as in duty bound, with an invocation of the Muses, the poem passes to the story of the birth of Apollo, of his visit to the Attic land, where a mysterious voice salutes him with the cry of Pæan, the title by which he is still invoked by all Athenians and by the Dionysiac troop that now chants his praise. As he then founded his temple and defended it against the dragon, so later did he keep guard against the barbarian horde, in memory of which they raise this hymn. Borrowing many phrases and epithets from the Homeric Hymn to Apollo, it closes with a prayer for the people of Delphi and of Athens. The translation runs as follows:

"Come to the twin heights of beetling Parnassus that looks afar, and inspire my songs, Pierian Muses, ye who dwell in the snow-beaten crags of Helicon. Sing of the Pythian god, of golden hair, Phœbus with the tuneful lyre, whom blessed Leto bore beside the famous water, grasping with her hands in labor-pangs the lusty shoot of the gray-green olive tree. And the vault of heaven was glad and radiant with unclouded light; the æther stilled the swift courses of the wind to calm, while the deep boom of the furious billows sank to rest, and mighty Oceanus, who with his moist arms clasps the earth around.

"Then, leaving the Cynthian Island, the god set foot upon the glorious land of Attica, first dowered with Demeter's gift, hard by the hill of Pallas; and he was sped by melodies of the Libyan lotus, mingling its honey-sweet breath with the varied notes of the lyre. Thrice did the voice that dwells in the rock hail him with the cry of 'Pæan,' and he rejoiced because he laid up in his heart and understood the will of Zeus. Wherefore, from that time forth, our Attic folk, sons of the soil, call him Pæan; and by that name he is invoked by the great sacred band of the servants of Bacchus, smitten by the thyrsus, who dwell in the city of Cecrops.

"Advance, then, warder of the oracular tripod, to the summit of Parnassus trodden by the gods, dear to the Mænads in their ecstasies. There once, garlanding thy golden locks with laurel boughs, thou wert dragging with thy sacred hand enormous blocks, the foundations of thy temple, when thou didst encounter the monstrous daughter of Earth [the dragon Python]; abiding her onset, O deity of the gracious eyes, thou didst slay with thy arrows the child of Earth. . . . And thou wert keeping guard by the holy place that is the navel of the Earth, when the Barbarian horde of Gauls, bent on profaning thy rich shrine with plunder, perished in the whirlwind of snow. Now, O Phœbus, save and guard the city founded by Pallas, and her famous people; and thou, too, goddess of the bow, and mistress of the Cretan hounds, and thou, Leto most revered! guard ye the dwellers of Delphi, their children, their consorts, and their homes, free from calamity. Be favorable to the servants of Bacchus, crowned with the honors of the games! Prosper and increase the martial sway of the Romans! May it flourish in the might of immortal youth, and be ever triumphant in battle!"

Our poet has chosen, singularly enough, to make his dragon feminine; the poet of the former hymn disagrees with him in this point. This might lead us to ascribe the two hymns to different authors; their epoch is certainly nearly the same, they belong to the same school, and are shaped on the same pattern. They are so much alike that the later discovery sheds light on the earlier, and enables the editors to amend in some particulars the readings and the music published last year. The chief change, and a very obvious one, is that which reverses the order of the marble slabs and makes the invocation to the Muses stand at the beginning, after the pattern of the second hymn. Minor changes are extremely interesting, but belong to the province of the scholarly expert.

Musically, the new hymn is the most interesting relic yet discovered. Unlike the former hymn, it is written with instrumental instead of vocal note signs. Crusius and Gevaert take this to mean that the accompaniment was in unison with the voice. Without positively denying this view, Reinach relegates it to a footnote, evidently preferring his own explanation, that the instrumental (probably Dorian) notation was originally the only one, and that the later Ionic notation superseded it only in vocal scores, and *that* not universally; just as the Germans use either Gothic or Roman letters for most books, but almost always the Roman for scientific works.

The new hymn, taken with its predecessor, confirms several points not fully established before. Thus, we observe that neither hymn has any signs to denote the duration of the notes; and it now seems safe to say, at least for this period (about 100 B. C.), that such signs were probably never used when the metre was certain without them. In the Seikelos inscription they occur and are indispensable, since without them it would be impossible to distinguish the iambic character of that piece. Again, the law of correspondence, mentioned above, between melody and word-accent, though not noticed by Reinach and Weil in their article on the former hymn, as both Crusius and D. B. Monro immediately pointed out, is seen to be observed in both hymns. It is time now to give this very simple law: (1.) Unaccented syllables may have the same note as the accented syllable of the same word, but not a higher. (2.) Circumflexed syllables, when musically resolved into two shorts, always pass from a higher to a lower note. Every one sees what a flood of light such a law throws upon the true nature of the Greek and Latin word-accent as distinguished from metrical accent and from word-accent as we understand it in the modern languages of the same family. We must look to the Chinese for word-accent in the ancient sense.

We have pointed out how this law aids in restoring the text when the note of the missing syllable is preserved. It may even do so when both syllable and note are lost. If, for example, the following note is the lowest of the scale, the note of the missing syllable cannot be the same, for in that case the one remaining would not carry the note-sign. It must, therefore, be a higher note, and the syllable must be accented, if the word is dissyllabic. The restoration of fragmentary music is very much more difficult than that of a defective text, as any one may ascertain by trying the experiment on an English ballad. Hence Reinach's transcription is given with distinct reservations. Add to this that this inscription is far less legible than that of the other hymn —a fact which caused the fragments now composing the second column to be attributed to a hymn written in vocal score.

Reinach's careful analysis of the partial scales of our hymn leads to certain conclusions, the detailed proof of which our space forbids us to give. The hymn is in the Lydian trope combined with the hypo-Lydian. We find the same accuracy in notation as in the former hymn, where the same note has different signs as it stands in different scales—just as in modulating, for example, from C minor to A minor, we write G sharp for A flat. As to the mode, Reinach (who, we are pleased to find, is not a convert to Monro's heresy as to the meaning of ἁρμονία) shows that the Glyconic finale is probably in the Dorian (descending scale of A minor with flattened B), while the remaining diatonic parts are hyper-Dorian, or mixo-Lydian, which is only Dorian with "conjoint" tetrachords. There are some peculiarities of style which suggest that the composer consciously imitated archaic or Attic models. One is the absence of the *lichanos* (C natural) in the Dorian passages—a peculiarity noted in the ancient music of Olympos. Another is the small compass of the mixo-Lydian passages, the diminished fifth B–F. To this we might add, if we adopt Reinach's explanation, the use of the ancient Dorian notation. Reinach's judgment of the composer is that he had more technical skill and less inspiration than the composer of the former hymn. The music is more ambitious, and the unusual compass (a diminished twelfth, of which the extreme notes are frequent) makes it clear that it was written for skilful professional performers. This, if we might venture on a suggestion of our own, may be the reason why the score could be written in the instrumental notation which might not have been equally familiar to less skilful vocalists. And may it not be that the instrumental performers also sang to their own harping?

The discovery of this hymn has seemed to demand a new transcription of the former one. This, and a new rendering of the Seikelos inscription, besides a collation of the new hymn with the Lydian and hypo-Lydian scales, are given in the tables in addition to the new hymn itself.

ALASKA REVISITED.—III.

JULY, 1895.

THE characteristic scenery of southeastern Alaska has been described by numerous tourists in various books which have been duly reviewed in your columns. The narrow channels, like rivers, between lofty spruce-covered mountains, though picturesque and peculiar, in time pall on the attention. Except where diversified by the glaciers of the mainland, each of which has a certain individuality, the landscape finally strikes one as rather monotonous. It is difficult to exaggerate the beauty and sublimity of such a glacier-field as that of the Muir in Glacier Bay, when seen under sunny skies, and this has been repeatedly described and photographed. There are, however, several corners which in their way are equally striking, but which, being aside from the tourist route, are almost unknown. One of these is Sumdum Bay, an arm of Stephens Passage, in which a good anchorage is found. Near the mouth, on the north shore, there is a fine large glacier. The bay is long and narrow, and at its head two other glaciers discharge a multitude of small bergs directly into the water. The mountains are high and wooded, snowy above the tree-line, and offer several beautiful cascades. Two or three remarkable narrow cañons diverge from the main channel, one of which is sometimes closed by descending masses of ice, and, from the temporary imprisonment of an explorer who ventured into its recesses, is known as "Ford's Terror." The currents in these passages acquire great strength during the flow of the tides. The varied tints of blue and green shown by the moving bergs against the dark background of sombre spruce forest, relieved by the immaculate snowfields above, which the sun suffuses with delicate rose and pearly light, present a scene of almost unique beauty.

Most remarkable of all, perhaps, is the view obtained at the head of Taku Inlet. Here also are numerous fine glaciers, some of which discharge into the sea, but beyond them is a mountain ridge rising in peaks 3,000 to 6,000 feet in height—a single one to the east, then three combined more westerly, linked by a sharp and jagged crest with a crag over a thousand feet above the rest, which has no equal in Alaskan scenery. Apparently composed of some schistose rock, it rises like a great stone book, the leaves represented by the fissure lines; the edge towards the spectator is nearly vertical, the covers incline slightly towards the east—sheer precipices of smooth rock on which no snow can lie—and at a distance of fifteen miles the eastern face actually seems to overhang some five degrees. The summit is nearly flat, like the upper surface of a book upon a shelf, and the width of the mass is about one-third of its height above the ridge from which it rises. It seems stupendous and incredible. Westward, the broken crags at its base connect it with another (pyramidal) peak enamelled with the whitest snow, contrasting finely with the black prismatic mass before described.

To turn from great things to small, I cannot forbear a few words on the characteristic vegetation which may be seen by the tourist fortunate enough to stray away from salmon canneries and dirty Indian villages into the forest which surrounds them. Here, among the moss-covered trunks of enormous conifers, a whole world of beauty is secluded. Prominent among green things is the large, pale yellow spathe of the "bearfood," a symplocarpus, less odoriferous than its New England congener, with leaves usually eighteen inches high, but sometimes reaching to four feet, recalling on a larger scale the erect, oval leaves of Cos lettuce. It is the favorite salad of deer and bear, whose footprints are not uncommon in the boggy places it prefers. In its immediate vicinity the "flowering raspberry," grown as an ornamental plant in old-fashioned gardens in the East, enlivens the wet places with its large rose-red blossoms. It is mistakenly called "salmon-berry" by many of the whites, though the true salmon-berry, also found here, does not reach one-tenth the size and has an insignificant white blossom. Abundant in the feathery sphagnum are the white flowerets of the dwarf cornel, and here and there the round cowslip-like leaves of a fragrant *Monesia*, with starry, delicately sculptured, waxen-white blossoms, the most elegant of the characteristic wild-flowers of this region. A pretty corydalis, a red columbine, numerous peculiar forms of the blueberry, and two or three fragrant white and purple orchids, with the maroon-colored *Fritillaria Kamchatica*, make up the list of most conspicuous forms. The latter, called saranna by the Aleuts, has an edible root, like a rosette of grains of white popcorn, which was formerly collected by the natives for food.

Most characteristic for all this region, and the greatest obstacle to inland exploration, execrated by hunter and prospector, is the false ginseng (*Panax horridum*), or "devil's club," which has the habit of a sumac; its tall, slender stems, close set, with fine poisonous prickles, rising sometimes to a height of ten feet. The leaves of this plant are large and radiately pointed, and are held aloft like the branches of a candelabra, nearly umbellular in general form; late in the season the centre of the cluster has a pointed bunch of red berries at the tip of the stalk. Few plants are more elegantly decorative, and it is surprising that no designer has yet made use of it.

Ferns are abundant, but of few species, the common brake being the most noticeable; mosses and lichens flourish mightily in the moist air from the sea. The ground in the

forest is entirely composed of decayed vegetable matter, chiefly dead trunks of trees, and mosses. One often sinks to the middle in endeavoring to force a passage. Yet decay is slow; we counted the rings in a stump of spruce from which the bole had been hewn away for firewood, and found that it must have been a well-grown sapling when Columbus discovered America. Yet clasped in its roots was the prostrate trunk of another, equally large and almost wholly sound. Deciduous trees are strangely absent. A few alders grow along the streams, and, with some small willows, streak the mountain sides where landslide or avalanche has swept the spruce away; their vivid green contrasting sharply with the sombre conifers on either side. A wild crab-apple occurs sparingly, but of oak, chestnut, birch, and maple there is not a trace. True pines are equally invisible; the spruce, hemlock, Douglas fir, and yellow cedar, with a few larch, make up the forest. The undergrowth away from the brooks is not dense, but rather feathery and graceful, everywhere reinforced by tufted mosses and luxuriant ferns. The extraordinary manner in which fallen tree-trunks lie over and upon one another, thickly carpeted with yielding mosses, renders progress difficult, but a few yards away from the beach one may find a perfect fairyland of greenery.

In and through it all are well-marked trails of the invisible forest population. These dense woods shelter more than one variety of large game still undiscriminated by naturalists. All the islands are inhabited by a small race of the black-tailed deer (*C. columbianus*) and usually by the brown and black Alaskan bears. The mountain goat is not uncommon, but is nearly inaccessible, on the ranges of the mainland and larger islands. A special, nearly white race of the mountain sheep is peculiar to this region; and the natives insist on the presence of an antelope-like animal with large straight horns. About the glaciers is found a black bear with long white-tipped hairs like a silver fox, the sides of the muzzle tan-colored and the belly nearly white. Some specimens of this animal are so hoary as to appear of a bluish white, and it is known to the trappers as the blue or St. Elias bear. As it is evidently a distinct variety from the ordinary black bear, it has recently been named *Ursus Emmonsii*. Another singular race of the brown bear has been reported to me which has, for a bear, quite a long tail. The skin of a young cub of this kind shown me from the Cook's Inlet region has a tail about six inches long. These facts indicate that the field for the sportsman and naturalist in Alaska is by no means exhausted, and that those in search of adventure, by leaving the tourist route, will find no lack of opportunity. W. H. D.

THE INDUSTRIAL ALLIANCE OF FRANCE AND RUSSIA.

PARIS, July 31, 1895.

THE successful emission of a Chinese loan of 400,000,000 francs in the Paris market is an event which has more than a financial importance. It shows once more how intimately connected France and Russia have become, as it is quite certain that the French subscribers did not for a moment think of affording any help to China, and really looked upon the loan of 400,000,000 as a Russian loan, since the Russian Government had given its guarantee for the payment of the interest, in case the payment could not, for any unforeseen reason, be made out of the proceeds of the Chinese custom-houses. It has been calculated that within a few years France has invested in the Russian funds a sum not much below eight milliards of francs. These vast investments have considerably helped Russia; her debt has been gradually converted, she has been able to build the strategic railroads which are necessary for the mobilization of her armies, and she is now engaged in building a trans-Siberian railway, which will put the Ural region in communication with the Pacific Ocean.

Russia, though still in many respects in a sort of inorganic state, is organizing herself more and more, and is becoming a more formidable power not only in Europe, but also in Asia. Her interference arrested without any difficulty the progress of the Japanese arms on the Asiatic continent; the treaty which ended the war, and by virtue of which Japan had to evacuate the provinces and the positions she had conquered on the continent, was due to the joint action of Russia, of Germany, and of France. In reality, Russia was the leading factor in this diplomatic action. Germany, without having any direct interests involved in the Asiatic question, joined Russia in the hope of establishing more cordial relations with her and also with France. It was in her case "love's labor lost," and the Germans saw, not without some irritation, when the Baltic Canal was opened, that the French and Russian squadrons arrived together, that the civilities exchanged by them with the German squadron were of the most formal character. We can not much wonder if the new Chinese loan, which received the guarantee of Russia, was subscribed only in France; Germany would have nothing to do with it, any more than would England, who always looks upon Russia as an hereditary enemy.

Much has been said and written, on occasion of this Chinese-Russian loan, on the character of the alliance between France and Russia. Is there a real alliance? Is there a written treaty, and, if so, what are its terms and conditions? Can there be a real treaty of alliance, and has the President of the French Republic the right to sign such a treaty? The question is being discussed with some warmth, and the framers of the Constitution of 1875 have been interviewed on the subject. Article 8 of the constitutional law of July 16, 1875, on the relations of the public powers, says merely that the President "negotiates and ratifies treaties." This same article says that "treaties of peace and of commerce, those which involve the finances of the States, and those which relate to the personal status and property rights of Frenchmen living abroad, are definitive only after having been voted by the two Chambers." You will perceive that in these articles there is no question of treaties of alliance. M. Wallon, the reporter of the law of 1875, said in a recent conversation:

"The President of the Republic, with the assent of his Ministers, has the right to put his signature to a draft of a treaty. Nothing forbids it. But the truth is, that no treaty has any real value before it has been ratified by the Chambers. I will explain. The Government of the French Republic can make a moral engagement, even a written engagement, with such and such a country, in view of such and such an eventuality. These are rational measures, which may be very useful. But to realize these measures, to put, so to speak, a treaty in motion, to draw from it its practical consequences, the assent of the Chambers is not only useful, but indispensable. This results from the general character of our constitutional laws, which have for their basis the national sovereignty."

It is easy to perceive that the character of these laws, it it does not preclude the executive power from taking some of the measures which are a preparation for war, makes it rather difficult to take them. Rapidity of orders is one of the essential elements of success. There are some eventualities which would force the assent of the Chambers to the action of the executive power; there are others which might induce the Chambers not to give their immediate and unanimous assent to a treaty prepared by the Cabinet. "People," said M. Wallon, "have spoken recently of a Russo-French treaty; it has been said that France and Russia have entered into a mutual engagement to support each other in all possible contingencies. Suppose for a moment that Russia wished to drag us into a war with England. Well! that would be . . . terrible; it would be worth while to examine the question."

Undoubtedly these questions have been well examined in Russia as well as in France. One thing, however, is certain, namely, the attraction felt in Russia towards France, the attraction felt in France towards Russia. I need not recur to the great popular demonstrations which took place when Admiral Avelan and his officers visited Paris; to the great naval reviews at Toulon and Cronstadt. The sympathy felt in France for Russia took a more utilitarian form when French capital began to look to Russia for investment. Not only did France help Russia to reorganize her finances and to improve her credit, she is playing a very important part in the creation of Russian industries. This powerful collaboration is perhaps not so well known as it ought to be.

Russia possesses enormous coal fields and an abundance of mineral ores, which constitute a reserve of wealth that is only beginning to be touched. She has to create an immense network of railways, and for a long time she depended on her neighbors for the needful supply of rails and machinery. She is now preparing to become a producer of rails and machinery instead of being a mere consumer, and in this great work she has found a powerful help in French capital and French initiative. The city of Lyons is at the head of this interesting movement. Lyons is a financial centre of great importance. The Lyonnese financiers and capitalists, who are in alliance with the powerful capitalists of Geneva, are a very intelligent and laborious body of workers. They are not, like the financiers of Paris, divided between pleasure and speculation; life has a severe aspect in Lyons, and its inhabitants sacrifice little to fancy and to luxury. I do not know how it came about that the attention of Lyons was turned towards Russian industrial affairs; but at the present moment an enormous amount of its capital is looking for investment in Russian affairs—coal mines, iron mines, iron and steel manufactures. While Paris, following the lead of London, is thinking only of the Witwaters Rand and the Transvaal, Lyons seems to think only of Russia. The Society of Briansk was constituted as far back as 1873, the Society of Huta-Bankova in 1877, the Franco-Russian Works in 1880, the Society of Kama in 1883, the Metallurgical Society of the Dnieper in 1887, the Society of the Donetz in 1891. Brussels has taken an important part in this movement, together with Lyons. To give an idea of the success of some of these companies, I will only say that the shares of the Dnieper Society, which are nominally of 500 credit rubles, or about 1,250 francs, are now quoted at 6,500 francs.

Metallurgy in Russia is now passing through a period of extraordinary prosperity. Nearly all over Europe the network of railways is al-

most finished ; the great railway companies of France, having now steel rails, give very few orders to the immense establishments which were created in view of railroad extension. In Russia, on the other hand, many large cities are still awaiting railroads ; in Siberia the Government is only beginning the long line to the Pacific. Russia has to make bridges over her immense rivers, to improve her ports, to open her vast coal-fields. Many years will be necessary for this great work. The economical consequences of the development of the wealth of Russia will be of immense importance, not only to Europe, but also to America. Hitherto, Russian corn has found its way only with much difficulty to the Black Sea ; hereafter it will have easier access to it, and will be better able to compete with its rivals.

If we look to a very distant future, as we now see the centre of industrial activity in its relation to coal and iron slowly transferring itself from the centre of Europe to the vast empire of Russia, our children will probably see it transferred to Siberia and to China. The time will come when the immense Asiatic continent will be covered with railways. The Chinese are admirable workmen; they can live on very small wages; they will some day, after having taken lessons from our engineers, make their own rails, their own cars, their own locomotives. There is something very suggestive in the diplomatic efforts made by Russia to secure the friendship and alliance of China. The Russian assimilates himself better than any other race with the Chinaman; and in the obscurities of the future we can discern immense changes in the Chinese Empire, achieved by the progressive interference not of Russian arms, perhaps, but of Russian industry and civilization.

At no time have the political and the economical interests of nations been more closely intermixed; revolutions which in old times could have been accomplished only by force, will in future times be accomplished more and more by peaceful means. The world, in a sense, is becoming more contracted, and the interests of nations lie nearer together than in the past. Europe is perforce obliged to watch and to help along the economical development of countries which, not many years ago, were known only to travellers and geographers.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish directly 'Gustave Flaubert, as seen in his Works and Correspondence,' by John Charles Tarver; 'The Story of the Earth,' by H. G. Seeley; 'The Red-Badge Courage,' a Tale of the Civil War, by Stephen Crane; and the 'Watter's Mou',' by Bram Stoker.

'Reconstruction during the Civil War in America,' by Eben Greenough Scott, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Spenser Society has completed its set of Drayton by publishing an "Introduction." Mr. Oliver Elton, to whom, on the retirement of Mr. Bullen, the preparation of this preliminary essay was intrusted, has done his work well, and, if he has not solved all the literary and biographical problems involved, has at least furnished a solid basis for future investigation. The volume contains a good portrait of Drayton.

Dr. Karl Bülbring has recently edited De foe's unpublished tract on 'Royal Education' (London: Nutt). The manuscript long escaped attention by the accident of being embodied in that of 'The Complete English Gentleman.' The tract has slight literary importance, but is not without a certain interest. All possessors of Dr. Bülbring's edition of 'The Complete English Gentleman' will wish to secure it.

'Twenty-five Letters on English Authors,' by Mary Fisher (Chicago: Griggs), is a rambling book which the "young people" for whom it is principally intended would do well to avoid.

'Maureen's Fairing, and Other Stories,' which have been daintily brought out in the "Iris Series" (Macmillan), are not up to Miss Barlow's earlier and entirely spontaneous work. Such of them, however, as are Irish are still far beyond the average treatment of Irish subjects. Four of the eight tales have already appeared in current periodicals. Miss Barlow excels rather in conversation than in plot. Bertha Newcombe's illustrations are charming. Why "A Formidable Rival" should be placed before "Mac's Luncheon," which naturally precedes it, we fail to understand. "Stopped by Signal" and "The Murphys' Supper" are most instinct with the author's genius. The volume will well repay purchase and perusal.

Mr. Sylvester Baxter, Secretary of the preliminary Metropolitan Park Commission of Massachusetts, has just issued a 'Boston Park Guide,' which includes the municipal and metropolitan systems of Greater Boston, with maps and views. This guide deserves a very wide circulation in every municipality, for there is none to which the most notable American example of foresight, public spirit, and expert landscape gardening will not come as a revelation and a stimulus. Mr. Baxter is his own publisher, at No. 255 Washington Street, Boston.

A fresh volume from Brunetière's pen, 'Nouveaux Essais sur la littérature contemporaine' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), is full of matter for thought, full of instruction and suggestion. The great critic has his theories and his special antipathies and prejudices, but he has a large and effective way of dealing with the subjects he takes up, and a luminous fashion of treating them. The reader who has studied a writer carefully is amazed to find how much that is new Brunetière can still point out to him, and what novel suggestions of connection, influence, or effect a sentence of his will reveal. In the present collection there is an admirable essay on Leconte de Lisle, another on Baudelaire, and a third on Bourget which should be read in connection with that on Octave Feuillet and with M. Larroumet's essay on Bourget. Appended to the volume is M. Brunetière's *discours de réception*.

Teodor de Wyzewa's "Nos Maîtres" (Paris: Perrin & Cie.) is an interesting and useful volume, in which several important literary and æsthetic questions are discussed. Mallarmé is treated of rather fully, but it is the general questions which are most attractive—"Of Criticism," "Of Science," "Of the Religion of Love and Beauty." These should not be missed, particularly the last.

The life and work of Victor Duruy are succinctly described by M. E. Lavisse in "Un Ministre: Victor Duruy" (Paris: Colin & Cie.), the greatest stress being naturally laid on Duruy's work as Minister. It is a timely testimony to the educational labors which did much for France.

'Un Diplomate à Londres: Lettres et Notes, 1871-77,' by Charles Gavard (Paris: Plon) is a gossipy little book, very entertaining reading, and in many respects a valuable contribution to contemporary history. It consists chiefly of letters written home, the first of which, dated February 24, 1871, announces the author's arrival in England, and begins with giving vent to his patriotic feelings by the exclamation: "At last in a land where there is no Prussian!" About a month later Napoleon was released from captivity and took up his abode at Chiselhurst, and M. Gavard describes with evident disgust how the ex-Emperor was run after and cheered by the English on every occasion, and remarks, in general, their habit of lionizing any noted or notorious person who may have made himself conspicuous either in a creditable or a discreditable manner. The English attribute this tendency to sympathy with the unfortunate; our author ascribes it to vulgar curiosity. He also gives an account of the visit of the German Empress Augusta to Queen Victoria in May, 1872, and comments upon Augusta's extreme volubility—a characteristic which is known to have been a source of frequent inconvenience to Bismarck. M. Gavard gives lively descriptions of social life in England, especially at the country seats of Earl Granville, Lord Salisbury, the Duke of Bedford, the Rothschilds, and other men of eminence in political aad financial affairs. He is somewhat of a sentimentalist, with a nice appreciation of "das Ewig-Weibliche," and a fine eye for peculiarities of feminine toilet.

The name of Quatrefages is associated with that view of Japanese ethnology which makes a "white" Allophyllian race, coming from the Malay region in the south, a predominant element in the race-stock (see the *American Law Review* for November-December, 1894), and new interest is given to this view by the preliminary summary, just published in the *Japan Mail*, of the researches of that indefatigable worker, Prof. Basil Chamberlain, whose grammar of the Loo Choo Islanders' language is announced for early publication in the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan. The affinities of this language, hitherto practically unexamined, are very close, it is announced, to Japanese, its relation being in effect that of a collateral but less advanced development of an originally identical stock. This suggests to Prof. Chamberlain that the Loo Choo people represent a southern offshoot of an immigration to Japan through Korea. But it seems not to have occurred to him that the stronger indication is just the opposite, viz., that the general stock came up from the south gradually, the present Japanese vernacular representing those who pushed on north and formed the dominant element in Japan. Whatever the ultimate decision, there can be no doubt that the kinship which Prof. Chamberlain will demonstrate adds abundant material for the reconsideration of the whole subject.

A new and interesting chapter in the history of Old Testament criticism seems likely to have been opened by Dr. Henry Hayman, the well-known classical scholar and former head-master of Rugby. In a communication to the *Guardian* he suggests that the original documents of the Pentateuch were not manuscripts, but clay tablets similar to those found at Tel el-Amarna a few years ago. He bases his theory on the fact that this was a common method of writing at the time of Moses, and goes on to show, by a detailed examination of the "Song of Moses" in Deuteronomy, how many of the insoluble difficulties in the text and its interpretation may have arisen from the faulty incorporation of the tablets into the roll. The proper sequence may not have been followed, or the wrong face of the tablet,

which was written on both sides, may have been taken first. "Sometimes a *lacuna*, brief but significant, points to an edge-line or corner phrase having been slurred or chipped." Or, to put his theory in his own homely form, he "believes that we have here a pack of cards which have been shuffled and some of them 'faced,'" that is, damaged by use.

Part vi. of *Bibliographica* (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners) is not as readable as some of its predecessors. George Somes Layard's "Robinson Crusoe and its Illustrators" whets the appetite with its title, but is far too sparsely illustrated, giving but two reproductions, and these from the first edition. In this paper the elegant typography of *Bibliographica* is marred by a division (Stot-hard) of which a foreigner might pardonably have been guilty. There is no lack of cuts in part ii. of Paul Kristeller's "Florentine Book Illustrations," yet the discussion needed many more to avoid being dry and confusing. Valuable for record and reference are W. H. Allnutt's "English Provincial Presses," part ii., and Henry R. Plomer's "Notice of Printers and Printing in the State Papers." Cyril Davenport's article on "Little Gidding Bindings" is accompanied by several charming examples in color.

The second volume of the Aubrey-Beardsleyish *Moods*, "A Journal Intime" (Philadelphia: The Jenson Press), contains very little of letterpress or illustration to justify the costly manufacture. There is more substance in the moral of Owen Wister's little fable of "The Ape and the Thinker" than in all the rest. The Jenson typographic font revived in this publication will never supersede or compete with the fonts of to-day.

The "Winter number" of *Modern Art* (Boston: L. Prang & Co.) has at least one contributor in common with *Moods*, and some affinity for Beardsley, but its illustrations are on a higher level, consisting of a drawing by Mary Cassatt and a passable copy of Albrecht Dürer's "The Knight, Death and the Devil." The feature of real interest is the series of initials and title-pages elicited by a prize competition for *Modern Art*. The editor, Mr. Bowles, remarks of the former that some "were evidently thought of as parts of a printed page, and not as separate pictures, which is a rare [and inferentially a praiseworthy] thing." Judging by this correct standard, we should prefer the second prize to the first, and even the unpremiated "Hazel Nut" set—the work of women in both cases. All the best designs, by the way, come from England.

In the *Green Bag* for August, Mr. Edward S. Taney has a sketch of Chief-Justice Taney, exhibiting his amiable personal traits, his aversion to slavery, manumission of inherited slaves, personal attachment for individual negroes his pensioners, and his high tone as a public official, whose rule it was to accept no present, however trifling.

Two sterling papers adorn the current Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. One, an antiquarian investigation on "Early Shipping on Lake Superior," is by Prof. James Davie Butler; the other, by Theodore Clarke Smith, is a remarkably fair-minded and valuable historical sketch of the Free-Soil party in Wisconsin and its predecessor (and to some extent *alter ego*), the Liberty party. This paper is worthy of a reprint, and stamps the writer as one who has a clear call to be an historian.

A noteworthy contribution to the history of the sciences as a branch of instruction in secondary and higher schools is to be found in Dr. Emil Schmidt's articles on "Die Entwickelung unseres höheren Schulwesens hinsichtlich des naturwissenschaftlichen Unterrichts," in the current volume (January, February) of the *Paedagogium* (Leipzig: J. Klinkhardt).

The whole number of medical students in the universities of Germany during the summer semester of 1895 was 8,030, of whom 1,209 were at Munich, 1,080 at Berlin, 707 at Würzburg, 617 at Leipzig, 443 at Freiburg, 406 at Greifswald, 399 at Kiel, 338 at Breslau, 300 at Strassburg, 275 at Heidelberg, 246 at Königsberg, 245 at Marburg, 241 at Halle, 220 at Göttingen, 215 at Tübingen, 195 at Jena, 137 at Giessen, and 101 at Rostock. Thus Munich stands first numerically, and this superiority is due to its greater attractiveness for non-Bavarians, of whom there were 792, whereas at Berlin there were only 298 non-Prussians. During the winter semester of 1893–4 in German universities, 1,406 students received, on examination, the degree of M. D., of whom 100 were pronounced "sehr gut" (very good), 928 "gut" (good), and 378 "genügend" (sufficing). Of the first class there were at Leipzig 14, and of the second class 146, out of 201; at Munich, 12 and 111 out of 166; at Würzburg, 11 and 96 out of 135; while at Berlin there were none of the first class, and 111 of the second, out of the entire number, 169. These statistics would imply that the examination for a medical degree is more rigorous at Berlin than at the other German universities—assuming, of course, equal competence and diligence on the part of the students.

A very important moor find has recently been made on the island of Fünen in Denmark, whence so many remains of the Scandinavian iron age have come. These latest objects consist of seven swords, most of them bent together after the usual fashion, and a number of spears, both iron and bone. Unlike earlier specimens, these spears, especially the bone ones, are in an almost perfect state of preservation. Many of them still contain shafts so constructed as to prove that they must have been used for throwing. Of this fact no trace had before been found. Another novel feature lies in the receptacle itself, which is the site of a road dating from the iron age, and still in a good state of preservation. Its construction is very much like that of the best modern Danish stone roads, care having been taken to prevent spreading by the use of large stones along the sides.

—An officer in the Union army, who has lived for more than five years in Yokohama, makes the following curious observation in a recent letter to an American correspondent, apropos of the recent hostilities with China:

"The war has done one good thing. Several years ago the Buddhists had persuaded the authorities that Christianity made people disloyal to their ruler, the Mikado. During the war there were many Christians among the soldiers, and their officers watched them. The result was, that the watchers wrote home to their friends and their papers that the bravest and most loyal soldiers of the army were the Christians. They were to be depended on in camp and in field, they were not afraid to die, and never shrank from any duty to which they were called. Of course this changed public opinion in regard to them and disproved the statements of the [Buddhist] priests. Previously the Government was not pleased that the people should have the Scriptures; now the way is open and they want to make them all Christians. Anything that makes good soldiers is agreeable to the powers that be."

—In a paper recently read before the Boston Scientific Society Mr. Rotch of the Blue Hill Observatory makes interesting statements about high-altitude stations for meteorological observation. The first summit station in the world was that established in 1870 upon Mount Washington, at an elevation of 6,280 feet. Some remarkable observations have been made there, such, for instance, as a temperature of 50° below zero, during the progress of a gale blowing at 184 miles an hour. The station on Pike's Peak, 14,134 feet high, has been closed, and there are now but two summit stations in the United States where observations are made regularly, viz., at the Lick Observatory and at Blue Hill, near Boston. The highest meteorological station in the world is that maintained by Harvard College Observatory in Peru, at the summit of El Misti, 19,300 feet. It is visited several times a month by one of the staff of the Harvard Observatory below, at Arequipa, who attends to its self-registering instruments, checks the readings, and so forth. A splendid chain of high-altitude stations exists in France, including those on Mount Ventoux, 6,250 feet, and the Pic du Midi, 9,440 feet. The highest of the stations established by M. Vallot on or near Mount Blanc is at the Rochers des Bosses, 14,320 feet, which is provided with self-recording instruments capable of running two weeks without attention, and is in use during the summer. The Mount Blanc observatory of M. Janssen is not yet in operation; it has an altitude of 15,780 feet. The highest permanent observatory now in use in Europe is the Sonnblick station, 10,170 feet, in the Austrian Alps, which has given valuable results. Switzerland and Italy have well-located and equipped mountain stations; and the one on Ben Nevis, in England, though not so high, has given a ten years' unbroken series of hourly observations. Of course it is possible to send self-recording instruments up in balloons to a much greater height than a person could reach and be able to breathe. An altitude of ten miles and over has been reached by this means in France, and last July in Germany with very valuable results. Kites also have carried anemometers to considerable heights with good results. Dr. Berson last year reached an altitude of 30,000 feet, or nearly six miles, making from his balloon some very significant observations upon temperature and humidity, winds and clouds, in a seldom visited region. He is said to have suffered little from the diminished pressure of the atmosphere at this great height, probably because of his inhalation of oxygen from time to time.

—A British trade report on the employment of women, recently issued as a Parliamentary paper, reveals some unexpected facts in regard to the current condition of wage-earning women. Miss Collet, a member of the Labor Commission, who makes the report, states that in England out of 277 occupations, or trades, women are found in only 18, that there is a decrease in the number of married women working away from home, and that the main increase of women in occupations in England, of late years, has been in middle-class homes. It has been rashly assumed that the recent rapid increase in the number of women employed in special lines indicates commensurate general changes in the British field of employment for women. This is not exactly true. Miss Collet finds "that the industrial position of women varies with the degree of material prosperity of the men in the class to which they belong." As a matter of fact, the women in the families of men of small producing or earning power have always had to earn a portion of the fami-

ly bread. But as the earning power of the men in certain classes increases, the family can be supported by the male earnings, and the greater comfort available in the home creates a class sentiment opposed to the wife at least being called on to earn a part of the fund she dispenses—with thrift or waste, as the case may be. With a still higher standard of comfort and growing prosperity, the tendency is to retain the services of the daughters in the home. Mechanical invention and scientific appliances have multiplied the number of men in England who can afford to support their daughters, at the same time that any *need* for the services of the latter has decreased; consequently, girls of the middle classes have entered the labor market in untold numbers, urged thereto by a higher standard of comfort (which has increased their wants), by a smaller field for domestic usefulness, and by diminished chances for marriage.

—In comparison (and to some extent in contrast) with this British report, special interest attaches to an extra Census Bulletin (No. 99), "Statistics of Occupation," which gives the number of males and females in the United States of ten years of age and over employed in gainful occupations. Compared with similar statistics for 1880, these figures indicate a wider development of employment among American than among English women. In 1880 the percentage of "gainful" males over ten to the whole number of that age was 78.70, and of females only 14.69. In 1890 the difference in round numbers, and in proportional increase, between males and females justifies what has been claimed for the greater productive and earning power of the new American woman. The respective figures are, for males, 77.28 (a slight loss of 1.42 per cent.), and for females, 16.98, a gain of 2.29 per cent. for the working woman. The growing industrial power of women is still more emphasized by stating the figures differently: thus, the numerical increase in wage-earners between 1880 and 1890 was over 5,300,000, and the percentage of increase 30.72; but the increase in the number of males was 4,076,000, or only 27.62 per cent., and of females 1,267,550, or 47.88 per cent. Elaborate tables show that the ratio of increase in professional occupations and in domestic and personal service is largely on the side of women, and while the extraordinary development of trade and transportation is evidenced in all the returns (the number of employees increased 78 per cent.), the percentage of increase for females under these two heads is especially large (263.25 per cent.), due mainly to the number of young women employed as bookkeepers, clerks, stenographers, typewriters, and saleswomen. It is worth notice that there has been a wholesome increase in the proportion of women engaged in a variety of occupations in which the personal equation especially counts. Thus, of the 219 specified occupations, women have entered into 217, the exceptions being "officers of the United States Army and Navy," "United States soldiers, sailors, and marines," although there are twenty-two occupations which claimed in 1890 only from one to ten women members. It appears, therefore, that, unlike her British sister, the American woman has found her way into almost every department of honest labor where special capacity or economic advantage has discovered an opening for her as a class, or her sex does not disqualify her as an individual worker.

—The latest number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* contains an article of fifty-four pages by the late Prof. Heinrich von Sybel, entitled "Neue Mittheilungen und Erklärungen zu Band 6 u. 7 der 'Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I.,'" in which he defends his account of the origin of the war of 1870 and replies to some of the strictures of his critics. The article, already issued by the Munich publisher in pamphlet form, is divided into six sections, of which the last two, treating of "Napoleon und Eugenie" and "Bismarcks Politik," are the longest and most important. It is a noteworthy and significant fact that in the seventh volume of Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire,' in which the causes of the Franco-German war are fully discussed, scarcely any reference is made to the Empress Eugénie, and in the elaborate table of contents to the same volume (the work has unfortunately no index) there is not the slightest mention of her name. It is evident, therefore, that the historian does not think that she exerted any appreciable influence upon the course of events. The prominent political rôle assigned to her in Pierre de Lano's 'Après l'Empire,' as, for example, where it is said that, at her urgent request, Grammont kept from the Emperor all knowledge of Benedetti's despatch, Sybel regards as purely mythical; he also finds no satisfactory proof that she ever uttered the frivolous words so often attributed to her: "C'est ma guerre, ma petite guerre, la guerre à moi!" The two persons, in his opinion, chiefly responsible for the war were Gramont and Ollivier, who, after the appeal to arms had resulted in disaster, endeavored to throw this responsibility upon the "party of the Empress." Had France been victorious, these men would certainly have claimed all the honor for themselves. Napoleon, severely suffering from gout, stone, and a complication of kindred disorders, felt an earnest desire to preserve peace, and realized the force of Princess Mathilde's exclamation: "My God! are you going to walk into a war on such legs as those?" Eugénie, as Sybel states, was deeply embittered by her husband's infidelity, but he does not believe that her resentment converted her into a "passionate and heartless intrigante." At least he fails to discover any evidence of the truth of this accusation. In the section on "Bismarck's Politics" an interesting incident of the war of 1866 is narrated on the authority of the Crown Prince Friedrich. On July 24, just after the armistice had been concluded, and while the provisional peace of Nikolsburg was being negotiated, King William urged that Austria should be required to make a cession of territory even at the risk of a resumption of hostilities. Bismarck opposed this proposition, and in the course of the discussion remarked: "Every monarch should adopt the general principle and adhere to it, so far as possible, not to appoint as minister of foreign affairs any man who has not been on a battlefield and seen with his own eyes all the horrors involved in the word War."

—Father Lépicier's 'Indulgences: Their Origin, Nature, and Development' (London: Kegan Paul & Co.) is a disappointment. A good critical history of the subject from a believer's point of view would be welcome, but the present volume is an uncritical medley of doctrine, history, and pious reflection, unnecessary to stimulate the faith of the faithful, and calculated only to excite the derision of the unbeliever. A writer who takes most of his history from Fleury; who quotes (p. 200) a twelfth-century inscription as evidence of the practices of the sixth; who speaks of Islam as an infamous and superstitious worship paid to the devil (p. 207); who quotes St. Bernard (p. 217) in favor of technical indulgences when that doctor is using the word *indulgentia* in its ordinary sense of pardon; who accepts as genuine the forged letter of St. Ludger in 803 (p. 228), the fraudulent character of which was demonstrated two centuries ago by Fathers Morin and Papenbroek; who deliberately or ignorantly falsifies a passage from the canons of the Council of Vienne (p. 293), and who, when he cannot otherwise justify the changes in the theory and practice of the Church, assumes that in all cases it must be right because otherwise God would have allowed the Church to fall into error, which is impossible—such a writer is impervious to argument and unworthy of refutation. This is to be regretted, for indulgences have played so large a part in European history that a conscientious Catholic who would candidly resume and bring up to the existing state of critical research the work performed in the seventeenth century by Father Morin, would render a service to all parties.

RHODES'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850. By James Ford Rhodes. Vol. III., 1860-1862. Harper & Brothers. 8vo, pp. 659.

Mr. Rhodes's third volume fully sustains the impression made by the best part of the first two. There is the same abundant and almost exhaustive collation of material, the same simplicity and directness of method, the same good judgment in the selection of topics for full treatment or for sketchy notice, the same calmness of temper and absence of passionate partisanship. He may fairly be said to be a pupil of the Gardiner school, and to have made the great English historian a model in subordinating the literary element to the judicial, and in compelling his readers to accept his guidance as that of a trustworthy pilot through the mazes of conflicting evidence and the struggles of opposing principles. The hot partisan will often protest at first at the charitable judgment of the motives or the recognition of the sincerity of those whom he has hated as enemies; but as the analysis of the evidence goes on, he finds himself yielding to the strong summing up; and even if he be not wholly convinced, he is filled with a solid respect for the judgment and temper with which the multitudinous facts are weighed.

The volume deals with the critical period from the election of Lincoln to the battle of Shiloh and the opening of McClellan's campaign on the Virginia peninsula. It therefore includes the actual secession of the Southern States, beginning with South Carolina, the conduct of Buchanan in relation to it while Cobb and Thompson and Floyd were members of his cabinet, and after these were replaced by the patriotic influence of Black and Stanton, of Dix and Holt. It covers the inauguration of Lincoln and the tentative measures of his opening administration, the perplexing debate as to the reinforcement of Fort Sumter, and the efforts to gain time by indirect diplomacy with Southern leaders. It gives us the dramatic opening of the war by the cannonade of the fort, and the outburst of fiery enthusiasm on both sides when once the die was cast. From this we pass to defeat at Bull Run, the pulling of ourselves together for the tremendous struggle whose proportions we now began

to realize, the organization of the great armies which were to fight it out, the growing impatience at the delays of that first autumn of the war, the beginning of real work under the direct order of Lincoln and its first fruits in the glorious successes of Grant and Foote at Forts Henry and Donelson, and the beginning also of that tide of Western triumphs which, with occasional reflux, was still to sweep across the Gulf States and into the heart of North Carolina.

The period was that which fixed the policy of both sides and of all parties. It mustered the armies and showed what men could lead them. It settled the principles which were to guide our foreign policy and to direct our home Government. It laid the foundation of the financial measures which were to provide for an enormous and unprecedented expenditure. It disclosed the perils which accompany administration in such a time, and the necessity for sharp remedies against extravagance and peculation, however powerful in civil life or in military command might be the offenders.

As to all these matters the historian must have a well-defined point of view. As the reader follows the author in his candid elaboration of the views of conflicting parties and statesmen, he will be tempted to fear that the story may turn out to be only the annals of complicated events, only the reporter's faithful account of the acts and the arguments in the great debate. Mr. Rhodes has not thus abdicated his historical office, and it is a great merit in his book that he has distinctly recognized his duty to declare his principles of judgment and to apply them firmly. His full array of evidence and argument attests his judicial character and his tolerance towards men and their motives; but when the summing up is completed, he pronounces his judgment distinctly, and, in the good old language of the law, without fear, favor, or affection.

On the great issue of the rebellion he is a nationalist who holds that secession was revolution, in which the first assembling of armed men was an overt act of war. On the issues of national politics he holds to Mr. Lincoln's conservative Republicanism, which declared the quarrel to be over the single question whether slavery should be extended. Clinging firmly to the belief that the war was certain to end in emancipation, he still justifies the President in "going slow," and in trying to hold back the border States from secession, first, by refusing to precipitate the progress even of freedom, and later by leading the North to justify itself in the eyes of the world by offering compensated emancipation.

In dealing with men he does not shirk the duty of plain condemnation after the case is fully examined. Thus, Frémont in Missouri is found to be incompetent as a general, and a weak tool of peculators in his administration. Mr. Rhodes justifies the President's removal of him on these grounds, notwithstanding the popularity of his emancipation orders and the attachment to his person which ardent Republicans felt toward their former Presidential candidate. Cameron is adjudged to have been careless of economy in the War Department, and to have been blind to the advantages taken of the Government by fraudulent contractors. His removal from the Cabinet was a public necessity, and a proof of Lincoln's ability to act vigorously even when his personal feelings suffered severely under the test. McClellan is found to lack the aggressive qualities without which no one can be a real general, and to be condemned as incompetent by his absurd exaggerations of the opposing army, which, out of his 'Own Story,' are shown to have been the key to his dilatory conduct after September, 1861. Grant is recognized as manifesting from the first the qualities of a born soldier, and Lincoln is justified in retaining him in command notwithstanding many strong criticisms after the battle of Shiloh. In the situation of our armies and in the relations of the country to the civilized world, the historian rightly concludes that no other military man then showed the powerfully aggressive character which was demanded. It was absolutely necessary, after so long an inaction, that the national army should be led by one who would fight, and Lincoln is justified in his famous saying to objectors, "I can't spare this man; he fights." The alertness of a Napoleon, the strategic intellect of Cæsar, were greatly to be desired; but if all great qualities could not be combined, energetic action and indomitable fighting were all the more indispensable.

The author's plan does not include a detailed description of military events, but aims at such a general sketch of campaigns as shall make the ordinary reader follow clearly the larger outline and understand the loss or gain for either side in the progress of the war. He has, however, felt the necessity of attempting a fuller picture of the battles which were followed by important results, and has studied with striking success to group the incidents which are most telling in each engagement. In this way he has made very vivid and perfectly intelligible presentations of such engagements as that of the *Monitor* with the *Merrimac*, the battles of Bull Run, Fort Donelson, and Shiloh. They are not overloaded with tactical details, while they are true to the real military significance and proportion of parts; and the military man will approve the justness of the picture which the popular reader will find easy to comprehend and of thrilling interest.

In finance, Mr. Rhodes's standpoint is that of the advocates of a tariff for revenue as contrasted with theoretic protectionism, and of those who disbelieve the necessity of making paper a legal tender even in time of war. But while avowing this creed, he sees so plainly the embarrassments of the Congress of 1862, and states so fairly the arguments which overcame Mr. Chase's reluctance and brought him to the support of the legal-tender bill, that its warmest friends must admit that the means of forming a judgment of his own are offered to every reader.

The author's reference to his authorities is most conscientious, scrupulously giving credit for even the slightest assistance, so that the student is challenged to verify the evidence and to judge for himself whether the conclusions are sound. Yet direct quotation is only sparingly used, and the narrative is Mr. Rhodes's own, after maturely digesting the mass of facts which are to make its body or give it color. This method, showing strongly the influence of the modern ideas of scientific research, must be admitted to be in the spirit of our age, which is not content with authority, and demands that all important conclusions shall be shown in direct connection with the evidence on which they are based. In this case, the result is a work which will be most authoritative with those who are most familiar with the original material for the history of the civil war.

The character and personality of Mr. Lincoln develop in his acts, illumined as they are by the complete knowledge of the man which we now possess. His awkward and homely exterior, his broad humor and plain speech, made a veil behind which he was completely hidden from those who met him casually. It is one of the most curious facts in personal biography that nearly the whole body of men who thought themselves near enough to him to judge him accurately, formed a contemptuous opinion which now overwhelmingly attests their own lack of true acumen and insight. It seemed that only those knew him who were far enough away to see his general conduct and policy apart from his personal peculiarities, or those who were so near that by intimate contact they experienced the power of his will over theirs and the domination of his lucid and sagacious intellect.

Mr. Seward's relations to his chief are only a striking proof of our assertion. In March, 1861, considering the estimate of Lincoln by the half-acquainted, and the relations of the Secretary of State to parties and to affairs, it is in no degree strange that Mr. Seward should have assumed the rôle of an authoritative mentor. The "Thoughts for the President's consideration" which Nicolay and Hay have made so notorious, would not have appeared an absurd assumption of leadership to Senator Sumner or Senator Wade, however they might differ from his views. The relation was more like that between Daniel Webster and Zachary Taylor, and struck nobody at the time as unnatural. It is only from our present measure of the men, especially of Lincoln, that the incident gets its amusing character. If Zachary Taylor had been President four years instead of four months, it is possible that the relations of Webster to him would have changed as much. Who knows?

In this matter, as in the half-negotiations with the Southern commissioners concerning the evacuation of Sumter, Mr. Rhodes seems too severe on Secretary Seward. In the latter case the facts were that Anderson had reported that an army of 20,000 disciplined men would be required to relieve the fort and to hold it (p. 325). Gen. Scott reported that evacuation was almost inevitable (p. 326), and later gave the formal opinion that Anderson should be withdrawn (p. 327). All of the Cabinet but Blair concurred in the opinion (*ibid.*). Lincoln did not decide, but, while holding the matter in abeyance, gave his friends to understand that he acquiesced in the opinion of his Cabinet. In the light of these facts, when the Southern Commissioners were trying to "play with Seward" for delay, and Mr. Lincoln was cognizant of the correspondence through Judge Campbell, the Secretary's conduct in gaining delay for his side also by indicating the actual belief of the whole Administration that the fort would be evacuated, does not seem the "rash assumption" that Mr. Rhodes regards it. He truthfully indicated the actual expectation of all, but made no explicit promises; and it would be pushing the rule of candor too far to assert that these quasi-belligerents who were playing their own astute game, had any grounds for complaint of Seward's diplomacy. When the President, contrary to his own as well as the general expectation, determined to try to provision the fort, his Secretary stood loyally by him. It was a right thing for Mr. Lincoln, in view of a ripening public sentiment, to make the effort in spite of Scott's and Anderson's adverse opinion. The motive was a reason of state, not of military affairs, and he was in his own province. The cordial acquiescence of his Secretary marked the recognition of his true

leadership. The whole affair was honorable to both.

This is almost the sole instance in which the conclusions of our historian seem open to question. In general, we find his reasoning (as we said in the beginning) compelling our assent, and the exception may be taken as proof of the rule. We shall look with earnest interest for the succeeding volumes, sure of a strong grasp of the whole subject, and confident that, within the compass he has prescribed for himself, it is not probable that we shall see a more complete or better balanced history of our great civil war than that which Mr. Rhodes is giving us. We hope that he will come back from his European tour recuperated, in full strength for the fulfilment of his important labor.

MARSHAL NEY AND HIS DOUBLE.

Historic Doubts as to the Execution of Marshal Ney. With numerous illustrations. By James A. Weston, Rector of the Church of the Ascension, Hickory, N. C.; Major Thirty-third N. C. Regiment, Confederate States Army; Chaplain Catawba County (N. C.) Veterans' Association; Honorary Member of the North Carolina Historical Society, etc. New York: Thomas Whittaker. 1895.

AFTER a peculiarly picturesque or conspicuous person dies, either in the due course of nature or by violence, it often happens that years afterwards a vague, unfounded rumor gets abroad that he is still alive. The regicide, John Bradshaw, for instance, it was said, lived in the island of Jamaica long after the Restoration, and in Hollis's memoirs is given the fictitious epitaph which was engraved, according to the story, upon a cannon near Martha Bay. Yet there is record of his burial in Westminster Abbey, when the Commonwealth still endured, and of the disinterment and hanging of his corpse when the Stuarts returned to power. In more recent times we have heard that Louis XVI.'s son lived among the French Canadians near Plattsburg long after his supposed death; that Webster, who murdered Parkman, was not hung, and that Wilkes Booth was not shot. And now comes another story of the same character as the others, to the effect that Marshal Ney was not shot, that he had a mock execution, and that he escaped to America and died in his bed in North Carolina in 1846. Thus far a stray magazine article and a number of newspaper articles have been the only things printed on the subject, but Mr. James A. Weston, a North Carolina clergyman and Confederate major, now publishes a book of 300 pages to prove that an old soldier who went by the name of Peter Stuart Ney, and taught school in the country districts of Missouri and the Carolinas, was none other than Napoleon's great marshal. He looked like Marshal Ney, he said he was Marshal Ney (often when he was drunk and occasionally when he was sober), and some people thought he was Marshal Ney. The case is interesting, even extraordinary, and it is but just to say that it is better constructed than the case of the Tichborne claimant himself. We will give specimens of the best evidence produced by Mr. Weston as briefly as possible.

Chapman Levy, a South Carolina lawyer, said he was told by some French refugees that they recognized in P. S. Ney, at Georgetown, S. C., the original Marshal Ney. Mrs. Mary C. Dalton, who was P. S. Ney's pupil when she was a little girl, says he told her twice, "when perfectly sober," that he was Marshal Ney, and he described to her his escape and flight to Charleston. The editor of the Danville, Va., *Times* reports his sister as saying that P. S. Ney on Saturdays, when he was drunk, used to say he was Marshal Ney. J. W. Sanders of Iredell County, N. C., reports two Germans, named respectively Snyder and Barr, who had seen Marshal Ney, as declaring, when they saw P. S. Ney, that he was the Marshal. Several persons testify that these Germans were men of good character. Col. John A. Rogers of Florence, N. C., describes P. S. Ney as fainting when he read in a newspaper in 1821 that Napoleon was dead. That night he burned a quantity of his papers, and the next morning was found with his throat cut. "The blade of the knife that did the work was broken in the wound. This probably saved his life." Mrs. G. N. Beale of Washington, D. C., says she saw Marshal Ney's picture thrown upon a screen at a Stoddard lecture, and exclaimed at once that it was Peter Ney, whom she knew in her youth at Beattie's Ford, N. C. Thomas D. Graham, Davidson College, N. C., nursed P. S. Ney in his last illness, and heard him say four or five times that he was Marshal Ney. He concludes his testimony thus:

"About three o'clock in the afternoon Dr. Locke [P. S. Ney's doctor] returned. He was much affected. 'Mr. Ney,' said he, 'you have but a short time to live, and we would like to know from your own lips who you are before you die.' Mr. Ney, perfectly calm and rational, raised himself up on his elbow, and looking Dr. Locke full in the face, said, 'I am Marshal Ney of France.' Two or three hours later he died."

Now all this is strange enough, but it has failed to identify P. S. Ney with Marshal Ney. If he had been the real Marshal, seeking to conceal his identity, why did he take the name of Ney? Why did he say he was Marshal Ney if he wished to pass as another man? Because a number of people believed him is no reason for our believing him. He played his part to the very end, but it is quite possible for a man to continue a deception even with death staring him in the face, and we have many instances of it in the case of murderers, palpably guilty, who declare themselves innocent just before they are hung. As for the saying *In vino veritas*, which Mr. Weston lays much stress upon, a moderate experience will convince any one that a man in his cups is often fully master of his tongue. Indeed, some men lie most when they are drunk. It is inconceivable that so extraordinary a man as Marshal Ney should have lived in this country and disclosed his identity without soon becoming known positively and proclaimed to all the world. And if Peter S. Ney was Marshal Ney, why did he stay here? When Louis Philippe was made king, a wave of Bonapartism swept over France. Soult, Napoleon's Marshal and Ney's friend, was Minister of War. Napoleon's body was carried to Paris from St. Helena. And all this time Marshal Ney was teaching school in the backwoods of America! It is true that a sentence of death stood against him in France; but does any one doubt the reception that would have been accorded him if he had suddenly come to life again? And is it credible that the sixty or more people who must have been in the secret if there was a sham execution, kept silence when the opportunity offered of bringing him home in triumph and under such romantic circumstances?

Mr. Weston says that an unsuccessful effort was made about this time to have Ney's sentence rescinded; but we fail to see how this circumstance alone was sufficient to prevent a man of Marshal Ney's daring from taking his chances of a return when popular sentiment was so strongly in his favor. Such was the affection for his memory during the reign of the Citizen King that his widow was granted a pension of 25,000 francs a year, and a monument was ordered to be erected in his honor.

There are weak points in the evidence Mr. Weston produces. None of his witnesses appear to have had pictures of Marshal Ney before them when they wrote their testimony. It is true they knew P. S. Ney only as an old man, but he wore no beard and was well preserved. The likenesses of the younger Marshal would have been a fair basis for comparison. One old lady thought the face of Marshal Ney flashed by a magic-lantern upon a screen was the face of P. S. Ney, but it does not appear that she ever deliberately and calmly compared her recollection of the one Ney with an effigy of the other.

Marshal Ney was born in Saar-Louis, and on one side was of German origin, and he could speak German, we are told; but all his life he was a Frenchman, speaking practically nothing but French. How is it, then, that P. S. Ney spoke English with a brogue, as some of the witnesses state, or with a German accent, as others say? It may be that P. S. Ney was really a French refugee, but we look in vain in the writings he left behind him, and which Mr. Weston has reproduced, for a single French idiom or Frenchman's expression. Did Marshal Ney know English? It is possible that he knew something of it, but P. S. Ney, even if he had an accent, spoke it and wrote it with a facility which convinces us that he had had an acquaintance with it from his youth. Marshal Ney was an ill-educated man—Napoleon and others have affirmed it. Could he have acquired languages, dead and living, and qualified himself for teaching school after he had passed his maturity? He had great talents, unquestionably, but they did not lie in the same channel as the talents of the schoolteacher, P. S. Ney.

Having said this much, it is only fair to quote a remarkable letter which appears in Mr. Weston's book. It comes "from a foreign gentleman of high character and position," and it reached Mr. Weston after his book had gone to press. It may be found on the last page of the last appendix, and is as follows:

"I am acquainted with the history of Peter S. Ney prior to his escape to the United States of America. Many years ago, when I was a young man, I visited your country for the express purpose of communicating with him. I found him in Rowan County, North Carolina, teaching school. . . . I never saw him afterwards. The identity of Peter S. Ney has been a profound secret. He was a fugitive from justice, and many persons in France were accessory to his escape. If Peter S. Ney had revealed his identity in America, his friends in France who aided in his escape would have suffered death. Even now, perhaps, his identity cannot fully be made known. . . . He was born January 10, 1769."

Marshal Ney was born on that day. The name of the writer of the letter, Mr. Weston says, cannot be disclosed, and is known only to his publisher and himself. One mystery does not explain another. Why should not the author of this letter disclose P. S. Ney's identity? Why should he conceal his own? We have no right to doubt that Mr. Weston received this letter, but we are justified in rejecting it as proof.

A History of the Novel Previous to the Seventeenth Century. By F. M. Warren. Henry Holt & Co.

THE difficulties besetting a differentiation of the novel, in the modern English meaning of

that word, from every other form of fiction known to Europe previous to the seventeenth century are not exaggerated in Mr. Warren's introductory remarks. They are, indeed, rather understated, for his book is a history of a thing that had no established existence until just about the moment when he leaves off. The modern novel is a product of a civilization well past kicking and plunging, settled down to a jog trot, and just now, perhaps, as in the era of its remote Hellenistic progenitors, significant of a general decadence. It came into life as human imagination weakened under the pressure of prosaic intelligence, with the diffusion of a general incredulity about heroes and magic and monsters, and in response to a demand for fiction that should reproduce life as it is known to the masses, or, at least, as it may be easily accepted by the common understanding. During a happy thousand years or so the joyous populace of Europe appears to have loved best fiction that scorned possibility, that made its eyes start and its mouth gape. In matter, it cared nought for the real except when that was also ribald, and generation after generation listened patiently to interminable rigmarole about the loves and wars of semi-mythical heroes, the monotony being interrupted chiefly by the ingenious device of changing names and scenes. With that genial public an old story was not equivalent to a tedious one, and at the fiftieth rendering it is recorded of no man that he was rude enough to mention that he had heard it several times before. When it is added that the sense or instinct for form was rare even among scholars, that no one dreamed of exacting a central motive or dominating interest, that characterization was accidental, not vital, it is clear that mediæval and Renaissance fictitious compositions were not even novels called by another name.

Mr. Warren's devoted quest from the Greek, through *chansons*, *lais*, romances of chivalry, and pastorals, resembles, therefore, the perchance engaging, but generally unfruitful, hunt for a needle in a haystack, and, apart from interesting information by the way, leads to nothing but an assurance of the unlikeness between the things looked for and found. Besides assuming the embarrassment of a special plea, he has foregone the advantage (for lucidity) of a definite outline of the chief cycles of romance connected, however loosely, with the legends of Troy, Alexander, Arthur, and Charlemagne. By darting to and fro among these immortal but mixed traditions, leaping forward and harking back on the supposed trail of his novel, he has succeeded in imparting to his treatise much of that air of inconsequence, contradiction, and vain repetition which distinguishes the subjects of his investigation. Conscious of treading debatable ground, his positive assertions are few, and those not dogmatic. He affirms that Montalvo's Spanish compilation of the 'Amadis of Gaul' legends (1470) is "our first modern novel," but his arguments and many of his facts cast grave doubts on the affirmation. He says "it is conceded on all sides that Spain gave birth to the romance of chivalry." Even at the risk of seeming a pariah lifting contentious voice in unbounded wilds, we suggest that Spain did nothing of the sort in the sense of originating or creating. Instead of regarding 'Amadis' as an independent composition very obscurely derived from the great cycles, we prefer to look upon it as a late artificial imitation, and a supremely tiresome one, and fail to see why it is any nearer to a modern novel than the 'Morte Darthur' of Malory, whose name is not so much as mentioned in Mr. Warren's index. In Malory's compilation his personality is very evident; however imperfect and elusive, the artist's hand moulding rough material is frequently perceptible. Moreover, there is so much unity that the gradual accretions may be easily separated from the pure, natural legendary growth. To say that, "unlike prose versions of the Arthurian legend, the career of Amadis points a moral," is to be strangely blind to the indirect but none the less impressive moral derivable from the tales of Launcelot and Tristram. Finally, if Amadis was "the first pattern of a true and perfect knight," what was Sir Galahad? And if "the thirteenth century did not ask for any presentation of absolute purity of mind and body," how did it come to adopt the vision of that bright boy knight in shining armor seen by Walter Map, court poet to Henry II. of England?

This cold indifference shown by Mr. Warren to the English novel's ancestor of race is extended to the purely Gallic *fabliaux* and the Italian *novella*, though we have been accustomed to believe that they too count for something in the evolution of fiction. His neglect of peers and equals may most easily be ascribed to our author's desire to claim everything for Spain. To Italy he allows chronological precedence in the pastoral romance; but for form, spirit, subsequent influence, the glory is given to Spain, summed up in Montemayor's 'Diana.' Arriving at the picaresque novel, we quarrel no more with Mr. Warren. If the term invention may be applied rightly to any form of literature, give it, by all means, to 'Lazarillo de Tormes'; and, though we are not quite sure what the author means by saying that "it completed the circle of novelistic action," we feel, to quote him again, that that should be "conceded on all sides." The literature which he has been at such pains to explore is inexpressibly monotonous and dreary. It is without form and void of ideas, and its interest and value are more properly linguistic and philological than literary. No human being could make an account of it entertaining, and the grind of reading it may be inferred from Mr. Warren's comment (pathetic in view of what he has gone through)—"The two *picaresco* novels ['Lazarillo de Tormes' and 'Guzman de Alfarache'] of the sixteenth century, are the only examples of all the many romances of that time which can be read at the present day for themselves alone."

Municipal Government in Great Britain. By Albert Shaw. New York: The Century Co. 1895.

MUCH of what is of most general interest in this book has already appeared in various periodicals, and has been received almost with enthusiasm. We have become so much accustomed to associate waste, jobbery, and inefficiency with the government of our large cities that accounts of the clean, economical, and brilliant management of the affairs of Glasgow and Birmingham come to us as a kind of revelation—harbingers, so to speak, of the future that may lie before our own towns. In this book, however, Mr. Shaw does not confine himself to panegyric, but furnishes us with a quantity of well-digested information as to the nature and operation of the British municipality—information which is totally inaccessible to most American readers, but which is of the utmost importance to them. It would be agreeable to us and to our readers were we to select from the book those exhilarating passages which depict the present and future glories of London and Manchester and Birmingham; but these passages have been already so widely read and copied as to be familiar. The natural effect of such glowing accounts is to suggest to Americans the question: "Why can we not receive all these beauties and conveniences and advantages from our own municipalities?" and we shall devote our space to answering this question. The answer may, indeed, be found in Mr. Shaw's pages, but we incline to think that he has not put the question fairly to himself, or fully comprehended the causes which have produced such differences as exist between the municipal institutions of this country and of Europe.

The most fundamental of these differences is very clearly stated by Mr. Shaw. It is the important and honored part played in the English system by the town councillors, and the despised and insignificant position occupied by the corresponding functionaries in our own country. A corresponding fact is the honorary position of the mayor in England contrasted with the vast powers which are lodged in the American officer bearing the same title. Mr. Shaw cannot understand why such autocratic powers should be conferred upon a single person. He says that it is unrepublican, and that "the one-man power is on the decline everywhere in this age." We ought to follow the example of the English and exalt our aldermen, instead of reducing their activity to the humblest affairs. He urges, rather hastily, that if a powerful city council cannot be trusted, the fault is with popular institutions. It will give the people, he maintains, as good a government as they deserve to have. It gives the English cities excellent government; why should it not produce the same result here?

The answer to this question may be stated in two words. England is still an aristocratic society; America ceased to be one more than half a century ago. We cannot enlarge upon this difference further than to say summarily that the direction of Government falls, in a community where aristocratic traditions prevail, into the hands of men of some distinction, while in a democracy it falls into the hands of men who please the common people. It may prove to be the case, eventually, that the common people will select as their legislators and rulers men eminent for probity and wisdom; that is the goal toward which we are struggling. But, so far, it is undeniable that democratic government has shown itself corrupt and wasteful to such a degree as to make necessary a resort to the "one-man power." We do not know what Mr. Shaw means by calling it unrepublican. "An two men ride of a horse, one must ride behind." We know of few wars that have been successfully prosecuted when conducted by a committee of generals, and most great business enterprises prosper under autocratic management. Undoubtedly there is much room for division of labor; and when a wise manager finds that he has a competent subordinate, he leaves him in control of his department. But, inasmuch as all people cannot be rulers, it does not appear to be more unrepublican for them to delegate the power to one of their number rather than to several.

That Great Britain is still an aristocracy, so far as municipal government is concerned, is proved by Mr. Shaw's statements. If the qualifications of voters in New York city were the same as in Glasgow, for instance, four-fifths of our voters would be disfranchised. We cannot state the details given by Mr. Shaw, but in a

general way it may be said that no one who has not paid taxes can vote at a municipal election in Great Britain. No doubt it may be claimed that all the residents of New York pay taxes, but they do not know it. The occupants of tenements are not aware that their rents have any connection with municipal expenditure; but the occupants of tenements in Glasgow or Birmingham are not ignorant upon this point. If more money is spent by the city government, they have their attention called to it whenever they pay their rents, and this single fact is of great political importance. Moreover, as Mr. Shaw points out, the requirement of the payment of taxes disfranchises a large class in the foreign cities.

"At least one-third of the householders and theoretical voters of Glasgow never appear on the municipal or parliamentary registration lists. . . . The whole body of men who are ignorant, vicious, and irresponsible is practically outside the pale of politics in Glasgow and Edinburgh, Dundee and Aberdeen. . . . The English municipal electorate excludes in practice nearly all the unmarried men, all floating laborers and lodging-house sleepers, and nearly all the serving class."

It is hardly necessary to say that such exclusions as this would make the problem of governing American cities a very different matter from what it is. In view of these exclusions it is not surprising that "the exploitation of the votes of the ignorant, vicious, and indifferent in English cities by demagogues or party agents is so extremely difficult that it does not count for anything at all in election results."

In the same line with these facts are to be ranged the paucity of elective offices in England compared with their multiplicity here, and our system of paying salaries for services which receive no pecuniary compensation in England. Considering all these vital and fundamental differences in our institutions, it seems absurd to suppose that the granting of greater powers to our aldermen would result in any approximation to the results obtained in England. Nor are we quite satisfied to take Mr. Shaw's word for the value of these results. We apprehend that there are seamy sides in British municipal government which Mr. Shaw's buoyant optimism has overlooked. The Manchester ship canal, which was to cost $25,000,000, required thrice that sum for its completion, and hardly pays operating expenses; but Mr. Shaw says that it is a monument of civic faith and energy, and will result in vast prosperity in the twentieth century. Meanwhile it results in a debt of $100 per capita to the inhabitants of Manchester. In 1872, before Mr. Chamberlain became Mayor, the debt of Birmingham was $2,500,000. It is now $40,000,000. But the community is richer by reason of this indebtedness, Mr. Shaw cheerfully declares, to the extent of twice or thrice this amount. So reasoned the people of the Australian colonies concerning their investments of borrowed capital, but they found themselves suddenly bankrupt. So have reasoned many of our Western communities, and have never comprehended why they came to grief. It is well to provide for posterity, but if the bills are left for posterity to pay, perhaps it would rather be consulted in the matter. It is conceivable that England may yet become involved in disastrous wars and suffer from declining trade. In such a contingency it might be found that the brilliant investments of her modern municipal governments were not so productive as had been anticipated, and that the policy of paying as you go would have been more judicious.

Aus meiner Zeit: Lebenserinnerungen. Von Friedrich Pecht. 2 Bände. Munich: Verlagsanstalt für Kunst und Wissenschaft.

THE author of these charming reminiscences began his career as an artist, and forty years ago enjoyed considerable distinction in Germany, especially as a portrait-painter; but, as he himself frankly confesses, it was the bias of early education and accidental circumstances, rather than any decided bent of genius, that led him to the choice of this profession. He was born October 2, 1814, in the picturesque and historic town of Constance in the Grand Duchy of Baden. The family was of East Prussian and more remotely, perhaps, of Swedish origin. His father was a man of culture, and was pursuing his theological studies in the University of Würzburg when the French invasion under Jourdan, in 1796, caused the Prince Bishop and his clerical court to flee in a panic. The young student seized this apparently not unwelcome opportunity to throw off his cassock and to start a book-shop at Constance as a branch of the then famous establishment of Rieger in Augsburg. About a dozen years later he married a Swiss maiden, the youngest daughter of the Amman Gänzli of the Canton of Thurgau, a remarkably clever and vivacious woman, with an inexhaustible fund of family traditions and personal recollections, which she was fond of relating, and some of which her son has recorded in the first chapter of his autobiography, thus carrying the reader back to the period before the French Revolution, when Thurgau was still under the imperious and oppressive tyranny of Berne. Among other incidents she remembers celebrating the emancipation from this galling yoke by dancing with other children round the village "tree of freedom" and singing "Ça ira, ça ira ça." Pecht himself states that he distinctly remembers the great inundation and famine that desolated portions of Baden and Eastern Switzerland in the summer of 1817, when he was scarcely three years old; and from that date his memory of events, comprising his experiences as a schoolboy and the earliest artistic impressions produced by the fine specimens of Renaissance and Gothic architecture in his native city, seems to be wonderfully vivid.

One of the most attractive features of these volumes is the admirable skill with which the author has woven into the narration clear and concise characterizations of the many distinguished persons whom he met in Munich, Dresden, Leipzig, Berlin, Vienna, Venice, Milan, Rome, Paris, London, and other places during the half century from 1833 to 1885. There is hardly an artist or literary man of eminence in Germany, belonging to the present or preceding generation, whom he did not know more or less intimately, and of whom he does not give, with a few bold and masterly strokes of the pen, a most lively and life-like portraiture. In 1839 he went to Paris, where he remained three years as one of the 120 pupils of Delacroix, whom he praises as "a very strict but excellent instructor." Here he met his old friend Heinrich Laube, who had just made a tour through France and was filled with enthusiasm for everything French, and through whom he became acquainted with Heinrich Heine and Richard Wagner. He even painted Heine's portrait, and enjoyed during the sittings the brilliant though often frivolous wit and venomous sarcasm of the self-expatriated German poet. Pecht knew the 'Buch der Lieder' almost by heart, and felt the irresistible charm of these lyrics, but had not yet learned to appreciate the truth of Sheridan's famous couplet concerning "easy writing." He remarked one day on the pleasure it must give the poet to dash off such delightful verses. "I meant well with my asinine compliment, but fared ill; with a glance of supreme contempt he replied: 'If you only knew how often I have filed away at a single one of those verses for days and even weeks!'"

Of Wagner, who was then suffering the greatest privations while composing "Rienzi" and "The Flying Dutchman," and vainly striving for recognition in Paris, Pecht speaks in terms of sincere sympathy and warm admiration. The unflinching courage and firm confidence with which he pursued his lofty purpose, the incomparable energy and elasticity of his nature, which supported him under the severest trials, are described as beyond all praise. This unconquerable force of will and faith in his star stood him in great stead on several occasions, and especially when the first performance of one of his pieces in a concert, upon which he had built the fondest hopes, proved to be an utter fiasco, owing to the imperfect training of the orchestra, which converted the sublimest harmonies into shrieking discords. On the New Year's eve of 1841, Pecht and a few other artists resolved to give the Wagners a surprise party. They bought a basket of champagne, a quantity of cold provisions, cakes and sweetmeats, and climbed four flights of stairs to the attic, where Wagner and his wife were sitting alone and apparently forgotten in the general festivity. The unexpected visitors were joyfully received, and Wagner, under the cheering effect of the kind attention and the brisk champagne, leaped upon a chair and improvised in delightful doggerel a New Year's discourse, full of happy hits at every person present, without sparing himself. He went on in this style for half an hour or more without the slightest hesitation, and kept the table in a constant roar of laughter. Pecht declares that he, at least, never heard so good an improvisation, except once, and that was by Emanuel Geibel at a dinner given him six years later in the famous Dresden restaurant, "Findlaters Schlösschen," and although Geibel's verses were more finished, they were hardly equal to Wagner's in pat allusions and flashes of wit and pure spontaneity. As he was about to return to Germany, Pecht found himself stranded in Paris, having lent all the money for his journey to the now wholly insolvent Wagner, but was generously set afloat by a young German merchant and accomplished flutist named Brix, who also belonged to the small circle of the composer's friends and admirers. Instead of the much-needed cash, says Pecht, "I received a long letter from Wagner from Meudon, whither he had fled to escape his creditors, entreating me to procure for him a position as organist or something of the sort, in order that he might finally find relief from this everlasting pressure of poverty." The tone of the letter betrayed a state of despondency and desperation quite incompatible with his usual sturdy self-reliance and irrepressible optimism, and even suggested thoughts of suicide. A year later his "Rienzi" had met with immense success at Dresden, and he had succeeded Morlacchi as conductor of the royal opera in that city.

In 1848 Pecht went to Frankfort with the intention of painting a large picture of the Parliament, and thus immortalizing that famous representative body. For this purpose he was diligent in attending the sessions of the Diet, which were held in St. Paul's Church, a massive rotunda with pillared galleries on three sides and marvellous effects of light and

shade. A national Parliament, however, does not fulfil its whole mission by merely looking picturesque, and Pecht became so disgusted with the puerility of its proceedings that, if he had been a poet, he would have found it difficult not to write satire; as it was, he abandoned the plan of celebrating a great historic event on a big canvas, and turned his pencil to the easier task of caricature. Although now in the eighty-first year of his age, he shows no perceptible diminution of his mental and physical vigor, and as art-critic of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* and editor of the illustrated art journal *Kunst für Alle*, he is still as active and energetic as any man of middle life.

A Manual of Public International Law. By Thomas Alfred Walker, M.A., LL.D., Fellow and Lecturer of Peterhouse, Cambridge. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE primary object of this book, as defined by the author, is to furnish "students commencing to read public international law" with a "text-book which, whilst excluding unnecessary detail and mere theoretic discussion, might well serve as a fairly comprehensive general introduction to detailed study of the subject." As the author is a lecturer, and has confessedly found no English treatise that fully satisfies the conditions thus defined, he must have been conscious of the fact that his task was not an easy one. To avoid, in a manual primarily designed for students, both "unnecessary detail and mere theoretic discussion," involves the exercise of a large measure of discrimination and judgment, as well as the command of simple, lucid, and precise forms of expression.

The present work does not disclose the possession by its author, in a high degree, of these qualifications. The style is neither easy nor precise, and is often marred by mannerisms; and there are sometimes substantial inaccuracies and omissions which might, perhaps, have been avoided if he had entered more fully, or at any rate more carefully, into details. As an illustration of our meaning, we will take what the author says on the important subject of the free navigation of international rivers. After referring to a number of treaties by which such navigation has been secured, he declares that, "although the doctrine of the freedom of navigation of great rivers has advanced in general favor, the new order has arisen by virtue of particular treaty entered into by the interested nations, not by the outright recognition of a general law, and the right of riparian states to regulate the traffic has been, in each instance, formally acknowledged"; and he further declares that "in no case have we witnessed the recognition of any *natural* right such as that which the United States, in harmony with her earlier Mississippi experiences, asserted in the navigation of the St. Lawrence in 1824." Turning to Article 26 of the treaty between the United States and Bolivia of May 13, 1858, we find the following declaration: "In accordance with fixed principles of international law, Bolivia regards the rivers Amazon and La Plata, with their tributaries, as highways or channels opened by nature for the commerce of all nations." While this declaration refutes the general statement of the author as to the non-recognition of any international, or of any natural, right, it can scarcely be maintained that there has been a formal recognition in each instance of the right of riparian states to regulate "traffic." In the treaty of peace of 1783, the United States and Great Britain, on the supposition that the Mississippi was navigable in British jurisdiction, made the following simple and unqualified agreement: "The navigation of the river Mississippi, from its source to the ocean, shall for ever remain free and open to the subjects of Great Britain and the citizens of the United States." By Article 26 of the Treaty of Washington of 1871, the same governments agreed to the free navigation by their citizens or subjects, in perpetuity, of the rivers St. Lawrence, Yukon, Porcupine, and Stikine, subject to any laws and regulations of the riparian government "not inconsistent with such privilege of free navigation." This is far from stipulating for a right to regulate traffic. It merely secures a limited right to regulate navigation. It does not refer to traffic.

Under the head of exceptions to the territorial jurisdiction, we find the following rule: "Foreign sovereigns travelling within a state in their proper character, together with their personal attendants, are held exempt from local jurisdiction." Under this rule Mr. Walker cites the famous case of the Parlement Belge, but he does not refer to the sweeping effect given to that decision in the recent case of Mighell v. The Sultan of Johore, decided by the Court of Appeal in November, 1893, in which it was held that the defendant, though he came to England and lived there, not in his proper character, but as Albert Baker, under which disguise he became entangled with the plaintiff, could not, when he asserted in court his sovereign character, be required to answer in a suit for breach of promise of marriage and for the return of certain jewels.

In the course of his discussion of territorial jurisdiction, Mr. Walker introduces the much controverted and much misunderstood case of Martin Koszta; and his conclusion is that while the American Government "may have been actuated by a desire to save a human life," "their zeal for humanity outran their regard for law and the independence of foreign nations." Whether, or to what extent, this conclusion can be justified, it is not our purpose to inquire; but it is certain that Mr. Walker bases it upon an Austrian pretension which that government failed to substantiate. "Citizens of Austria might," he says, "under capitulation between Austria and the Porte, be lawfully seized by the Austrian consul at Smyrna for offences committed within the Austrian dominions against Austrian law, and Martin Koszta was so seized." If this be so, it is remarkable that Austria never produced the text of any capitulation that would justify the seizure; and it is quite as remarkable that, if such a capitulation existed, the method should have been adopted of suddenly seizing Koszta and throwing him into the sea, where a boat's crew lying in wait picked him up and conveyed him on board an Austrian man-of-war. If this was a lawful, it could scarcely have been the regular, mode of procedure. But it is a fact that four years previously Austria, instead of claiming a right of her own to seize or arrest, demanded of the Porte the extradition of Koszta, together with that of Kossuth and other Hungarian refugees then on Ottoman soil. The Porte then decided that the capitulations with Austria did not require the surrender of political offenders. In this decision Great Britain and France supported the Ottoman Government; and when, being again in Turkey, Koszta was seized, the Turkish Government protested against the act as unlawful and as a violation of its sovereign rights, but did not protest against the conduct of the American functionaries at Smyrna. It is true that Koszta, as Mr. Walker intimates, did not at the time of his seizure have an American passport. But he had a *tezkereh*—a kind of passport or safe-conduct—which had been furnished him by the United States consul at Smyrna, in accordance with the practice lawfully observed by foreign consuls in Turkey in respect to persons whom they received into their protection.

There are evidences that the habit of publishing students' manuals which are at the same time to be valuable to the general reader, is invading the domain of international law, which has heretofore been fairly exempt from it. With the exception of Lawrence's 'Handbook,' it has not as yet produced in that domain any publication of special merit. The present work of Mr. Walker is, in our opinion, distinctly inferior, even for a student's use, to his 'Science of International Law,' published two years ago.

Men and Women of the Time: A Dictionary of Contemporaries. Fourteenth edition, revised and brought down to the present time by Victor G. Plarr, Librarian of King's College. London and New York: George Routledge & Sons. 1895.

THE first edition of this well-known work appeared in 1852 and contained three hundred titles. The present edition contains somewhat fewer biographies (2,300) than that immediately preceding, which showed a large, and not always judicious, increase of more than seven hundred names over the twelfth edition. Four hundred prominent persons have passed away since the publication of the edition of 1891. This work retains its distinctly English character, and is in no proper sense a general dictionary of contemporaries. Of the biographies included 312 are from the Continent and 184 from the United States. It is curious to note the proportion of representatives of the different nations as a possible illustration of the relative influence in politics, literature, and art which these countries exert upon English thought. There are 120 Frenchmen, 77 Germans, 31 Italians, and 16 Austrians; while the remaining countries of Europe (including Scandinavia, Russia, Turkey, and Spain) contribute 67 names. The biographies of titled persons and artists, including actors and musicians, exhibit fewer omissions than those of statesmen, philologists, and scientists, though the last-named class is more fully represented than the two former.

The book is singularly deficient as a guide to the public men of the Continent. In France we miss Hanotaux, Constans, Rouvier, Mercier, Périer, Baron Courcel, the French Ambassador at the Court of St. James, Baron Hirsch, and numerous others; in Germany, Von Boetticher, Dr. von Stephan, to whom international postage is largely due, Bebel, and Richter; in Russia, Witte, Stall, and the Procurator-General of the Holy Synod, Pobedonostzeff, whose influence has been so baleful for many years in the internal administration; in Italy, Rudini, Giolitti, and Villari; in Hungary, Dr. Wekerle; in Norway, Stang. It is impossible to follow the politics, domestic and foreign, of these nations without some knowledge of these men.

American politicians are possibly more numerously represented. We find the President and the members of the cabinet included. This feature seems an innovation, for many members of former cabinets do not appear, as witness Messrs. Boutwell, Endicott, Dickinson, C. and J. W. Foster, Elkins, Chandler, Goff, Bristow, Wanamaker, and the late Hugh McCulloch, who was almost as well

Senators, two judges of the Supreme Court, and Messrs. McKinley and Wilson find mention — the latter out of compliment to the measures which bear their names. The late James G. Blaine and Benjamin F. Butler are reported in the body of this work as "Men of the Time." This posthumous existence is most noticeable among military men, and especially among Confederate generals, of whom we find Beauregard and J. E. Johnston still surviving in the text, as well as G. W. Cullum of the Union army.

Even for England there are notable omissions. There is a tendency to make prominent the writers of lighter prose and verse and to overlook authors of marked scholarship. We search in vain for F. W. H. Myers, W. J. Courthope, author of the 'History of English Poetry,' and the most prominent candidate for the Chair of Poetry at Oxford in succession to Francis T. Palgrave; F. H. Bradley the philosopher, D. G. Ritchie, W. M. Ramsay the archæologist, Sir W. H. Broadbent, Bart., the successor in medical fame to the late Sir Andrew Clark. American scholars and writers are mentioned with slight indication of their relative importance; and altogether passed over are Francis J. Child and Charles Eliot Norton of Harvard, George P. Fisher of Yale, Hiram Corson of Cornell, B. L. Gildersleeve, Remsen and Rowland of Johns Hopkins, and many others equally notable. Similarly, the historians Henry C. Lea, J. B. McMaster, James Schouler, Henry Adams, Henry Cabot Lodge, H. von Holst, Justin Winsor, John Fiske, and others are lacking. Several university presidents are admitted, but not Francis A. Walker, David Starr Jordan, or James B. Angell, whose diplomatic services alone would entitle him to mention. The artists Lafarge, Sargent, Chase, and numerous others are disregarded.

German scholars are, as a rule, ignored. It would be easy to select from every university names of the highest eminence which do not appear, such as Weiss, Pfleiderer, Harnack, Treitschke, Weber, and Wattenbach, from Berlin. Literary men fare no better, and hence we find no mention of C. F. Meyer, Herman Grimm, Paul Lindau, Rodenberg, Hauptmann, Wilbrandt, Blumenthal, Wichert, and others.

In general an effort has been made to keep the biographies proportionate, but in some cases, notably in those of English scientists, a discussion of scientific principles is often included in the statement of what the authors have accomplished.

The Telephone Systems of the Continent of Europe. By A. R. Bennett. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

WIDESPREAD dissatisfaction, according to the author of this treatise, has existed in Great Britain in regard to telephone rates, and he therefore determined to ascertain for himself what the telephone rentals are and what they include in the countries of Europe. With this purpose in view he made an exhaustive study of the telephone systems in these countries. With the exception of St. Petersburg and Moscow, where the rates are £25 per annum, no Continental rate equals the £20 rate which prevails in London. The English subscriber to a telephone service obtains for his money four services: (1) Local exchange intercourse; (2) internal trunk-line intercourse; (3) public telephone-station intercourse; (4) forwarding and receiving his telegrams by telephone (in some of the large towns only). Only one country, Portugal, has an inferior list of facilities; Italy has the same number; and all the rest enjoy superior advantages for a subscription which is often one-third less than the British. The author believes that rates of £2 10s. in the smaller and £5 in the larger towns are made remunerative on the Continent. With these facts in view, he discusses various plans for the reform of the present telephonic system in Great Britain. These plans cannot fail to be of interest to those who advocate Government control of the telegraph and telephone; yet one cannot help feeling that the author's former relations with the telephone companies in England have biassed his judgment.

The treatise also contains an account of the devices for facilitating telephonic intercourse peculiar to each country which he visited. The writer of this notice has seen in the offices of the American Bell Telephone Company a map of the United States on which all the existing telephone lines are indicated. The Eastern and Middle States on this map are heavily covered with the black lines which indicate the telephone routes. Other thickly covered regions exist about the great Western cities. The South and Southwest, however, show comparatively little use of the telephone. While one can say that such a map of the United States indicates where the greatest intellectual activity of the country exists, one could not draw such a conclusion from a similar map of Europe, for the use of the telephone in Great Britain is apparently more limited than in many of the smaller countries of Europe. Mr. Bennett's treatise lacks a good index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeney, Prof. W. F. The Song of Solomon and Lamentations. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Baxter, Sylvester. Boston Park Guide. Boston: The Author. 25 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 22, 1895.

The Week.

THE 16-to-1 Democrats in Ohio are beaten as badly in their State convention as the same faction was beaten in Kentucky. There are sufficient reasons for this result without ascribing it to the herculean labors of Senator Brice. The terrible thrashing that the party received last year, when the 16-to-1 men had everything their own way and adopted a 16-to-1 platform, has had its due share in producing the present result. The example of Kentucky has likewise had a powerful influence in shaping ideas on the north side of the Ohio River. Still, there does not appear to be any great anxiety among Democrats to secure the nomination for Governor, although there is a latent and widespread feeling that they may carry the Legislature and elect a Senator.

The victory of the free-coinage men in the recent Democratic State convention in Mississippi was overwhelming. Two causes have combined to prolong the silver delusion in that commonwealth. One is the fact that it stands somewhat aloof from the currents of business activity which make its neighbor, Alabama, more quickly responsive to the turn in the tide of public thought on this question throughout the country. The other is the fact that since Lamar left his seat in the Senate to enter Cleveland's cabinet ten years ago there has been no great leader to expose the fallacy of the free-coinage theory and open the eyes of the people to its folly, as he did when the silver issue came up in 1878. The present violence of the craze is a matter that chiefly concerns Mississippi. The fact that the State is solid for free coinage will not rescue that movement from its assured defeat, but it will prejudice the best class of possible settlers from making homes in a State capable of such folly.

The Maryland Republicans last week adopted a civil-service plank which is fully as explicit and far-reaching as the Illinois plan. It pledges the party to "the enactment of such legislation as shall permit the people of the several counties and municipalities of the State to decide for themselves by popular vote whether appointments to the police, fire, and all other departments of public service shall be in accordance with the principles of the merit system." This is a clear recognition both of the business arguments against the spoils system, and of the fact that a non-partisan public service is an essential part of home rule. When the people of any given locality are free to decide the question for themselves, the dictators at the State capital or at Washington will be told to keep their hands off. The result of the test vote at Chicago indicates how surely local sentiment may be appealed to as against the bosses. The spoils system has thriven on the indifference of local voters to local issues, compared with national questions, and now that local issues—municipal home rule, an honest and permanent public service—are coming to the front as never before in this country, the bosses will be sent to the rear as never before.

Mr. Manley, chairman of the executive committee of the national Republican organization, has some very bold and pronounced views on the questions where the next national convention should be held, how the Southern delegates should be treated, and how the business revival will shelve the silver question. But when pressed to name the really great issue of the campaign, he politely but firmly declines to answer. He knows, but he will not tell. In the matter of reminiscences he was communicative enough. His party had made a great mistake about the force-bill issue, and should have dropped it eight years before it did. This seems to be a confession that a leading doctrine of one national convention may be dropped by the next. If the force bill may be so dropped, if silver may be dropped, why not protection also, and the platform confined to an endorsement of a pure home life, useful knowledge, and the cardinal virtues? Anyhow, we are glad to see Mr. Manley so certain that whoever is nominated will be elected. What the man who is elected thinks or will do, is of course a minor matter.

Senator Wolcott is the latest of the erstwhile loud-sounding silver orators to discover that this is a time for modest stillness and humility. The silver question, he observes, has had "too much said about it for its own good." Is this a reflection on Stewart and Jones and their speeches for nine times the space that men call day? Who has said more, in his way, about the silver question than the Colorado Senator himself? True, he has been reëlected, and does not now need to fire the Colorado heart by announcing his willingness to do or die for the silver-miners; but, even so, we should hardly think it safe for him to indulge in such open cynicism. "This is no time to argue the question," he observes, "when nothing can be gained by it." As a lawyer, Mr. Wolcott must know that this sounds very much like counsel declaring, after the Supreme Court has decided against them, that they do not care to argue the case any further just then.

It is high time that a search party was organized in a scientific way to sail in pursuit of British bimetallism. That elusive natural phenomenon is in as great need of being discovered, located, and described, as was ever the snark. Returning travellers tell weird and conflicting tales about it. Mr. Whitney was powerfully impressed with the strength and ferocity of bimetallism in England, until he found people in this country laughing at his story as merely a horrid vision caused by the febrile conditions to which Presidential candidates are subject, and then he took it all back. Speaker Crisp told the correspondents that it might be true—he hoped it was—that bimetallism was making giant strides in England, but that not a stride had been taken in his presence. Speaker Fish had spent a large part of his vacation in hunting for British bimetallism, but confessed on Saturday that he had not seen so much as a feather of that shy bird. But these explorers were clearly too unenterprising, too sceptical, did not recognize an irresistible wave of bimetallism when they saw it. Let them learn of Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson. He writes to the Philadelphia *American* giving the most authentic and inside news about bimetallism in England. He knew enough to go to headquarters. Less shrewd observers contented themselves with reading the papers, scanning election addresses, and listening to the speeches of candidates; and, finding no more about bimetallism in them than about traducianism, rashly concluded that there "wasn't no such a thing." But if they had gone with Prof. Thompson to the office of the Bimetallic League in Manchester, their eyes, and perhaps their mouths, would have opened in astonishment. There were bimetallic posters—the walls were "papered" with them. They were written in "terse, strong, ringing sentences," which shows how different the art of bimetallic composition is in England from the form we know. Some of the posters were "in Welsh"—terse, strong, ringing Welsh. What excuse has Mr. Whitney for not informing the American public of this conclusive proof of the strength of English bimetallism?

One Southern State is at last aroused to the necessity of punishing "prominent citizens" who go around shooting anybody with whom they chance to quarrel. A fortnight ago T. Dabney Marshall, a Representative in the last Mississippi Legislature and Democratic candidate for Senator in the next one, as well as "a member of a leading family," started out gunning for a man who had made a charge against his character, taking along three companions to insure fair play; and when he met his enemy, who was un-

armed, Marshall and two of his party began firing at him, keeping it up until his body was riddled with bullets. None of the participants appears to have expected anything worse than formal and resultless proceedings in the courts, after many precedents in cases almost as bad; but the brutality of this assassination aroused public indignation. The Circuit Court met on Monday, the grand jury brought in a true bill for murder against Marshall and his two fellow-shooters, they were arraigned on Wednesday, pleaded guilty, were sentenced to imprisonment for life, and they have already begun to serve their sentences. We have so often been compelled to criticise the remissness of the South in the punishment of murder that it is a great pleasure to find a case where the authorities deserve to be commended. It is to be hoped that the example of Mississippi will be generally imitated.

There is much significance in the current discussion as to the possibility of Mr. Cleveland's renomination for the Presidency. Considering the popular prejudice which is known to exist against a third term, the vitality of the discussion is itself remarkable. We do not think that there is the remotest likelihood of a renomination being offered him, or of his accepting it if it were offered. The reasons for the discussion are, however, not far to seek. Mr. Cleveland is thought of as a possibility for a third term simply because of the dearth, we might say lack, of candidates who stand for what he stands for in the public mind. The people turn to him for further service because they are unable to find as a successor any one who gives assurance that, if elected to the Presidency, he would guard the public interests in the same fearless and effective manner as Mr. Cleveland has done. It was a keen perception of this feeling in the public mind which prompted certain rabid haters of Mr. Cleveland to start the present discussion by saying that he was intriguing for a third term. They were so alarmed at the possibility of having him thrust upon them for another four years that they sought to head it off off by arousing the third-term prejudice. They have performed a useful service in revealing the popular desire for a candidate of the Cleveland type. This desire is likely to be increased when the next Congress gets to work. That body is little different in quality from the one which made the Democrats so much trouble during the past two years, and it is very likely to give the President fresh opportunity to show the country that he is the inflexible defender of its most vital interests.

One of the most objectionable manifestations of false patriotism witnessed in recent years has been the attempt to deprive alien residents of this country of the right to work. In the State of New York the true motive for this discrimination has doubtless been the desire of the politicians to compel the men who are employed on municipal works to qualify as voters. When so qualified, the politicians reasoned, they could be made to vote as desired, and accordingly the Legislature was employed to pass an act making it illegal for a contractor with a municipal corporation for the performance of public works to employ any persons except citizens of the United States. Under this statute a member of a paving company was recently convicted of having employed an Italian in work on a street under a contract with Buffalo. That conviction has now been reversed by the General Term of the Superior Court of Buffalo, and the statute pronounced unconstitutional. Judge White, who delivers the opinion of the court, concludes by saying that until compelled by judicial authority to yield assent to such legislation, he shall esteem it a privilege and solemn duty to stamp it with his disapproval; and good citizens will find it hard to differ with him. The case ought certainly to be carried to the Court of Appeals, for the principles involved are of far-reaching importance. If the several States have power to enact such laws as this, it is evident that the general Government will soon have trouble with foreign countries. Our treaty with Italy provides that Italians residing in the United States shall enjoy the same rights and privileges in respect to their persons and property as are secured to our own citizens, and similar provisions are generally inserted in treaties. While Congress has power to override treaties, the State legislatures have not, and upon this ground alone, as Judge White says, the statute could be held unconstitutional.

The liquor-dealers of this city received a valuable lesson in the elementary principles of government from the Recorder on Friday. They learned with something of a shock that laws in regard to liquor-selling are subject to the same treatment as other laws, and that the first duty of a civilized government is to enforce them. Their previous instruction on this subject has been very inadequate. Mr. Mullins, a liquor-dealer with four saloons, has for many years been defying the law's regulations in regard to Sunday selling, and has never been seriously disturbed by the authorities till now. Occasionally some of his barkeepers were arrested, but they were never convicted of any offence, and were released promptly under the influence of a "pull." On Friday Mr. Mullins found himself in court under quite different conditions. He was adjudged guilty of the violations of the law which his barkeepers, under his orders, had committed. He could find nowhere about the court a "pull" which would work for the amelioration of this verdict. When he stood up before the Recorder for sentence, he was informed that when he violated the law he must take the consequences, that liquor laws were no different from other laws, and that the penalty for his offence would be imprisonment for thirty days and $250 fine.

Senator Hoar takes the bull by the horns when he declares, in his admirable letter on the A. P. A. business, that Catholics otherwise qualified ought to be allowed to teach in the public schools. The Catholic teacher has from the first been the great bugbear of this movement. It was Superintendent Marble's impartial course regarding appointments in Mr. Hoar's own city of Worcester which was made the lever by the A. P. A. element for turning that able and experienced instructor out of his place a year ago. It is therefore instruction that is much needed at his own home, as well as in Boston and other places, which the Senator gives when he says that he does "not wish to exclude Catholics from being public-school teachers (if they will keep their particular religious tenets out of the instruction) because of their religious faith, any more than I would have excluded Phil Sheridan from his office in the army, or would have refused to support him for any public office if he had been nominated for it." The only wonder is that a State which has always prided itself upon its progressiveness should need at this late day to be taught this fundamental lesson in equality.

The London *Economist*, in noticing some of the comments made on this side of the water upon its gloomy views of our finances, declares that it has no intention of making any attack on the credit of the United States Government. True, it continues, the expenditure exceeds the revenue, and Congress refuses to impose new taxes. Nor can it accept the sanguine view that the revenue will increase to such an extent as to cover the deficit. But, in spite of these adverse circumstances, it recognizes the fact that the resources of the country are too great to allow its credit to be questioned. "It is not to fiscal but to currency difficulties that the loss of credit by the United States Government and the lack of confidence in American securities is due." The silver craze has diminished in intensity, but it cannot yet be safely ignored, and the operations of the bond syndicate show that the situation is critical. This syndicate has, it is supposed, succeeded in placing abroad about $100,000,000 of American securities. The effect of this has been to cover an adverse foreign balance and to prevent the exportation of gold. This, according to the *Economist*, has involved "a continuous manipulation of the exchanges," and, so long as it continues, foreign investors cannot be expected to shake off their feeling of distrust, nor can confidence be felt

in the steady development of business in the United States.

The distinction made by the *Economist* between "fiscal" and "currency" difficulties is not very intelligible. We should certainly say that our difficulty was a fiscal one, and that if the revenue of the Government rose above its expenditure, we should have no currency difficulty of a pressing nature. With a surplus revenue the currency would be necessarily contracted, and it must not be forgotten that the increase of business and the growth of population are now operating to reduce the *per-capita* quantity of money. There is now no way of increasing the legal-tender currency except by increasing the quantity of gold in circulation. It is evident that a large amount of money will be presently needed "to move the crops," and there will be little temptation under such circumstances to ask for gold in exchange for paper. The *Economist* seems to fail to recognize accomplished facts. Undoubtedly we were suffering some months ago from a very acute difficulty, whether it be called a fiscal or a currency difficulty. The bond syndicate saw that they could carry the Treasury through the emergency in a particular way, they made their agreement to do so, and they have fulfilled and are fulfilling it. The time for shaking of heads and questioning of hearts is past.

For a question which the general election had for ever shelved, and in a Parliament which was going studiously to ignore it, Irish home rule had a fair innings in the House of Commons on Thursday. The dynamite and blackguard section of the Irish party did little except to give Ireland new reason to pray to be delivered from such deliverers, and to afford Speaker Gully an opportunity to show that he will sternly uphold the dignity of his position and of the House against all Irish blatherskites. But the remarks of the new Chief Secretary for Ireland make it clear that the Conservative party is well aware it must do something for Ireland. Nothing need be looked for at this short session, but in time, it is evident, Conservative bills to remedy the anomalies of government in Ireland will be introduced. Then the whole dead question will show that it is very much alive. The Tories, in fact, have suspected all along that it was not dead, or, at least, as the Irishman said, if dead, was not conscious of it; and the remarkable steadfastness of the Irish electorate in the choice of Nationalist members has made them sure of it. The London *Times* was quick to declare that Lord Salisbury would have to do something for the Irish, if the pestilent fellows would only stand still and see the salvation which the Tories would offer them; and the *Spectator* outlined an "Irish policy for the Government" which was enough to make thorough-going Tories turn purple. According to this policy, the Conservatives were to endow liberally a Catholic University in Ireland, and make grants from the national treasury to Catholic elementary schools. Then they were to improve and extend the land act of 1881, provide for local or county government, and, finally, set up a central legislative body in Dublin "armed with the powers of Parliament in the matter of private-bill legislation." To justify these home-rule schemes, the *Spectator* coolly adopts the arguments which, in Mr. Gladstone's mouth, it used to call revolutionary and treasonable. It says the present scheme of governing Ireland is unworkable, is "a gross scandal, and ought to be put an end to." That is what the wicked Gladstone and the Liberals have been saying for ten years, and their plans differ only in detail from those which the *Spectator* now urges as a prime necessity.

The collapse of many speculative enterprises has led to an attempt to devise some new legislative protection for investors in England, and a very able committee appointed for the purpose has submitted a proposed bill for amending the law regulating the formation of corporations. The committee observes that "the Legislature cannot supply people with prudence, judgment, or business habits," and the changes that it suggests are, from our point of view, conservative enough. The proposed act does not go so far as to require the payment of the capital, or indeed any part of it, before the shares are all allotted, and the directors may fix the amount of subscription required at any amount. It is certainly not unreasonable to compel corporations to record their mortgages when private persons are obliged to do so; and it is no very harsh requirement that directors shall buy and own the shares which qualify them, or that they shall be held to the same degree of care which they take concerning their own property. Probably the most necessary reform, judging from English experience, is that which requires that every prospectus shall disclose all such information as will enable investors of ordinary prudence to form some idea of the enterprise. Every contract and fact must be advertised "which would influence the judgment of a prudent investor in determining whether he would subscribe for the shares or debentures offered by the prospectus." This provision is obviously salutary and in the interest of good business morals. It will at least have the tendency to check the practice of fraud under the cover of respected names.

Another failure of actual England to live up to the legendary England of the patriots is involved in the announcement that the Government of India has decided to withdraw from Chitral as soon as the movement is considered practicable from a military point of view. Thus the policy of Lord Rosebery's Cabinet in this matter appears to have been confirmed by Lord Salisbury. But the Jingoes will not be comfortless, for has not Bechuanaland just been annexed to the Cape Colony? Thereby hangs a little tale of Mr. Chamberlain's self-assertion as Secretary for the Colonies. He insisted that the bill providing for annexation should be amended so as to prevent the sale of liquor to the natives, and also so as to continue native jurisdiction in certain classes of crime. The sticklers for the independent authority of the Cape Government were furious, accused Mr. Chamberlain of officious and unwarranted meddling, and maintained that his sole constitutional right was to advise that a bill be vetoed. But Premier Rhodes was very calm and pliant, and accepted the Chamberlain amendments in order to meet the views of those squeamish people in England who "held the erroneous idea that the natives were badly treated." So the bill was finally passed unanimously on August 1. This did not prevent a good deal of muttering over the fact that in his first contest with the new Colonial Secretary Mr. Rhodes had come off second best.

The cable gave a brief account of an anarchist's attempt at assassination at the mines in Aniche, France, on August 4. From the detailed description of the affair in the French papers it seems to have been an occurrence extraordinary even in the records of anarchist exploits. The object of the assault was the superintendent of the mines, who had worked himself up to that position, from being a foreman, after fifty years' labor. A fête was offered him by the men under him to mark the rounding out of that period, and it was this occasion which a young anarchist seized to try to kill the superintendent, though happily he succeeded in putting an end only to his own wretched life through the premature explosion of his bomb. The event certainly throws much light on the rationale of anarchist hatred. Here was no grinding capitalist, no exploiter of labor, to awaken, in the cracked brain of the anarchist, rage and a desire for vengeance, but an honored and successful workman, reaping the reward of long fidelity, and popular with his fellows. Yet he is really precisely the kind of man to rouse anarchists to fury. They know very well that he is their deadliest enemy. If he is allowed to demonstrate that labor can be well paid and even honored, and that laboring men can be contented, in this corrupt social organization, the anarchist cause is wounded in a more deadly manner than it could be by a dozen heartless capitalists. Away with such a fellow from the earth!

THE POINT OF VIEW.

It is easy to see and pleasant to record the international hypocrisies of our neighbors—as when Russia, after annexing in the last quarter of a century half a million square miles of territory on the road to India, protests unctuously against Japan's occupation of the Liao-tung peninsula; or when France, valiantly slaughtering her "protected" Hovas in Madagascar, fumes at England's industrial occupation of Egypt. But it is neither so easy nor so pleasant to remember that this is an insidious sin common to all "civilized" nations, and that the present outcry of the American press against outrages on foreigners in China is as good an example as Christian history has ever afforded of the mote and the beam. The American people should understand the state of their balance-account in this matter. Let us look at the items a moment, and then figure out the moral.

The following list, taken from our Foreign Relations Reports of the last twenty-five years, notes the recorded instances of outrages in China and in the United States which resulted in loss of life:

In China, in 1870, occurred the Tientsin massacre; nineteen French and Russians (including several nuns) were barbarously murdered by a mob and the mission premises destroyed.

In the United States, in 1880, came the Denver riot; Chinese dragged through the streets with neck-ropes; one killed, several wounded.

In China, in 1883, some Europeans on a carouse killed some Chinese.

In the United States, in 1885, came first (September 2) the Rock Springs massacre; a village of Chinese stormed and burned by 150 armed miners, inspired by Knights (!) of Labor; men and women, from noon till midnight, shot and looted the fleeing victims; twenty-eight were killed and fifteen wounded, fourteen were burned to death, mostly sick men, and the dogs and hogs ate the charred corpses. The whole population stood by and approved; a fruitless inquest, etc., followed. For this we paid $423,000. On September 7, at Seattle, the Chinese were expelled, their village burned, three killed, and several wounded. Early in 1886, at places in Washington, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, and Oregon, twenty-eight were killed. In Juneau, Alaska, eighty-seven Chinamen were driven out and set adrift on the ocean in two small boats with no food. During this period the Chinese were expelled from a score of places on the Pacific Coast, and more than 100,000, it was said, fled to San Francisco in terror and destitution. For one year's work, including damage to property, we paid $275,000.

In China, in 1887, there were return-riots, on hearing the above news; but no lives were taken. In 1891, in numerous riots at Wuhu and elsewhere, property was destroyed and two British killed.

In the United States, in 1891, there was arson and robbery, with one woman burned to death in Vallejo, Cal. In 1894, in Oregon, ten Chinamen were ambushed and murdered: "Every one was shot, cut up, stripped, and thrown in the water," most of them being shot in the back.

This summary omits, on the one hand, two score or so instances of mere property damage or ineffective assaults at various times in China. It also omits, on the other hand, the countless unrecorded instances of personal assaults and property destruction of Chinese on the Pacific Coast—that period of systematic bedevilment in which scarcely a day passed when an inoffensive victim was not stoned in the streets or his property taken. It also omits the insolent practices of Americans (and others) in Chinese ports, where they are recorded as wantonly striking passers-by with their whips in riding and driving, or carelessly running down native junks without an effort to save the drowning crew. It also omits those forms of oppression of which the following opinion by an American Claim Commissioner is on record in our public documents:

"It is a mortifying fact that were a balance to be struck between the aggregate losses suffered by Americans from Chinese pirates, Chinese thieves, and Chinese debtors, on the one hand, and on the other the injuries inflicted on Chinese merchants, tradesmen, compradors, and citizens, in the non payment of debts honestly due them by American merchants, agents, shipmasters, mariners, etc., we should find that balance to our debit in a ratio of fully 90 per cent."

Omitting, then, these lesser matters, what are the general features of the aggravated cases? On this side we find the Chinese invariably and unanimously acquitted of any provocation; they are conceded to be inoffensive in their conduct, industrious and useful in their work. On that side we find, in the missionary settlers at least, a similar absence of provocation, together with a highly useful activity. On this side, however, the Chinese compete for employment at exasperatingly low wages, and thus undoubtedly disturb the economic order to a serious extent. On that side, in a similar way, the missionaries come with doctrines and customs which, by the Chinese standard, pervert morality and overturn its basis, the family; while an unfortunate combination of circumstances has spread an ungrounded but often highly plausible belief that they kidnap Chinese children for their orphan asylums, and use babies' eyes and hearts as medicaments in their hospitals. On this side, consequently, we find sporadic outbreaks of violence by a turbulent and lawless class of the community. On that side, no different results follow; these recent killings of 1895, for instance, being the work of a band of marauding rebels.

In China, again, while decent people think about these things just as decent people do here, we find often a part of the intelligent class—officials and scholars—openly or quietly abetting; we notice, also, that strife is often excited for political ends. On this side, too, we find the Pacific Coast officials often conniving, seldom protesting, at the persecution of the Chinese, and constantly effecting a practical denial of justice; we also find the same nefarious use of popular feeling for political purposes. On that side we find these outbreaks consisting of robberies, lootings, and burnings, of assaults and "massacres"; on our side, too, we find theft and destruction, with cowardly and barbarous butchery.

Thus far the cases run on all fours. But there are two differences. First, the Chinese Government has never denied its duty to pay for all these things, and in the vast majority of instances the records show a full and fairly prompt payment. But it has been reserved for the officials of our enlightened republic to record themselves before the world as repudiating our liability to pay, and to relegate the Chinese to the tender mercies of a hostile local tribunal and a farcical justice; and the Rock Springs and other indemnities came as pure gratuities, thoroughly inadequate, pushed through a not too willing Congress. Secondly, the Chinese who have suffered here were undoubtedly in the simple exercise of their full treaty rights in settling and working where they were. But the missionaries who have suffered outside of the treaty ports were with equal certainty voluntary intruders where they had no right to settle; for missionary work in China (strange as it may seem) has been and is largely conducted by the aggressive occupation and persistent maintenance of stations outside of the stipulated treaty limits of residence. That these two circumstances of difference increase the credit side of our account would be difficult to maintain.

The moral, of course, is that if the Chinese are black in iniquity, then we are equally so; that if we prefer to think our people as a whole untainted by these sporadic excesses, the same conclusion must follow for the Chinese; and that a little more deliberation in the choice of vituperative adjectives is desirable. But this is, after all, some one will say, a merely scholastic question; historians and sociologists may reconsider their estimates of the Chinese, but it is useless to expect our general public to interest itself in such judgments. This is exactly the root of a serious fallacy. Our popular attitude in such matters is all of a piece. The bigoted heedlessness which is anxious to try our new warships by thrashing Chili, which conceives it a duty to rescue Hawaii and Cuba by force for "enlightened" government, which every year dares the British to knock chips from its shoulders, is one and the same with the conceited sanctimoniousness which denounces the whole Chinese nation as barbarous, and abuses our plenipotentiaries in China as "denationalized" and "Orientalized," while it overlooks the black score of oppression and butchery repeatedly inscribed by our own people within the past ten years. No doubt our eyes will some day be opened. Meanwhile, a decent regard for the *tu quoque* argument, and an intelligent study of the point of view of our foreign neighbors, are things which our press cannot too assiduously cultivate among our people.

AN OBJECT-LESSON.

It is reported that Mr. Speaker Crisp was present at the opening of Parliament and witnessed what must have been to him a striking spectacle, singularly illustrative of the effeteness of his native land. He saw organize itself a House of Commons known to contain an overwhelming

majority of Conservatives and Liberal Unionists, the parties whose coalition had utterly overthrown Lord Rosebery and Sir William Harcourt. He saw the Conservative member for the University of Oxford, that Toriest of constituencies, which threw out Sir Robert Peel and Mr. Gladstone for even coquetting with Liberalism, rise and nominate for reëlection the Speaker of the last House and predict his unopposed passage to the chair. So it turned out, and Speaker Gully, on resuming his seat by a unanimous vote, was congratulated by Mr. Balfour and Sir William Harcourt.

Yet Mr. Gully was a Liberal of the Liberals—a follower of Mr. Gladstone so long as he led the Commons; a declared opponent of all the views of Lord Salisbury, Mr. Balfour, Mr. Chamberlain, and Sir John Mowbray who nominated him. He had been Speaker only a very short time, and his selection to follow one of the most successful of modern Speakers occasioned considerable surprise. He was little known to the House, and to select him Sir William Harcourt had passed over several prominent Parliamentarians of both parties. How came it to pass, then, that a Conservative government caused his nomination by one of their stanchest supporters and had it understood there was to be no opposition? Simply because he had made an excellent Speaker; simply because, coming after one who had received such universal respect and regard in the chair as no other Speaker since Onslow—134 years—Mr. Gully had risen at once to the height of parliamentary approval. There could be no reason for the change except that the control of the House of Commons had passed into the hands of the other party, after a campaign of exceeding bitterness; and that, say the oppressed subjects of a monarch, is no reason at all. If you have got a good Speaker, keep him. Why not do so in Congress?

Mr. Crisp has been heard from in answer. He says, of course, that things in England and in America are very different; that our "system" would not allow a non-partisan Speaker; that the Speaker is recognized as the head of his party in the House of Representatives, and exercises power which can belong only to a party leader. But why? What power does he exercise which an impartial Speaker, chosen for his individual merits above party standing, cannot? In the first place, he appoints the committees. Now, be it observed, there is no necessary reason why the presiding officer should appoint the committees at all. The Senate of the United States selects its own committees, not the Vice-President. But, in point of fact, so far as the party character of the committees goes, our Speaker is already tied down in practice to a rule which might be administered by any one. The committees are selected from the adherents of both parties in such a way that the majority of the committee shall correspond to the majority of the House. In the Fifty-third Congress, where the Democrats were to the Republicans as about two to one, the important committees, consisting of fifteen or seventeen members, contained six Republicans, and the committees of thirteen contained five Republicans. It is not as selecting between the parties, but as selecting in each party, that the Speaker uses his power. In this device the Speaker has often shown himself anything but a loyal party leader, distributing places on committees by local and even personal interests. Few things could have been more insidiously dangerous to the Democrats than Mr. Crisp's selecting Mr. Bland for chairman of the committee on coinage; and in constituting the committee on ways and means he made the Republican third of it much stronger than the Democratic.

But the Speaker is expected in the House of Representatives itself to lead the business and shape the policy. Undoubtedly he does so, and in some respects the tradition is a venerable one, for undoubtedly Henry Clay was the active leader of the House in Monroe's Presidency. But that was a time when party in the present sense, or indeed in any sense, hardly existed. It was many years after 1825 before one of Mr. Clay's successors took an active part, as he did, in shaping the action of the House. But the present arrangement, by which the Speaker is a more active partisan behind the scenes, and occasionally in debate itself, than the chairman of the most important committee, the President, or any cabinet officer, is a comparative novelty and an utter abuse of the Constitution. Mr. Crisp played this rôle himself in the last Congress in a way that did his party no good and himself very little. He came down on the floor in committee of the whole, nay, when the House was in session, and wrangled with his predecessor with anything but a chairman's dignity. He pushed the Democratic caucus into defying the Senate on Tuesday, and then drove them into truckling to the Senate the next Monday, because there was a divinity hedging him, and no one dared to dispute his dicta, as they would those of Mr. Wilson, Mr. Cockran, or Mr. C. R. Breckinridge.

There has often been advocated in our columns the admission of cabinet ministers to the floor of Congress, to explain and enforce the measures of the Administration. Such a course would render the Speaker's partisan leadership of much less value. But without adopting this phase of English parliamentary government, there is not the least need of mixing up the duties of a dignified and impartial moderator with those of an astute, keen, combative party leader. Our present Postmaster-General showed himself amply qualified to perform all the duties of a leader of the House; he had many able lieutenants at his call when he was compelled to be absent. But the energies of the Democratic party were dissipated, its purposes diverted, its hold on the country lost, in large part by the unseen manœuvres and theatrical appearances of a Speaker who may profitably breathe the air of Parliament, morally as well as physically purer than that where he bore sway.

THE SUPREME COURT VACANCY.

THE recent death of Justice Jackson of the United States Supreme Court offers an unexpectedly early opportunity for restoring the geographical equilibrium of our highest bench, which has been disturbed since one of the nine judicial circuits was given three of the nine judges two years ago, and since a Louisianian a little later succeeded a New Yorker. John Jay of New York was appointed by Washington Chief Justice when the court was organized in 1789, and, except for an interval of twelve years after his resignation to negotiate the treaty with France in 1794, and the two years 1843 to 1845, the tribunal has had a representative of the Empire State continuously until 1893, the order of succession being Brockholst Livingston, who served from 1807 to 1823; Smith Thompson, 1823–1843; Samuel Nelson, 1845–1872; Ward Hunt, 1872–1882; Samuel Blatchford, 1882–1893.

The propriety of giving New York representation in this tribunal, on the ground of the exceptionally important interests, national as well as State, that centre in this commonwealth and enter into suits arising here, has thus been acknowledged from the foundation of the government. Mr. Cleveland recognized the weight of these considerations when he sent to the Senate in 1893 the nominations of two New Yorkers, only to have them rejected in succession, after which he named Senator White of Louisiana. The argument recurs with added force now that another appointment must be made.

Of the eight judges now on the bench, Gray of Massachusetts represents New England; Shiras of Pennsylvania, the old "Middle States"; Fuller of Illinois, the interior; Brown of Michigan, the northern tier of Western States; Harlan of Kentucky, the northern part of the South; White of Louisiana, the lower half of that section; Brewer of Kansas, the region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains; and Field of California, the Pacific Coast. There are nine judicial circuits in the country. Six of these have now a representative in the Supreme Court, and one has two—the sixth, which stretches north and south so as to take in Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, and Michigan. During Judge Jackson's brief service this circuit, composed of only four States, had three out of the nine places. Neither the fourth (Maryland, the two Virginias, and the two Carolinas) nor the second (Vermont, Connecticut, and New York) had a representative. There can be no question where the choice should lie between these two. Indeed, there is general agreement among news-

papers throughout the country that the appointee should come from New York.

There is no lack of lawyers in this State who are well qualified by character, ability, and judicial temper for the place, and who would be sure of the Senate's approval. Character, ability, and temper are obvious tests of a lawyer's fitness to fill the vacancy. There is one other consideration, however, that ought to be taken into account, which has been too much neglected by Presidents of both parties during the past quarter of a century. We mean the question whether a possible appointee is of such age and bodily vigor that there is a good prospect of his being capable of efficient service for a long period. It is essential that a new judge should be qualified to ornament the bench; it is also most desirable that he should give promise of distinguished service for twenty or thirty years.

The Supreme Court has suffered sadly of late years through the appointment of judges who were too old and too weak for its exacting duties. A remarkable change of standards has come about in this respect during the past century, and it has been a change for the worse. The early Presidents made their selections largely from among men in middle life—even men "still young," to use an expression common nowadays. Chief-Justice Jay was not yet forty-four years old when he took his seat, and his five associates (the court then had only six judges) were forty-seven, fifty, fifty-four, and, in two cases, fifty-seven. From the foundation of the government till after the close of the civil war no appointee had reached the age of sixty, while among those in the earlier period James Iredell was but thirty-eight, Bushrod Washington but thirty-six, and Joseph Story and William Johnson but a few months past thirty-two.

Naturally enough, the average length of judicial service during the first three-fourths of the nation's existence was very great. If Jay had retained his place until his death (John Adams, by the way, wanted to reappoint him in 1801), he would have been Chief Justice forty years. A later Chief Justice, John Marshall, appointed at forty-five, sat for thirty-four years, and Story as long; John McLean, forty-four when appointed, and James M. Wayne, forty-five, each thirty-two years; Bushrod Washington thirty-one, and Johnson thirty; while four others of those appointed before the war sat from twenty-five to twenty-eight years. Indeed, it is an extraordinary fact that, leaving out of account those who resigned their seats, the average term of service for all appointees from Washington's day to Lincoln's was above twenty years.

Lincoln maintained the old traditions, and with the old result. Noah H. Swayne of Ohio, fifty-seven when appointed, sat for nineteen years, Samuel F. Miller, forty-five, for twenty-eight years; David Davis, forty-seven, would have served twenty-four years had he not resigned to enter the Senate; Stephen J. Field, forty-six, is now in his thirty-third year of service; and only Salmon P. Chase, fifty-seven at his appointment, but weakened by his exhausting work as Secretary of the Treasury, died after a brief term, lasting but little over eight years, during three of which he was an invalid.

Grant introduced the new system of appointing older men, even past sixty years of age—William Strong being in his sixty-second year, and Ward Hunt in his sixty-third, while Caleb Cushing had entered upon his seventy-fourth year when the President sent his name to the Senate as Chase's successor. Arthur appointed Samuel Blatchford at sixty-two, Cleveland named L. Q. C. Lamar at sixty-two, and Harrison nominated Howell E. Jackson at sixty-one. In more than one case, too, the aging man was far from robust when he entered upon the arduous duties of the place.

The results of this change of policy in the matter of age have been most unfortunate. In case after case the new judge has died in a comparatively short time, Lamar after five years and Jackson after only two; while in other instances he has soon become a wreck, like Hunt (for whose benefit a special pension act had to be passed when he broke down after a few years), or, when still strong enough for further service, has retired on a pension after ten years, as Strong did in 1880. The average length of service has been in consequence reduced more than one-half as compared with ante-bellum days. Nine judges appointed since Grant's first inauguration have died or resigned on pensions. The youngest of the nine was fifty-six when he took his seat, and the average length of their service fell short of ten years—less than half the average before Grant's day, up to which time the oldest appointee had been fifty-nine.

There should be a radical change in this matter. No lawyer should for a moment be thought of for the vacancy who is not below sixty years of age—and the nearer forty-five the better; and who is not a man in vigorous health, with an "expectation of life" as regards judicial service of twenty to twenty-five years. A bench of nine men who sit in final judgment on the affairs of a nation of sixty-five millions of people must not be recruited from the ranks of graybeards and valetudinarians who totter under the burden of their heavy duties, and eagerly await the day when they may save a fragment of life by retiring upon a pension.

THE TWILIGHT OF GREAT MEN.

Moved by the death of Von Sybel, the Paris *Temps* calls the roll of the great men who, in various countries, have gone within a few years past to join the mighty dead. Helmholtz and Huxley, Renan and Taine, Tennyson and Browning—these are some of the names upon which shadow now rests, and which stand for loss. Also do they stand, the French paper asserts, for the intellectual impoverishment of the present generation. Their successors are not visible, or, at any rate (which amounts to the same thing), have not taken, in public estimation, the vacant places. It is a veritable twilight of great men if not of the gods.

Such a plaint is no novelty. However ready the poet and the moralist may have been to assert that brave men lived before Agamemnon, they have never been so sure about what came after him. At any given time in the world's history, even just before a wonderful flowering of genius, despondent observers were doubtless saying that the race was approaching mental bankruptcy. Wordsworth in 1802 thought England and the world in general threatened with decay, though the century before him was to be starred thick with immortal names. But it would be idle to deny that there is a basis of truth in what the *Temps* asserts. We shall not look again upon the like of some of the great men whose departure it mourns. There is, from age to age, a change in the manifestations of human greatness, a different emphasis put upon it. Changed opportunities and demands make a changed product. Nature breaks her mould after each casting.

It is often said that democracy is fatal to individual distinction. The *Temps* thinks that the vulgarization of institutions carries with it that of intellect, and it is something of a coincidence that, almost at the same moment, the Prussian historian Von Treitschke, at a banquet commemorative of 1870, should have deplored the mental and moral bankruptcy of Germany, and attributed it to the fact that German society had been "democratized." Lowell seems to have spoken a juster word when he said that democracy had indeed a disagreeable way of interrogating the Powers that Be, but only for the purpose of finding out if they were the powers that ought to be. But there is little to be gained by attempting to draw inferences from such broad and vague premises. In the changing conditions of life and learning, in the growth of the human spirit itself, we can see more definite causes at work which, if they do not lessen the number of great men, make them appear great in different ways.

One such cause is, clearly, modern specialization. A leading characteristic of some of the great minds who have lately left the world poorer was their wide-ranging nature. A Darwin or a Dana, for example, worked in many provinces of science, and did fruitful labor in each. Where is the rising naturalist today who would not be appalled at the thought of venturing so far out of his groove? A scientist must needs have had his early training a good half-century ago to have so much as conceived the possibility of covering so vast a territory. What is now required, what is now fur-

nished, is drilling away at a single vein till its last filament is got out. A sufficient triumph of learning nowadays is such as that of Browning's grammarian —to have "properly based *oun*," given us "the doctrine of enclitic *de*." Prof. Foster, speaking of the bent of Huxley's studies, well says that any branch of science is always in want of a great man, but that it was a particularly fortunate thing that Huxley turned away from physiology when he did, to do work in morphology which was just then absolutely needed. The work which all departments now absolutely need is this sort of specialized work. Thus the conditions are wanting which produced the all-around intellectual giants of the past, and it would be foolish to look for their reappearance—at least just yet, or in as great numbers.

There is also, in the very mass and accumulation of knowledge, at once causing and caused by specialized learning, a subtle something which disinclines to original and creative effort.

"Child of an age that lectures, not creates,"

said Lowell ruefully of himself, before Chartres Cathedral. Well, lecturing is a kind of creation. To see and set things in their proper relations, to understand the science of the comparative, to keep one's head above the waves that beat upon the student from every direction—this is work for a great man. Certainly it is the kind of work to which our best minds are more and more forced to give themselves, and it must lend a peculiar note to the kind of intellectual greatness we should expect to be most frequent in the near future. It is a wise generation that knows its own great men.

We must reckon in, too, as an influence not favorable to the production of great men of the old type, the increased sophistication and self-consciousness of the present time. Some of the greatest men of the world have owed their fame in part to their ignorance, in part to their unconsciousness. If they had fully known what they were about, they either would never have undertaken it, or would have botched it in the process. Like Wordsworth's glad souls, they were great and knew it not. A keener sense of humor would have ruined many a hero. Certain kinds of greatness are compatible only with a sublime disregard of the reasonable chances of success and with an entire forgetfulness of self. But those qualities are rare in the modern world. We are great for figuring out the average. We insist upon knowing what the odds are. Nor can we take ourselves so seriously—or rather take ourselves so unconsciously—as our ancestors. No man now says, "Go to, I will be a great man," any more than he says, "Go to, I will make a new religion." The sense of the ludicrous has become too strong for us. How many American mothers now inform their first-born sons that they may be President one day? We say we know too much for that any longer. But this very decline in the prophecy and anticipation of greatness is one reason why greatness, at least of the old kind, dating from the time when more minds were "used to the approach of Glory's wings," may be expected to be rarer.

But none of these considerations, of course, touch the central mystery of human greatness, which remains a mystery when all is said. We may single out influences which affect second-rate intellects, but the origin, as well as the march and conquests, of a mind of the first class remains inexplicable. Such minds, of which the best account we can give is that they are dowered with genius and given a mission to accomplish upon which they wreak themselves as by an inner necessity, will doubtless arise, in unexpected ways, to bless or curse their fellows, in the future as in the past. We may yet, at any rate, share Wordsworth's confidence, even in his despondent mood, as respects the future of the race "sprung of earth's first blood." Our great luminaries may sink below the horizon, and the twilight of great men be apparently full upon us; but

"Fear not but that thy light once more shall burn,
Once more thine immemorial gleam return."

ALASKA REVISITED.—IV.

JULY, 1895.

WESTWARD from the Sitkan archipelago regular communication is confined to the mail-boat, a staunch little schooner with auxiliary steam power, which makes five monthly trips during the summer. For the rest of the year the dwellers in this part of Alaska must depend for communication with the outer world on the casual and infrequent visits of other vessels. The travellers on the mail route have hitherto been confined to those whose business demanded their presence, and tourists are practically unknown. The regular tourist route is so sheltered from wave and storm that the travel is almost like that on a large river, and sea sickness need not be feared by the most timid passenger. The western route presents different conditions. The voyage is largely on the open sea and has its full share of rough water. Only experienced travellers are likely to find compensation for its discomforts in the magnificent scenery by which those fortunate enough to have fair weather are repaid. Northwestward from Cross Sound to Yakutat Bay, about one hundred and fifty miles, extends the Fairweather range, a continuous series of peaks 5,000 to 15,000 feet in height, separated from the sea by only a few miles of lowland, chiefly of glacial moraine-stuff. Every valley or deep cañon has its glacier; the rugged forms of the mountains, due to the nearly vertical schistosity of the rock, are often grand in the extreme. The snowy slopes, seamed with projecting crags, are bordered below with dark spruce forest. The type of the scenery is not unlike that of Glacier Bay, so often described, but on a far grander scale, and much enhanced, under a sunny sky, by the broad expanse of sea.

This part of the coast has hardly been mentioned by travellers, and one must go to the Coast Pilot prepared for navigators to find any description of it. The graceful lines of volcanic cones like Rainier or Shasta are wanting here. The mountain tops are seamed and shattered; everything about them speaks of mighty forces, grim resistance, the strength that breaks but bends not, softened only here and there by the tranquil curves of immaculate snow. The few peaks of the range which give the effect of complete individuality usually exhibit two broad shoulders with a central prism-like peak, clear-cut against the sky. The finest example of this form, and to my taste the proudest mountain of them all, though not the highest, is Mount Fairweather, which fronts the sea with a dignity not surpassed by St. Elias. It supports five large glaciers, one of which enters the sea at the westerly arm of Lituya Bay. Beyond the mountain to the west several large glaciers extend nearly to the ocean. One, named by La Pérouse the Grand Plateau, when viewed near by appears like a vast limitless plain of snow, with narrow lateral and terminal moraines. At a distance of some fifteen miles off shore, however, a range of moderate height is seen to rise behind it. This to one who has first seen it from near by is very surprising. One can hardly believe one's eyes, though the explanation is simple enough, and I have lately seen the same effect produced by a near view of the Davidson glacier on Lynn Canal.

At Yakutat the range breaks, and is followed by the immense broken masses of the St. Elias Alps. Mt. Logan, the highest peak of all, is so far inland that it does not appear separable by the eye from the numerous nearer summits. Russell has made us familiar with this region, and especially with the enormous glacial plain which has received the name of Malaspina. At Icy Bay the ice comes down to the sea and the shores are low and muddy. Beyond Icy Bay all is undescribed along a stretch of 150 miles of coast. Here we have a range apparently composed of slaty rocks inclined at an angle of fifty degrees or more, and rising 6,000 to 8,000 feet above the sea. A single peak, Mt. Steller, its summit narrow but of the Fairweather type, dominates all the range and probably reaches a height of 12,000 feet. For one hundred miles the only landing-place is at Cape Yakhtaga between two projecting reefs. There are in the range a few recesses whose heads are occupied by glaciers, the descending streams from which make no obvious break in the straight coast line. In other places the steep mountain sides come down close to the beach. At about one hundred and thirty miles from Yakutat Bay the range recedes from the shore in a northerly direction, and the space between it and the sea is occupied by the great Bering glacier. This is an ice-lake of the Malaspina type, but more interesting, though not so large. For twenty-five miles its front comes down almost to the beach, and its surface, whiter than the Malaspina, is marked with two or three conspicuous medial moraines. It seems incredible that the mountains, fully thirty miles inland, can supply at present a sufficient mass of ice to cover to the height of a couple of hundred feet an area of more than 600 square miles. Yet the ice is there, and no other source for it now exists. This whole region teems with fascinating glacial problems.

The angle of the coast known as Cape Suckling is formed by an eminence which, but for the glacier that bounds it on the east and north, would be an island. Controller's Bay, shallow with deposits from the Atna River, separates the coast from Kaye Island. North of the latter is Wingham Island, smaller,

and between the two is an anchorage which formed Bering's landfall in his expedition of 1742. Here Steller landed for a few hours, and here the first white man set foot on the northwest coast above the Sitkan archipelago. The coast recedes northward in a wide bay, midway in which a sharp break in the mountains indicates the cañon of the Atna or Copper River. Most of the shore is occupied by the lowlands of the delta, behind which, at some distance, rise the snow-capped mountains. To the west, high wooded islands protect Prince William Sound. Ethnologically as well as historically this region is interesting, for here the Eskimo of the Sound, the Tinneh of the Atna River, and the T'linkit of Yakutat meet on common hunting grounds to pursue the sea-otter and seal. Twenty years ago this region was a wilderness in which two or three small trading-posts existed which received their supplies and sent out their furs once a year. Now every native village has its trader, most of them two competitors for trade. Almost every large stream has its salmon fishery, from which the product is promptly carried in small steamers to some centrally situated cannery.

Fur-bearing animals are becoming comparatively scarce, and the prices realized are ten times what they once were, with a corresponding diminution of the trader's profits. This has produced an effect hardly to be anticipated, namely, that, in the case of some animals, preserves have been instituted on convenient islands leased from the Government, and "fox-farms" promise to become increasingly numerous. Some of the salmon fishers have had the sense to project hatcheries in connection with their business, though in several cases fisheries have been wholly destroyed by taking all the fish and leaving none to spawn. The Government regulations for the preservation of the salmon are believed to be generally ignored or complied with very imperfectly. The discovery of rich cod-banks in Bering Sea has drawn away some of the vessels from the Shumagin Islands, formerly the centre of this business in Alaska. Fortunately the sea fisheries are not, like the salmon, capable of being easily monopolized and destroyed. Two or three years seem likely to complete the destruction of the fur-seal, after which Alaska must rely for her prosperity chiefly on the salmon, cod, halibut, and herring. At present the laws of the United States do not provide for, much less encourage, settlement in Alaska, and every stick cut for a log-house is in infraction of law. Land is not so valuable here that Uncle Sam need grudge homesteads to actual settlers, or timber for local uses. With the fur-seal out of the way, a new era will necessarily begin for the Territory, and it is to be hoped that a rational policy towards settlers will no longer be delayed. W. H. D.

THE SOCIALIST SITUATION IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, August 2, 1895.

THE little town of Kolberg in Pommerania, so famous for the bravery displayed by its citizens during the Napoleonic invasion, was recently the scene of a somewhat remarkable incident. As is not unusual in German watering-places, the bathing establishments of Kolberg are under the supervision of the municipal government, and the principal hotel of the town, the so called Strandschloss, is city property. As the dining-hall of this hotel is the largest hall in the town, it has come to be the customary meeting-place for political parties of every description. Some weeks ago Bebel, the Socialist leader, was to give an address in Kolberg. The local committee of the Socialist party applied to the Mayor for the use of the Strandschloss hall on this occasion, and the Mayor, himself a Liberal of long standing and a man without any Socialistic affiliations, granted the request. The meeting took place, and is universally reported to have been perfectly orderly and well behaved.

So far so good. But now the matter begins to be interesting. No sooner have the state authorities, the Landrat of the district of Kolberg and the Regierungs-Präsident of the province of Pommerania, been informed of the Mayor's compliance with the Socialist petition than they divine treason. The Landrat endeavors to induce the commander of the Kolberg garrison to withdraw the regimental band from the daily concerts in the Strandschloss Park; the Regierungs-Präsident countermands an official dinner which was to be held in the Strandschloss, and, at the same time, requests from the Mayor a prompt justification of the motives that have led him to an act calculated to endanger the commercial interests as well as the good repute of the city of Kolberg. And when the Mayor, in his reply, declares his conduct to have been actuated by the demands of simple, common justice, he is fined to the amount of ninety marks for misbehavior and neglect of duty.

Extraordinary as these facts are, they receive their proper relief only through the correspondence between Regierungs-Präsident and Mayor occasioned by them. The Regierungs Präsident distinctly affirms it to be incompatible with good morals and public decency to have any relations whatsoever with "a party which has written the overthrow of the existing social order, of the monarchy, and the Christian religion on its banner." The Mayor asserts with equal directness that to deprive the Socialists of the rights granted to all other political parties is simply shutting one's eyes to the fact that of all German parties they are, numerically at least, the strongest:

"He who does not want to sit where Socialists have sat, will nowadays be somewhat embarrassed to find a seat anywhere in Germany; at least he cannot any longer travel in railway carriages. What we eat and drink is for the most part made by Socialists. Our clothes have been largely manufactured by Socialist workingmen. You cannot live in a new house in the building of which Socialists have not been engaged. In short, to avoid Socialists or to stigmatize them as a class outside of the pale of correct society is an absolutely futile task. Only by acknowledging them as a public factor on an equality with all other public factors can the social peace be furthered."

In this Kolberg incident we have in a nutshell the whole of the political situation in Germany with regard to Socialism. The Government, on the one hand, since the defeat of the famous anti revolution bill, are more eagerly than ever resorting to a policy of small advantages and petty persecutions. Hardly a day passes without the conviction of some obscure enemy of society, or without the dissolution of some Socialistic organization. Since the courts in all cases of lese-majesty—one of the most common forms of Socialistic crimes—adopt secret sessions, it is impossible to get anything like full knowledge of this part of the anti-Socialist warfare. But there can be little doubt that the majority of cases is not very different from one which was tried before a Berlin court a few days ago and of which there was given out the following official report: "A butcher, Franz Rautenberg, having made some contemptuous remarks about the Emperor, was convicted of lese majesty. Although the utterances incriminated were not of an out-and-out insulting nature, the court fixed the sentence at six months' imprisonment, since the defendant had already served a previous term of two months for blasphemy, and consequently must be considered as predisposed to criminal acts of this kind."

In cases like this it is only an individual, and perhaps a worthless one, who is hurled by the defenders of morality into utter moral ruin. But it is not individuals only, it is above all the party organizations against which the saviours of society direct their hollow weapons. That in Hamburg a few weeks ago one hundred and fifty working-women were fined fifteen marks each for belonging to a club in which political matters were discussed (the privilege of forming political organizations being reserved to men), may have been reported even in American newspapers. Less striking, but none the less significant, is a case which recently happened in Cöpenick, a little town near Berlin. There exists in Cöpenick a Socialist Wahlverein, comprising some twelve to sixteen members, who meet as a rule every two weeks. At one of their last meetings they were surprised to see a policeman enter at ten o'clock and demand an adjournment, on account of the *Polizeistunde* having struck. The members of the club naturally protested against this action, pleading that their club as a closed society was not subject to the ordinary police regulations. But the Oberverwaltungs-Gericht, before which, as the highest tribunal, this protest, in the ordinary course of judicial proceedings, was carried, decided that inasmuch as the club in question had not a fixed membership, but could be joined on payment of a small fee by any sympathizer with the Socialist cause, it was *not* a closed society; that its meetings were not private meetings, but public gatherings, and therefore subject to all the regulations which are in force for public gatherings; that, in short, every one of its meetings must be announced beforehand to the police authorities and must be attended by a police officer.

It is clear that this decision of the Oberverwaltungs-Gericht, if carried out consistently, will put a speedy end in Prussia to all political clubs which, for one reason or another, are inconvenient to the Government. For it would be hard to find a political club of any description the membership of which was not equally elastic with that of the Cöpenick Wahlverein, and would not consequently come under the same kind of police supervision. And it is not surprising that already the larger Socialist organizations, as, for instance, the Berlin Freie Volksbühne, which at present is a body of some 8,000 members admitted by the payment of a small fee, are preparing for voluntary dissolution, of course only in order to carry on their work unmolested by official interference, under the disguise of some other less compact and palpable form.

While the Government is thus wasting its strength in the futile attempt to fight the Socialist propaganda with petty police annoyances, the country seems to be resistlessly drifting into the arms of this very propaganda.

It is a sad fact, but it is none the less a fact, that, twenty-five years after the foundation of the German Empire, German party life has reached a degree of confusion hardly less obnoxious than was the absence of all parliament-

ary institutions under the old Bundestag régime. There is actually not a single German party, except the Social Democratic, which, either on account of its mass or the consistency of its programme, can in any sense be considered an active public force. The Conservatives, naturally the allies of a Government which for generations has been accustomed to rely principally on the unwavering support of the landed gentry, have been forced into a perfectly untenable position through their exclusively agrarian policy and their consequent opposition to the governmental policy of a tentative free trade. The Centre party, since the death of Windthorst, the only man who was able to control its centrifugal tendencies, is more and more tending towards an open rupture between its feudal and its radical elements. And, what is most momentous of all, the very class which, after all, has had the largest share in securing to Germany her present position as a leading Power among the nations of the world in intellectual, industrial, and commercial progress—the *bourgeoisie*—is politically reduced to absolute impotence: whatever there is left of the old Liberal party is a mere name and shadow.

It is only natural that this condition of things—a condition unquestionably brought about through the Bismarckian policy of playing off one party against another without allowing either to obtain a share in the Government—should have led to a general discontent and uneasiness throughout the German land, the intensity of which it would be hard to overestimate. The farmer declaims against the commercial treaties with Russia and Austria, which are ruining his wheat trade; the manufacturer rebels against the burden imposed upon him through the accident- and old-age insurance laws, the bureaucratic provisions of which make the larger part of the contributions intended for the benefit of the laborer go to maintain an army of petty administrative officers; the small tradesman and artisan clamor against the ruthless monopoly of Trusts, and demand the restitution of the old-time guilds; and everybody is disgusted with a Government on which it is impossible to place any reliance, a Government which will undo to-morrow what it has done to-day, a Government which is nothing but a tool in the hand of a restless, impetuous, swaggering, and incredibly conceited sovereign.

Is it to be wondered at that, under these circumstances, the only party which is unwilling to make any compromise with the ruling system, which stands unwaveringly by the programme of a radical democracy, should rapidly increase its ranks? Is it, in other words, to be wondered at that the Socialist party is fast developing into the only formidable opposition party, so that the time may be foreseen when the Socialist leaders will at the same time be among the foremost leaders of Parliament?

That the new literature, which is characterized by the names of Sudermann and Hauptmann, is altogether on this side need hardly be stated; but it is interesting to note that the Socialistic quality of this literature has recently found an official confirmation through the Emperor's cancelling his subscription to the Deutsches Theater after the immense success at this theatre of Hauptmann's "Die Weber," while a German adaptation of "Charley's Aunt" was at the same time the object of most enthusiastic praise from the lips of the imperial critic. It is, however, not only in the drama that the Socialistic undercurrent of the time bursts to the surface. The same is the case in the domain of science and religion. Men like Wagner, Paulsen, Naumann, honest and devoted royalists though they be, are nevertheless each in his own way helping to destroy the royalist fiction of the Socialist party as a child-devouring monster; they are helping to bring on the day when the Socialist party will embrace all the liberal elements of the country, when it will have converted itself altogether into a party of peaceful, though radical, reform. That the party has for years been developing in this direction is a fact which only the blindest fanaticism can deny. The time is long past when the Socialist meetings were gatherings of the mob. To-day the Socialist organizations which devote themselves to the elevation of the masses, to the spreading of moral and political enlightenment, to the cultivation of science, literature, music, and other forms of intellectual refinement, are legion. To-day, it is a principle adopted by the rank and file as well as by the leaders of the party, that the only way to combat successfully the ruling system of militarism and officialdom is the peaceful revolutionizing of minds, not a violent convulsion of the social order. And if the present development is allowed to go on unchecked by international conflicts or other complications, we may look forward to the formation of a party resting on the broad masses of the working population and the small trades people, but reaching out into the sphere of the well-to-do burgherdom and yeomanry; and this party will control the majority of the Reichstag. When this moment arrives, the real struggle for civic freedom in Germany will begin.

KUNO FRANCKE.

Correspondence.

MISSIONARY WARS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At a moment when an outpouring of vengeance upon the Chinese for their outrages on missionaries appears to be impending, it may be useful to recall a passage in the Diary of Lord Elgin, who was sent out as the diplomatic representative of England in China at the time of the opium war. On the day on which the passage was written Lord Elgin was lying off Canton, which, with its crowded population, was presently bombarded for twenty-seven hours.

"*December 22nd* [1857].—On the afternoon of the 20th, I got into a gunboat with Commodore Elliot, and went a short way up towards the barrier forts, which were last winter destroyed by the Americans. When we reached this point, all was so quiet that we determined to go on, and we actually steamed past the city of Canton, along the whole front, within pistol-shot of the town. A line of English men-of-war are now anchored there in front of the town. I never felt so ashamed of myself in my life, and Elliot remarked that the trip seemed to have made me sad. There we were, accumulating the means of destruction under the very eyes, and within the reach, of a population of about 1,000,000 people, against whom these means of destruction were to be employed! 'Yes,' I said to Elliot, 'I am sad, because, when I look at that town, I feel that I am earning for myself a place in the Litany immediately after "plague, pestilence, and famine."' I believe, however, that, as far as I am concerned, it was impossible for me to do otherwise than as I have done. I could not have abandoned the demand to enter the city after what happened last winter, without compromising our position in China altogether, and opening the way to calamities even greater than those now before us. I made my demands on Yeh as moderate as I could, so as to give him a chance of accepting, although, if he had accepted, I knew that I should have brought on my head the imprecations both of the navy and army and of the civilians, the time being given by the missionaries and the women." (*Letters and Journals of James, Eighth Earl of Elgin*, edited by Theodore Walrond, p. 212.)

The last words, "the time being given by the missionaries and the women," are especially worthy of notice. In the early days of missionary enterprise the missionary went without wife or child into the lands of the heathen, taking his life in his hand and looking to no government for protection. Now he takes with him his wife and children, and expects the Government of his own country to protect him and them with its cannon, and, if they are maltreated, to avenge them. A missionary unprotected by his government would be under some restraint in dealing with the prejudices of his people.

In demanding the punishment of the guilty at the hands of uncivilized officials, you run great risk of obtaining the punishment of the innocent. I think I have heard of a Turkish Pasha who, being called upon for reparation, took a few heads at random from the nearest village. A Chinese Mandarin is not unlikely to do the same.

The Chinese portions of Lord Elgin's Diary altogether are very wholesome reading for people who are inclined for high-handed dealing with weak and half-civilized peoples.

Yours faithfully, G. S.

Notes.

MR. HENRY C. LEA'S new historical work on 'Confession and Indulgences' is, we believe, now in the printer's hands.

'The Connection of Thought and Memory,' by Herman P. Lukens, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will have ready by Sedan Day, September 1, 'The American in Paris,' by Dr. Eugene Coleman Savage, who deals with the military and diplomatic phases of the Franco-Prussian war.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce 'Some Famous Leaders among Women,' by Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton.

A limited edition of an illustrated work of fresh research on the Chevalier d'Éon will be published in England in October by Tylston & Edwards.

W. M. Rossetti is preparing for publication a volume of poems by his sister Christina, which have not yet seen the light. His oldest daughter is preparing for her aunt's admirers a 'Birthday-Book.'

The British Government has acquired from Lord Bridport some dozens of volumes of Nelson's correspondence. These valuable papers now form part of the treasures of the manuscript department of the British Museum. In due course they will be indexed and made available to historical students. A volume of Nelson's correspondence has also been sent to the Museum by the Admiralty. Over and above the intrinsic value of its contents, this volume is interesting as showing that Nelson kept press copies of some of his letters, to which will be found subscribed the signature "Nelson and Brontë." The medals worn by Nelson at the time of his death have been deposited at Greenwich Hospital.

The value of the Calendars of State Papers from time to time issued by the Public Record Office, London, is highly appreciated by all students. The Calendars of the Colonial series are simply invaluable to students of the colo-

nial period of American history. The deepest concern must be felt by those interested when they learn that, since the lamented death of Mr. Sainsbury, in the early part of this year, no arrangements have been made for continuing the preparation of the Colonial Calendars. The Deputy Keeper of the Records, Mr. Maxwell Lyte, C.B, has put so much heart into his work since he has presided over the Public Record Office, that students will be much surprised should that distinguished official not cause arrangements to be made for the continuance of the work of calendaring the Colonial Papers either by Mr. Sainsbury's former assistant, Mr. Sharpe, or by one of the other members of the highly qualified staff which works under the direction of Mr. Lyte.

M. Léon Ottin, who holds a high rank as a designer and maker of stained glass, and has already written a practical work on the subject of his art, now addresses himself to the cultivated public in 'Le Vitrail,' which is to be at once an historical manual and a guide to the best extant glass of the present day. The book will be carefully illustrated, and will appear in February, 1896 (Paris: Laurens; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer).

Mr. J. H. Hobson has shovelled together a batch of papers upon topics connected with British agriculture, which he publishes under the title 'Coöperative Labor upon the Land' (Scribners). While most of the papers are mere scraps, some are not without importance, and from the whole it is possible to derive a pretty clear impression concerning the future of the rural parts of England. Between 1851 and 1891 the census returns show a decrease in the number of agricultural laborers from 1,253,000 to 781,000. During the last twenty years about 2,000,000 acres of land formerly tilled have been converted into permanent pasture. The two phenomena are, of course, connected with the fall in price of corn and in the scale of rents. The fall in rents, however, is at last having some effect in breaking down the reluctance of the landed interest to grant allotments. This interest has hitherto pretty generally succeeded in neutralizing the measures intended to enable laborers to own small pieces of land, preferring to keep them under control as tenants. But the landlords are not so arrogant as they once were, and, what with reductions and arrears of rent and untenanted farms, they are beginning to feel that they may, after all, do worse than consent to cut up their property into allotments. Some interesting reports of progress in this direction are to be found in Mr. Hobson's volume; but the variety of subjects touched upon is too great for our further notice.

Macmillan & Co. publish a translation of Prof. Ugo Rabbeno's work on 'The American Commercial Policy.' The book consists of three essays: one on the commercial policy of England toward the American colonies, the second on the causes of the commercial policy of the United States, and the third on our theory of protectionism and the historical circumstances of its development. While these lectures doubtless interested those who heard them in Italian, the necessity of translating them is not obvious. American readers have easy access to the materials used by Prof. Rabbeno, and his ground has been well covered by American writers. Nor is it too much to say that the theory of protection developed by the Philadelphian school of economists, which Prof. Rabbeno examines with much gravity, does not require serious consideration.

A handsome quarto comes to us from the Werner Company (Chicago and New York), entitled 'Beautiful Britain: The Scenery and Splendors of the United Kingdom, Royal Residences, Homes of Princes and Noblemen, Palaces, Castles and Houses, Beauties of Mountain, Lake, and River.' This enumeration covers nearly everything depicted, unless it be the Crown jewels in the Tower. There are a number of interiors; but externally the castle, the palace, the seat furnish by far the greater number of the plates, which are excellent full-page half-tones, and are often striking in the extreme. Each plate is faced by letterpress cut to one measure, and hence not to be criticised for falling short. The volume is calculated to give much pleasure and no little information.

A bulky 'Monograph of the Order of Oligochaeta,' by Frank Evers Beddard (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), well exemplifies one of the most pronounced tendencies of modern science. It is a valuable addition to scientific literature; yet, treating only of the order of worms of which the common angle-worm is a familiar example, it will interest few besides the specialist. This order is subdivided into some fourteen families, more than a hundred genera, or more than six hundred species. In the bibliography there are more than six hundred and fifty titles, of which eighty-five are from publications by Mr. Beddard himself. The illustrations on the plates, and the fifty or more in the pages, are taken up mainly with anatomy, which occupies also about one-fifth of the text. Massive as the book is, there are places in the descriptions where it has the appearance of being too much condensed. From this one, an estimate of the probable size of a work on these worms to include those of the great extent of our earth not yet explored is somewhat startling. Everywhere the treatment indicates that this monograph is from the hand of a master. It is certainly a grand achievement.

Knowledge of the Bahamas, as of marine bank- and reef-formations in general, is much enhanced by the publication, in the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, of Alexander Agassiz's 'Reconnoissance of the Bahamas and of the Elevated Reefs of Cuba in the Steam Yacht *Wild Duck*.' It is monographic, especially in what relates to geology and topography. Its pertinence is not limited to the Bahamas, since in treatment of upheavals, coral formations, etc., research is extended to Cuba, other islands of the West Indies, and to various parts of the world. The foundations of the Bahamas are laid in upheaval and folding (volcanic or other) of the primary rocks; the superstructure, in æolian rocks largely made up of coral sands, shell débris, etc., from the waves. A subsidence of about three hundred feet, determined through the "ocean holes," has left only the æolian formations at the surface in the Bahama region. The coral sands were supplied by barrier or fringing reefs in positions not greatly differing from such as are now occupied. In Cuba the evidence from the terraces and elsewhere is found to favor successive upheavals, and the reef deposits are shown to form but a thin veneer. Due attention is paid to the life, marine and terrestrial, by the author, than whom there is no one more competent. There are numerous figures in the text. Fourteen of the forty-six plates are maps with soundings; the remainder are artotypes which give admirable ideas of the topography, rocks, vegetation, and scenery in the different islands.

A 'Narrative and Preliminary Report of the Bahama Expedition,' by C. C. Nutting, in a recent issue of the Bulletin of the University of Iowa Natural History Laboratory, is an outcome of a three-months' voyage, by about twenty students and professors, for marine study and collection, on a 116-ton schooner, from Baltimore to the Bahamas, Cuba, and the Florida Keys. The experience was one of the great events in the lives of its participants, and, as it was very successful, it is likely to serve as a pattern for a number of similar undertakings by others. The whole affair was well managed, it was without serious mishap, and its results must be gratifying indeed to friends of the University. The benefit to the latter is continuous, as will become more obvious with the publication of reports on the large collections now in the hands of specialists. Individual expenses were small, only about $200, and members of the party sold from their shares of the specimens enough to clear this, leaving but the time to be accounted for. Prof. Nutting's narrative is full of interest, contains a great deal of important observation of a value more than temporary, and forms a handbook for subsequent expeditions. We notice that he decides that flying-fish do really fly like birds. The present writer, however, from the same species, in study of their flight, their fins, and their muscles, was driven to conclude that these fishes did not, and could not, strike downward and backward, as birds do, to propel themselves in the air, and that the fluttering occasionally seen was merely a slatting, a temporary lapse in control, perhaps, in a struggle to adjust the parachutes to pressure from new directions.

The head of the Public Library at Brookline, Mass., deserves credit for the admirable shape in which his 'Catalogue of English Prose Fiction' appears. In place of the large, awkward two-column page hitherto universally employed for such work, he has chosen a page of 7¾ by 5¼ inches. This change renders the book portable, and favors the eyes of every reader. The type, also, is clear without the distracting prominence often given to headings, and the paper is excellent. The cataloguer's work is less well done than the printer's. Books are ascribed to the wrong authors, authors' Christian names are omitted or wrong ones are given, pseudonyms are accepted as true names, married women are entered under husbands' names, or twisted so that the first has become last and the last first (or middle), books by the same author are entered under different names, and different editions are treated as different books. The title-page of this Catalogue asserts that "historical works [are] indicated." This is true, however, of only a portion of the books of this class, and the selection of books to be indicated seems to rest on no principle whatever. As regards the quality of the collection, it is interesting to note, in these days when the social influence of novels is so much discussed, that this library keeps in circulation a full line of the trashiest novels in existence.

M. Jean Rozane's 'Maldonne' (Paris: Colin) is an earnest attempt to write a novel in which facts and psychology, love and morality, shall go hand in hand and charm the reader, be he sentimental, artistic, or scientific. The result attained is, as might have been expected, heaviness and dulness.

'Une Évasion—Souvenirs de 1871' (Paris: Colin) is a well-written, brief account of the escape, from a German prison camp, of the late Auguste Burdeau, some time President of the Chamber of Deputies, Minister of Marine, and Minister of Finance. In 1870, while still a student of twenty, he volunteered, went to

the front, rose to be sergeant, distinguished himself, and was finally taken by the enemy. He twice tried to escape, first with three companions—they were all retaken; next, alone—he succeeded. This little book tells the story in a spirited fashion.

'Les Mercredis d'un Critique,' by Philippe Gille (Paris· Calmann Lévy), is the collection in book form of M. Gille's brief newspaper reviews of recent books. It has no great importance, but may be consulted to advantage occasionally.

Few would suspect M. Albin Valabrigue of deliberately writing a serious book on serious subjects, and yet this is just what he has done in 'La Philosophie du Vingtième Siècle' (Paris: Bibliothèque Villiers). In it he discusses some of the very grave questions which men are called upon to face at the present moment, and, if he is neither dull nor slow, he is none the less in earnest. His book well repays reading.

The *Colonial Magazine*, founded this month by Bosworth, Hyde & Hyde, New York, is a presentable monthly which will seek its support chiefly in the membership of the shoal of half-sentimental, half-antiquarian patriotic organizations whose cult is the Revolution. It is illustrated, in the manner of the day, by "process" portrait and views, and seems likely to commend itself to its audience.

The principal feature of the *Geographical Journal* for August is Mr. J. T. Bent's account of his recent exploration of the frankincense country. This is a small strip of the southern coast of Arabia, about sixty miles long by ten wide, well watered, and of course very fertile. There are numerous ruins of ancient towns scattered over it, and the remains of at least one commodious harbor now inaccessible from the sea. The frankincense of commerce is found in three large groves in the mountains which separate the coast territory from the central plateau. Each tree is the property of an individual Beduin owner, who cuts the stem in the early spring, collecting the gum about once a week till the summer rains set in. The gum is sold to Banyan merchants, who export it to Bombay—the annual product being about nine thousand hundredweight. These Beduin are a wild race who live chiefly in caves and under trees, using reed huts only during the rains. They are regarded by the Arabs as heathen, and apparently speak a language peculiar to themselves. A map and several interesting illustrations accompany the paper.

The proposed "Nile Reservoir" is the subject of an interesting paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for August by H. D. Pearsall. He gives a brief, but clear, description of the different plans and the object sought, which is mainly the perennial irrigation of a large part of Upper Egypt. By this means two crops, and on some lands three crops, can be raised each year. This second or summer crop is by far the most valuable, averaging fifty dollars an acre, or three times as much as the flood crop. Should the scheme be carried out in its entirety, the increase in the value of the annual crops is estimated at over sixty million dollars. Mr. Pearsall pertinently asks if some means should not be sought to secure the people at large in the enjoyment of some of the benefits arising from this great increase of the national wealth. Unless this is done, the land-owners, not a half of the population, would alone profit by it, and the laborer's condition remain unchanged. He suggests that some of the surplus revenue to be obtained should be spent in simplifying the system of land tenure and in equalizing, as well as reducing, taxation.

The political meeting called at Thingvalla shortly before the opening of the Icelandic Althing, to discuss various reforms, was not a success. A third of the eighteen districts into which the island is divided sent no representatives, and the result of the discussion may be regarded as practically nil. Unlike their Norwegian cousins, the Icelanders are filled with all the conservatism of an insular folk, and they turn a deaf ear to the blandishing words of a political agitator.

—The most interesting feature of the current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, apart from the account of the newly discovered hymn to Apollo, is M. Homolle's description of a view of Athens and its environs, painted before 1680, which was lately exhumed from a bric-à-brac shop and is now preserved in the Museum of Chartres. There is, practically, no doubt that it was executed by Jacques Carrey, who accompanied the Marquis de Nointel to Athens in 1674, when he visited that city as Ambassador with a numerous retinue. The group of personages in the foreground represents evidently some episode which occurred during this visit. The landscape against which they stand is a view of the Acropolis, the city and the neighboring country, taken with almost photographic fidelity, from the slope of Lycabettus. By the precision of its date, the minuteness and accuracy of its detail, and the merit of its composition, the painting should take the first place among views of Athens of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. M. Pottier throws some definite light on the mooted question how far and how early archaic Greek statuary was influenced by Egyptian models. He concludes that if the influence existed, it did not appear earlier than the second half of the seventh century, and then only in regard to certain details. The feminine type was earlier practised and formed by native Greek artists, and owes hardly anything to Egypt, except, perhaps, the attitude of advancing the left leg. The masculine type, such as the archaic athletes and Apollos, is more decidedly influenced by Egyptian models, especially for the attitude just mentioned. The exact road by which the influence was conveyed is now proved by some alabaster statuettes found at Naucratis, and by some terracotta statuettes of Phœnician workmanship preserved in the Louvre and figured in the *Bulletin*. The Egyptian type of these is obvious at a glance. The Greek artists were therefore guided in two ways—first, by the works of Greek sculptors settled in Egypt, secondly, by imported Phœnician copies and imitations.

—In 'Polyclète,' by Pierre Paris ("Les Artistes Célèbres"—Paris: Librairie de l'Art), we have an admirable example of that art of guessing which constitutes the science of Archæology. There is not a fragment in existence which anybody pretends is from the hand of the contemporary and rival of Phidias, yet archæology undertakes, with the aid of a few ancient texts and a number of statues which may be copies of his works, to reconstruct that sculptor's artistic personality, and to give an idea of his style, his peculiar merits, and his limitations. M. Paris is by no means the most audacious of guessers, and frequently finds himself obliged to protest against the extraordinary conclusions of Furtwängler; yet M. Paris himself can proceed only by conjecture upon conjecture. There is a statue in the Naples museum of a young athlete. Of this M. Paris remarks:

"L'idée de rapprocher cet homme jeune et vigoureux . . . du Doryphore de Polyclète naquit d'abord dans l'esprit de Brunn; l'honneur d'y reconnaître une copie directe du Canon revient à Friedrichs (en 1863). Cette opinion, qui rencontrait encore des contradicteurs en Peterson (1864) et Conze, est acceptée de tout le monde depuis que Friedrichs a fait connaître une intaille du Musée de Berlin où le même personnage, dans la même position et dans le même style, est nettement caractérisé comme un Doryphore."

This is the initial guess, and, in view of the fact that other Greek sculptors than Polycletus have produced statues of Doryphori, it can hardly be called other than a guess, however brilliant or plausible. From this conjecture proceed all the others, for it is in virtue of the idea of Polycletian style formed from this statue, at most an inferior copy, that all further identifications are made. It is accepted as the "canon" in a double sense, and becomes the standard of judgment for all works which one may be tempted to refer to Polycletus.

—Of course it is only in this way that archæology can proceed; and as long as we remember that even the most brilliant conjecture is not proved fact, there is little harm done. M. Paris is fairly cautious, and only one of his conclusions seems to us to approach the danger line. In the "Villa des Pisons" at Herculaneum were found two bronze busts evidently pendants. One, resembling the Doryphorus, is signed; the other, a female head, not. "Si, donc, la tête de Doryphore est bien la copie exacte de la tête du Canon, . . . il est impossible d'admettre que la tête qui lui servait de pendant soit autre chose que la copie de la tête de l'Amazone." Why so? Is it impossible or even improbable that a Roman gentleman should have copies made for him of two favorite heads, whether or not the originals were by the same artist? And is the resemblance of this head to that of the Berlin Amazon sufficiently great to assure us that they are copied from the same original in spite of the entirely different pose? The illustrations given do not show any such identity, and the attribution of the original of the Berlin statue to Polycletus on these grounds seems to us somewhat hazardous. Such of the illustrations as are half-tones from photographs are fairly good. The drawings range from indifferent to downright bad.

—M. Salomon Reinach has published as a separate pamphlet an article of his in the *Revue Archéologique* on 'Epona, la déesse gauloise des chevaux' (Paris: E. Leroux). Engravings of sixty different images of the goddess, twice the number hitherto known to archæologists, are here given, accompanied by notes and maps indicating their original geographical distribution and present repositories. Several of these images, which are all of small size, in terracotta, stone, and bronze, and almost invariably show the figure mounted on the right side of the animal, have been heretofore taken for representations of other female characters (Europa, a bacchante, Isis, Vitellia, a peasant woman, Ceres, Julia Mammæa), or even for a postilion; but M. Reinach unhesitatingly recognizes in them the Celtic goddess. In another series of twelve illustrations, with descriptive text, Epona appears seated or standing between two or four horses or colts, while the group found at Bregenz, on Lake Constanz, represents the deity mounted, with four other horses at her side, thus forming a connecting link between the two. The Greek and Latin

texts which make mention of the humble goddess of the stable, together with thirty-eight inscriptions bearing her name, are collected in a third chapter of the brochure, but unfortunately reveal nothing concerning her effigy or the origin of her cult. In his concluding pages M. Reinach combats with vigor the views of Becker, Lindenschmidt, and Peter, according to whom the figures in question represent not Epona but mounted matrons, good or evil fairies, while Corson's theory, claiming for Epona a place among indigenous Italic and Roman divinities, is still more severely dealt with. Arguing from the geographical distribution of the monuments and inscriptions of Epona, as well as from the exotic form of the name (the *p* and short *o*), M. Reinach considers the Celtic origin of the goddess as incontrovertibly and definitively established.

—The latest pious labor of Mme. Jessie White Mario for the remembrance by a generation that knows them not of the Italian revolutionists, disciples of Mazzini and comrades of Garibaldi, is her 'In Memoria di Giovanni Nicotera' (Florence: Barbèra). This duodecimo volume of less than 300 closely packed pages is, though a loving tribute from an intimate friend and correspondent, not a mere eulogy; and it deals so much with the general history of the peninsula from the founding of Young Italy to the present moment that any one can read it with profit apart from the judgment he may form of the immediate subject. As a political prisoner of the Bourbons, Nicotera experienced in Sicily inhumanities as incredible as are the authentic accounts of the degraded habitations of the poor of Naples, which Mme. Mario has done so much to make public. He survived to become an Italian Deputy for thirty-five years of a life of sixty-six, and twice Minister of the Interior, when he stamped out brigandage. He proved less radical in office than out, was a firm believer in parliamentary government by party, and hence mistrusted coalition ministries, yet showed independence and patriotism in voting with men of other parties, and, on the whole, appears in these pages to advantage in comparison with Crispi, from whom he became detached when the latter, with Zanardelli, entered the Depretis ministry. Mme. Mario quotes at length from his always forcible speeches as well as from those of his contemporaries.

—In 1879, dissatisfaction with the Italian Senate led to an agitation for a reconstitution of that body by popular election, Nicotera made a stand against it, advancing arguments of much weight, applicable to a similar movement in this country. In the course of his speech he had occasion to compare the American Senate with that of Italy, and in so doing revealed a degree of ignorance unpardonable in a statesman of his rank, if, on the other hand, natural in a country whose press habitually used the rubric *America* for news from *South* America. Nicotera gravely assumed that, as a means of enforcing his veto, the President of the United States had the power to renew the Senate by one-third—of course selecting men favorable to his policy! The genesis of this confusion may, perhaps, be sought in the constitutional provision for a two-thirds vote overriding the veto; but also at bottom there lay the misconception of our Executive as governing in the same sense as do the European ministries modelled after the British system. In the San Domingo business, what would not Grant have given for the power to alter the complexion of the Senate as of his Cabinet!

—Among the contemporary historical writers of Italy few, if any, surpass Senator Luigi Chiala in those qualities which constitute a first-rate editor. His introduction and notes to Cavour's Correspondence were full of information which becomes more and more valuable as the generation which knew Cavour disappears. Senator Chiala has recently published a monograph on one of the most exciting episodes of the latter part of Cavour's life: it is entitled 'Politica Segreta di Napoleone III. e di Cavour in Italia e in Ungheria, 1858–1861' (Turin: Roux). It relates in straightforward style the intrigues which Cavour, and subsequently Napoleon III., carried on with Kossuth prior to the war of 1859, with a view to provoking a revolution in Hungary that would draw off Austrian troops from northern Italy. Kossuth was wary, and, although eager to close a bargain by which he hoped to recover the independence of Hungary, he refused to give the word until France and Piedmont should furnish a sufficiently large contingent. To one who imagines that diplomacy is necessarily a competition in deceit, this record of Cavour's perfect frankness may be a surprise. Before the outbreak of the war of 1859, he was too much hampered by his engagements with Napoleon to have the right to act independently; afterwards, while encouraging the Magyars to the fullest extent in words, he found no moment when he would have been justified in making a formal offensive and defensive alliance with them. "We aim at the liberation of Italy; you hope to emancipate Hungary; we have a common enemy, but I have not the right to jeopard Italy for Hungary, nor you to sacrifice the Magyars for us." This was, in substance, Cavour's policy with Kossuth. Several times the opportunity for a league seemed at hand, but it never came. Kossuth's part in these negotiations was made public fifteen years ago, in his 'Memories of My Exile.' Senator Chiala supplements Kossuth by presenting from Cavour's edited letters and from other sources the Italian and French versions of the episode, and he has thus made a consecutive story full of interest and illustrating an important side-current of modern history.

VERRALL'S EURIPIDES.

Euripides, the Rationalist: A Study in Art and Religion. By A. W. Verrall. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

THE main title of Dr. Verrall's new book is quite unworthy of his genius. 'Euripides, the Rationalist,' is entirely too commonplace. "Euripides, the Pietist," would have been a theme in which he might have unfolded to greater advantage his rare powers of combination, whereas to show that Euripides was not a "believer" is simply to follow the orthodox view. However, Dr. Verrall may be trusted to treat any subject he takes in hand after a fashion of his own. It is a bright fashion, an ingenious fashion, but somehow it does not abide, it does not convince. There, for instance, are his 'Studies in the Odes of Horace,' in which he evolved marvellous things out of the "operose lays" of the "Matinian bee." Said Matinian bee, if Hartman and Tyrrell are half right, was more concerned about the shape of his cells than about the flavor of his honey, and is not to be suspected of wilfully infusing Italian wild thyme into the nectar which he gathered largely from Greek originals. But there are undoubted allusions in Horace to contemporary history, and Quintilian enlarges on one of his allegories. Now, as so much has been done for Pindar by subtle combination, and as we know a great deal more about the times of Horace than we do about the times of Pindar, why not enter in and possess this land with historical cobwebs? Why be satisfied with such well-worn parallels as Cleopatra and Helen? Why not penetrate into the meshes of the great conspiracy of Murena? So here. It is evident enough that Euripides did not believe in the gods, nay, that he died an infidel. If he had not died an infidel, Aristophanes might have been more merciful to him in the "Frogs"; and as to the "Bacchæ," which Dr. Sandys calls an *Eirenicon*, why, it is easy enough to show that it is a deliberate persiflage. Teiresias, the seer, clearly represents the poet himself, and when Teiresias gives his adhesion to the new cult, he figures as a materialist under thin disguise. The new gospel is a gospel of Something to Eat, Demeter, and Something to Drink, Dionysus. Behind the outward conformity we see the Sage of Ferney with his tongue in his cheek. Teiresias is simply a more refined Cyclops.

"Wealth, wealth, my manikin, is the wise man's God!"

It is an old story, and nobody cares to deny the thesis in its general terms. Rationalism itself was an old story in Greece, and if it had not been for the religious revival brought about by the Persian war, quite comparable with the religious revival brought about by the Franco-Prussian war, Euripides would not have had any "mission." A century before Euripides, in his dreadful "Andromache," was making mock of the traditional Apollo, Xenophanes was outspoken in his condemnation of the behavior of the Greek Pantheon as represented by hieratic Hesiod as well as by secular Homer, of whom nothing better could have been expected. Pindar refused to accept anything that was dishonoring to the gods, and treated Homer very much as the freethinkers of the last century treated the Old Testament. Æschylus shows plainly enough the doubts that stir his heart, and his justification of the ways of God to man did not bring him peace. Sophocles, good, easy man, was an office-bearer in Church and State, and observed the proprieties. But who, from the modern point of view, could be more "blasphemous" than Aristophanes? His treatment of the gods is simply "scandalous," and has called forth long dissertations in every European language from scholars who have tried to explain how Aristophanes could be a church-member in good and regular standing and yet assign to Hermes the menial office of washing tripe. True, in modern times Bible and catechism have been accommodated to every form of belief and unbelief, but it is hard for us to imagine so plastic an embodiment of religious notions as we find in the mythology of Greece.

In fact, if we examine closely, we shall find ourselves asking, Where was faith found in the fifth century? The reserve of Thucydides is a commonplace; but Herodotus, who is held up to us as the model of a believer, was a believer because faith suited his style, and, like his friend Sophocles and like many another man, he simply abode in the creed to which he was born. True, all this scepticism was not inconsistent with superstition any more than scepticism is inconsistent with superstition to-day, nor was it inconsistent with a practical con-

servatism in religious matters, which is perfectly comprehensible from a study of the Constitution of the Athenian State. But Dr. Verrall thinks that we have unconsciously taken up the Renaissance view of the Greek Pantheon; that we do not understand how serious the Athenians were about their "gods"; that we do not understand that Euripides's infidelity had reached an acute stage; that he deemed it to be his mission to expose the fraud of Greek religion, and that his dramas were constructed to sap and mine the absurdities and inconsistencies of popular belief. One cannot help asking how the poet could have got a chorus, for it is not to be supposed that the officials were less clever than the average Athenian; and although the average Athenian may not have taken all the points that Dr. Verrall has discovered, the Tom Paine attitude of Euripides in the handling of the myths would have been too great a scandal to be tolerated in a religious performance such as was the Greek tragedy. It is very much to be feared that the deep-laid design was too deep-laid even for the quick-witted Athenian. Certain it is that this most unbelieving of the poets imposed his mischievous versions of the myths on the plastic and ceramic artists of after-times. Ennius, who translated and transfused Euripides for the Romans, was also an unbeliever of the most uncompromising type, and wrote rationalistic essays after the Greek; but the impiety in Ennius, as in Euripides, was what may be called dramatic impiety, and not dramaturgic impiety, and affected only the sentiments put in the mouths of the various characters.

But what Dr. Verrall insists on is the dramaturgic rationalism, or, in other words, the presentation of the story so as to bring discredit on the traditional gods. His contention is that, viewed from any other point, the dramas of Euripides are open to all the objections raised against them by modern critics, and that it is impossible to see in Euripides anything but the "botcher" Mr. Swinburne has made him out to be. But, regarded as a cunningly contrived wheelwork for the pulverization of Greek religion and Greek tradition, the dramaturgy of Euripides, according to Dr. Verrall, deserves the highest admiration as an artistic achievement, and his popularity with the "advanced" Athenians is readily understood. These advanced Athenians were, it seems, not so slow to take a hint as are the fat-witted countrymen of George Meredith, whom Dr. Verrall repeatedly cites as a kindred master in the art of implication. In short, Euripides is that dreadful character known as a quiz, and from that day to this he has lacked an interpreter. Vase-painters and sculptors were deceived by him; translators and adapters of his plays failed to understand him; the great scholars, from the Renaissance downwards, with whom he was a prime favorite, were blind to his real significance; and the Grecians of this century, who have been made aware of the divergence of his ways from those of Æschylus and Sophocles, and who have not the key to the unhallowed delights of Euripidean mockery, decline to read him because they do not enjoy him. How many new friends Dr. Verrall will gain for his Euripides remains to be seen. Possibly some of the slow creatures for whom he has so little regard may suspect Dr. Verrall himself of mystification; but there is a passage at the close of the book which ought to dispel all doubt—a passage in which he reiterates his views with a solemnity that is hardly to be confounded with the pious utterances of Euripides's sham pillars of the church. "Euripides's stories," he says, with all the emphasis of italics, "*assume that 'the gods' do not exist;* and unless we are alive to this, unless we keep it *always* before us, the best of Euripides, the essence of Euripides, must be sealed up from us." Without this key, "all is confusion, vexation, waste of spirits and time. Euripides was a soldier of rationalism after the fashion of his times, a resolute, *consistent* enemy of anthropomorphism, a hater of embodied mystery, a man who, after his measure and the measure of his time, stood up to answer the Sphinx"—the Sphinx being, as Dr. Verrall explains elsewhere, "the spirit of mystery and darkness."

It would be impossible in any reasonable space to follow Dr. Verrall's exposition of his thesis as applied to the Euripidean plays that are discussed in this volume, and it must suffice to summarize the main results. The "Alcestis," according to Dr. Verrall, was intended to set forth the falsity of a resurrection from the dead, and Euripides's treatment of the theme is flippantly compared with an imaginary play, "The Shunamite, by Prof. T—— H——." Euripides asked himself the question of Job, "If a man die shall he live again?" and in mockery of an affirmative answer he gives an account of the recall of Alcestis from the lower world, which to the discerning Athenian public reveals the absurdity of the sham miracle. In the "Ion" the action of the play proceeds on the assumption that there is no Apollo, and that the oracle is a fraud. But with this view of the "Ion" the public has already been made familiar by Dr. Verrall's translation, published in 1890. The "Iphigenia among the Taurians," it is true, is "one of the few plays of Euripides which are explicable on the current hypothesis; is one of the few, the same few, which are loved and studied, known and admired for their own sake, and apart from the collateral interests of Hellenistic philology and archæology," and yet "the deepest part, the real substantial *tragic* foundation, is cut away. Orestes and Pylades are sacrificed to the relentless cruelty of a religion in danger." "The resolute faith and the invincible love of the two friends are *wasted*." Upon this follows a chapter headed "Euripides in a Hymn" (I. T. 1234 foll.), in which Dr. Verrall undertakes to prove that Euripides's object in this brilliant ode is to show up the mercenary character of the Delphic oracle; and in the "Last Scene of All," the close of the "Phœnissæ" is explained as the composition of an admirer of Euripides, who thanks Sophocles covertly for his tribute to his dead rival, and praises Euripides under the guise of Œdipus for his quelling of the Sphinx.

There has been, as every one knows, a return to Euripides, and scholars no longer find it necessary to admire under protest the brilliancy of his dialogue, the haunting charm of his lyrics, the swing of his descriptions, the truth of his pathos, his close sympathy with every throb of human heart or human brain. Even the economy of his plays has found more indulgent criticism, and in criticism indulgence and intelligence go oftener hand in hand than is commonly supposed. Much, it must be said too much, allowance has been made for the rehandling of the original poems, for the botcher who interpolates, the botcher who excises, the botcher who tacks on. Slowly, for it is slow work, we are approaching a juster estimate of Euripides than was possible for those who read but to praise and those who read but to pick flaws. A faultless dramaturgist he was not. Who is? The detection of inconsistencies, comparatively so easy in the closet, is absolutely impossible for the average spectator, even putting the average so high as it was in the Athenian theatre. The average spectator does not pull out his watch and say with Dr. Verrall, "Why, she has been dead only five minutes!" But, instead of looking upon negligence as negligence, instead of admitting such a thing as negligible quantities in a work of art, Dr. Verrall considers every incongruity as part of a deep design in the mind of the poet. Of course, he is far too clever to suppose that the Athenian intellect in the crowded theatre was quite so alert as his own intellect in the still air of Trinity College, and so he imagines the spectators as gradually evolving in conversation after the play the hidden meaning of Euripides's innuendoes, very much as the Hamburgers formed clubs of four in order to understand one joke of Rivarol's. Dr. Verrall is himself equal to a dozen such clubs, and under his manipulation the evidences of elaborate mystification increase and multiply.

'Euripides, the Rationalist,' is very acute, very clever, though it must be confessed that in the long run it is wearisome by its excess of sparkle. On the spider-webs of the German Athena who does most of this kind of spinning, we seldom find so many glittering dewdrops, for in the land of erudition to be "geistreich" is little short of a philological crime. However, we will not hold Dr. Verrall to too strict an account for being interesting; and yet it may be well to remember that acumen, ingenuity, cleverness of presentation, and power of combination are no guarantee of an abiding result. In fact, "the power of combination" is a very much overrated "power." The ancient Sophists did a great deal in the way of combination simply for intellectual fun, and those who are familiar with the history of literary criticism will readily recall many brilliant theories that have passed into the domain of curiosities. And so, while admitting freely all the seductiveness and suggestiveness of Dr. Verrall's book, one cannot suppress the thought that, the world being as dull as it is, there is little likelihood that the Euripides whom we are trying to know now will be definitively replaced by Dr. Verrall's 'Euripides, the Rationalist,' with his nihilistic network of torpedoes which have remained unexploded until the year of grace 1895.

MEMOIRS OF AN IRISH JUDGE.

Memories and Thoughts of a Life. By William O'Connor Morris. London: George Allen. 1895. 8vo, pp. viii, 402.

Judge William O'Connor Morris was born in the city of Kilkenny in 1824. His father, a minister of the late Established Church, was of "the English in Ireland," sprung from a race of Staffordshire freeholders who emigrated to Ireland in the reign of Charles I., had become merchants of good position in Waterford in the time of Queen Anne, and subsequently settled on the land as country squires. Judge Morris's mother belonged to the clan of the O'Connors of Offaly, who for three centuries were great princes, but in the seventeenth century had been nearly extirpated and their lands forfeited. Her great grandfather left Ireland to seek his fortunes in England, where he conformed to the Protestant faith in order to become a member of the English bar, and acquired enough wealth to enable him to buy back a portion of the old Irish estates of his ancestors.

Judge Morris takes pride in his ancestry and

in his connection, through the marriages of the O'Connors, with the great Catholic families of Ireland, concerning whose vicissitudes and romantic fortunes he relates a number of interesting anecdotes. Many of those with whom he can claim kinship turned Protestants, as the only means of making their way in the world, and became prominent members of the Irish bench and bar. He mentions especially Anthony Malone, "who was one of the great Irishmen of the first half of the eighteenth century, . . . and became Chancellor of the Exchequer in the Irish Parliament." Another was Edmund Malone, the editor of Shakspere. Of those who clung to their ancient faith, and were forced to find a career in the armies of the Continent, he names Field Marshal Nugent of the Austrian Army, who "was a colonel on the field of Austerlitz, distinguished himself greatly in 1813-14, was Radetzky's most trusted companion in arms in the memorable campaign of 1848, and rode by the side of his master, Francis Joseph, near Solferino, when in his nineteenth year. In the Ireland of his youth he would have simply been a pariah of somewhat high degree."

Morris and his younger brother received their education at home until the former was ten years old, and he says that by that time they "had had governesses and tutors enough to force the brains of children into precocious growth. Those were the days of hard training for the youthful frame and of hard teaching for the boyish mind; and I well recollect how I was boxed and cuffed if I missed a word in a page of Johnson—a lesson I was supposed to know by heart." In compliance with the custom and policy of the dominant race in Ireland, he was sent to England to be educated, and in his twelfth year was placed in a private seminary at Epsom, where there were about thirty boys, five sixths of them Irish. He remained there for about four years, on which he does not look back with satisfaction, and was then sent to a private tutor in South Wales to be prepared for Oxford, and went into residence at Oriel College in 1843. He had, before that, competed for a scholarship at Trinity, which was, however, awarded to Edward Freeman. Of his fellow-students at Oriel he mentions Tom Hughes as the one who became most famous. Bryce and Goschen were of a later generation of undergraduates. Newman was a Fellow of Oriel at that time. Among the younger Fellows were Arthur Clough and Church, who became Dean of St. Paul's. In 1844 Morris was elected to a scholarship. He speaks in terms of the warmest affection and eulogy of Oxford as it was before the days of educational reform. "The education of Oxford," he says, "was admirable. I have met no system that can be compared with it." And, elsewhere: "The old Oxford method, indeed, can, I think, be traced in Parliament, in the pulpit, and at the bar without difficulty by those accustomed to it; it was seen in the highest perfection in Newman's logic, in the subtle and persuasive tongue-fence of Gladstone, in the arguments of Bethell and Roundell Palmer, always cogent, well-informed, and complete." He developed an early turn for writing, and relates that his college tutor, Fraser, afterwards a bishop, ridiculed his style as "turgid" and "Celtic," and said to him, "You will be just fit to write for the *Edinburgh Review* and the *Times*, and you will never understand what pure English is." To which our author adds: "I do not know if the last remark is correct; the first, certainly, has been amply verified." Among Oxford undergraduates of his time, but of other colleges, were Conington, the translator of the 'Aeneid'; Matthew Arnold, Goldwin Smith, and Coleridge, late Lord Chief-Justice.

Morris had made up his mind to go to the Irish bar, but in consequence of the Irish famine the poverty of the gentry was such that for nearly three years after taking his degree at Oxford, he was unable to scrape together the £100 required as the fees of a law student. He devoted the interval to continuing and enlarging his Oxford studies, giving many months to Plato, reading Adam Smith and John Stuart Mill, studying Irish history, and performing the duties of an (unpaid) justice of the peace, having been appointed a magistrate by Lord Rosse, the constructor of the well-known telescope, and the Lieutenant of the Kings County. It was at this time, also, that he made his first literary attempts, contributing to the *Dublin University Magazine* papers on the Greek dramatists and on other subjects, writing for the Dublin *Evening Packet*, and publishing a pamphlet on the Irish land question. During one of his visits to his grand aunt, Lady Clanricarde, in Dublin, he witnessed the "enthusiastic and passionate acclaim which everywhere greeted" Queen Victoria and Prince Albert. "I took no part in the Castle festivities," he adds; "a Court dress was far beyond my means."

At last his name was entered at the King's Inns in Dublin, where he studied for eighteen months, going thence in 1852 to Lincoln's Inn in London for the purpose of eating his dinners for the bar for ten months, as was required of Irish students in those days. Among the lectures he attended were those of Henry Sumner Maine, who was reader in jurisprudence and Roman law. In 1854 he was called to the Irish bar, and was in the practice of the profession for nearly twenty years.

About eight years after his call to the bar he was "elected one of the professors at the King's Inns who lecture law-students in part of the Common and the Criminal Law. These offices had been founded by the Irish Benchers before the English had appointed their readers." The appointment is held for three years. In 1863 he was appointed the legal member of the Salmon-Fishery Commission. He had married in 1858, and had opened the door to his literary career by writing a paper on "The Land System of Ireland" in the 'Oxford Essays' of 1856, through which he made the acquaintance of Henry Reeve, the editor of the *Edinburgh Review*, also known as the translator of De Tocqueville and as the editor of the Greville Memoirs. Judge Morris has been a contributor to the *Edinburgh* for nearly forty years, writing in that time some forty essays, mostly on military subjects and in review of French works in biography and history, and has written for many other periodicals. His connection with the London *Times* began in 1857 and terminated with the death of Mr. Delane, its editor, in 1879. By degrees he became one of its principal writers of book-reviews, mostly on History and the History of War. He contributed to it a series of articles on the correspondence of Napoleon and on the supplementary despatches of Wellington. Some of his reviews extended to eight and ten columns; one, on the evidence in the trial of Bazaine, occupied about fifteen columns. Of late he has written a good deal for the London *Academy*. In the spring of 1869 he was asked to write a series of letters on the Irish land question for the *Times*, and made a three months' tour of Ireland for the purpose of studying the problem on the spot. He records that he had no instructions from Mr. Delane and Mr. Walter except to ascertain and set forth the truth. The letters were republished in a volume. He is the author of several other books, namely, 'Great Commanders of Modern Times' (1891); a sketch of the French revolutionary period, intended to be one of the "Epochs of History" series; a Life of Napoleon, in the "Heroes Series"; a study of Moltke; a brief account of the war of 1870-1, reprinted from the *Times*.

In 1872 he was appointed County Court Judge of Louth. "The office of County Court Judge in Ireland," he says, "is of much older origin than it is in England, of greater importance, of higher dignity. The judges have a large jurisdiction, unrestricted by modern statutes, in cases of crime, not possessed by their fellows in England. Their civil jurisdiction, too, is far more ample." But the main distinction is that in England they may be dismissed by the Lord Chancellor, while in Ireland they are removable only by a vote of Parliament. In 1878 he was transferred from Louth to Kerry, where he served for eight years and found his duties very laborious and disagreeable, owing to the disturbances caused by the Land League. At his own request he was transferred to the Counties of Roscommon and Sligo, where he still presides.

Judge Morris's life, it will be seen, has not been an eventful one, but that of a man useful in his generation and ambitious to be of service to his fellows. His book abounds in interesting pictures of a peculiar state of society, constantly undergoing radical changes, and in lifelike sketches of Irish lawyers and judges. By far the greater portion of it is taken up with the Irish question, which, in all its varied forms and phases, seems constantly to occupy his "Memories and Thoughts" and comes up in connection with every topic he touches. He throws a side light on its social aspects when he says that, as he belonged to a Liberal Protestant family and had a number of Catholic kinsfolk, the distinction which divides Irish social life was not observed in his case, and adds: "Yet I found myself often to be the only Protestant in an assembly wholly composed of Catholics. I seldom saw a Catholic under a Protestant roof." He also mentions the fact that up to 1792 no Irish Catholic could openly become a member of the bar. Although a Liberal, he is a decided Unionist and an uncompromising opponent of home rule. Although a Protestant, he condemns the late Established Church, and extols the Catholic Church as "a great living fact," saying that its growth "during the last half century has been a wonderful spectacle." Although a land-owner, he denounces as iniquitous "a mode of land tenure, precarious in itself, which gave a landlord facilities to appropriate a tenant's improvements." He censures the Land Act of 1881, and proposes a plan of his own. He thinks "the tenant should be given a perpetual and definite estate in the land, and that the landlord should possess a perpetual rent." He has also his own plans for political measures to allay discontent. They could not fairly be set forth in the space at our command, and would meet with disapproval in both the hostile camps. But, whatever may be thought of his opinions, it is evident that they are the fruit of much serious study and reflection. Undoubtedly instructive are Judge Morris's descriptions and history of the various movements that have agitated Ireland during the past half century, and of the events that led to them. He devotes separate chapters to the Irish Famine, the Land League, the National League,

Irish Local Government, etc. No one can doubt his patriotism or his sincere desire to arrive at the actual truth; and no one will deny him the right to use the motto from Montaigne which he places on his title-page: "Ce livre est de bonne foi."

Demon-possession and Allied Themes; being an inductive study of phenomena of our own times. By Rev. John L. Nevius, D.D., for forty years a missionary to the Chinese. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1894.

How the belief in demoniacal possession (which is one of the most articulately expressed doctrines of both Testaments, and which reigned for seventeen hundred years, hardly challenged, in all the churches) should have become the utterly dead letter which it now is in Christian countries, is an interesting historical question on which the present reviewer is unable to cast light. Its decay is far less intelligible than the decay of the belief in witchcraft, which Mr. Lecky has so vividly attributed to an unreasoned alteration of the intellectual fashions of the age, for most of the old witchcraft-accusations rested on direct demon-testimony, and the phenomenon which announces itself as demon-possession has never ceased since men were men, and is probably as frequent at the present day in New York and Boston as it ever has been at any time and place in history. It follows at all times the local and temporal fashions and traditions, and, from causes which, once more, would form a highly interesting problem to unravel, it has with us assumed a benign and optimistic, instead of a diabolical and hurtful form, constituting what is familiarly known to-day as *mediumship*. It differs from all the classic types of insanity. Its attacks are periodic and brief, usually not lasting more than an hour or two, and the patient is entirely well between them, and retains no memory of them when they are over. During them, he speaks in an altered voice and manner, names himself differently, and describes his natural self in the third person as he would a stranger. The new impersonation offers every variety of completeness and energy, from the rudimentary form of unintelligible automatic scribbling, to the strongest convulsions with blasphemous outcries, or the most fluent "inspirational" speech. Imitation is a great determining factor, and suggestions from the bystanders are readily adopted and acted out. Exorcisms of various sorts often succeed in abolishing the condition, and the possessing spirit often makes treaties and compacts with the bystanders and carries them faithfully out. The condition may become epidemic, as in our own "developing circles," or in those Alpine villages whose "hysterо-demonopathy" has recently been so well described by the French and Italian medical officials Constans, Chiap, and Franzolini; but more often it is sporadic and individual. At any rate it is a perfectly distinct and it may be a perfectly spontaneous "morbid entity" (as a Frenchman would say), or natural type of disease, and its essential characters seem to have been quite constant in every age and clime.

Of its causes, apart from suggestion and imitation, absolutely nothing definite is known, the psychical-researchers being the only persons who at present seem to believe that it offers a serious problem for investigation. The Charcot school has assimilated it to hysteria major, with which it unquestionably has generic affinities, but just why its specific peculiarities are what they are, this school leaves unexplained. The name hysteria, it must be remembered, is not an explanation of anything, but merely the title of a new set of problems. The tendency to prophesy, to profess to reveal remote facts, to make diagnoses and heal diseases, are among the commonest features of the demonopathic state.

Dr. Nevius is vouched for by the two editors of the book before us (he having died before its publication) as a singularly learned, versatile, and accurate man. His volume contains, in addition to a large amount of comparative natural history of the subject and a mass of bibliography, a number of interesting first-hand observations made in China. As in the Grecian oracles, in India, Japan, Polynesia, and elsewhere, the possessed person is in China prone to speak in the name of a god. This god often demands a shrine, worship, incense, food, and burnt-offerings from the household, and throws the patient into convulsions if these are withheld. Sometimes, again, a departed relative or other human being announces itself as the possessing spirit, but we seem not to hear in China of fox-demons as we hear of them in Japan. Dr. Nevius's book contains a great variety of cases, of which we have not space to extract a specimen. They are collected by missionaries or native Christian converts, and the remarkable thing about them is the almost invariable efficacy of Christian rites and invocations in setting the possessed person free. In China the name of Christ would seem to have even greater power to drive out demons than it had in Europe in the ages of faith.

One case related by the author has a curious analogy to one of the New Testament miracles. Two women of a Chinese village having been dispossessed by Christian services,

> "an extraordinary commotion occurred among the fowls, . . . who after a while cowered up in a corner of the yard in a state of fright. The swine also belonging to the family . . . were put into a singular state of agitation, rushing about the enclosure, running over each other, and trying to scramble up the walls. The swine would not eat, and this state of disquiet continued until they were exhausted. These manifestations naturally excited a great deal of interest and remark, and were accounted for by the supposition that the demons had taken possession of the fowls and swine" (p. 406).

It is but just to say that this particular account is at second hand, the witnesses being a Chinese family of converts. Such as it is, Dr. Nevius's book is one of the best contributions to the natural history of the subject, and a stepping-stone towards that not yet existing book which some day will treat this class of phenomena in a thoroughly objective and unprejudiced way, bringing it into comparison with all the other features of the "subliminal" life of which it is one modification.

Major James Rennell and the Rise of Modern English Geography. By Clements R. Markham. Macmillan & Co. 1895. [The Century Science Series.] 8vo, pp. 232.

It is a singular fact that Great Britain, with possessions in every part of the world, should have produced so few geographers. She has sent out a host of distinguished explorers who have added vastly to our knowledge of the earth, but the task of constructing "the mother of all the sciences" has been left mainly to Continental scholars. Had not the subject of this biography been incapacitated early in life from active service, it is not impossible that England might have had to wait another half-century for a great scientific geographer. The story of Major Rennell's uneventful career is quickly told. He was born in 1742 and enlisted in the navy as a midshipman at the age of thirteen. In 1763 he entered the service of the East India Company and was made Surveyor-General of Bengal. Badly wounded in a fight with the natives in 1766 (not 1776, as Mr. Markham incorrectly states), his constitution was permanently injured. This and his arduous labors in connection with his field survey compelled his retirement in 1777. The remainder of his life was spent in London, where he won for himself by his maps and his writings the place of "leading geographer in England, if not in Europe, for a period of fifty years." He died in 1830 and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Major Rennell had this immense advantage over many other great geographers, D'Anville and Ritter, for instance, that he had been a surveyor, both afloat and ashore, before he devoted himself to the study of geography as a science. Much of his work, therefore, has a value beyond that of a mere contribution to knowledge. His investigations of the Atlantic currents, for example, by which he became the "father of oceanography," distinctly diminished the perils of navigation. It was he, it may be added, who first conceived of the Gulf Stream as "an immense river descending from a higher level into a plain." His first important published work was a 'Memoir of a Map of Hindustan,' which passed quickly to a second and third edition by 1793, and gained for him the Copley Medal of the Royal Society. Following this was his 'Geography of Herodotus,' which, together with the 'Illustrations' of the Anabasis, was part of a contemplated great work on the 'Comparative Geography of Western Asia,' for which he gathered all the materials, but which he did not live to complete. In addition to these and other books, he contributed papers to learned societies besides aiding the various exploring expeditions of his day. He was especially interested in Mungo Park's travels, and he prepared the map which accompanied Park's account of them.

It is hardly necessary to say that no one is so well fitted as Mr. Markham to be Major Rennell's biographer. He is in full sympathy with the latter's pursuits, and has the requisite knowledge to enable him to put a just estimate on what he accomplished. In fact, the book is more than a biography; it is a condensed history of geography, with sketches of distinguished geographers from Strabo down to Sir Henry Rawlinson. His abundant knowledge, indeed, leads Mr. Markham to be needlessly exact in minute, especially genealogical, details. Occasionally he errs in taste, as, for instance, when, mentioning by name some relatives of Mrs. Rennell's, he says, "the ——s lived in a very expensive style, and Mr. —— drove a four-in-hand, so that when he died, in 1790, he left his property much embarrassed." Apart from these petty blemishes, he has produced a valuable book, and one as interesting as the nature of the subject would permit. A useful index is appended, but we miss, what would have been even more desirable, a chronological list of Major Rennell's works.

Mental Development in the Child and the Race: Methods and Processes. By James Mark Baldwin, M.A., Ph.D., Stuart Professor of Psychology in Princeton University. With 17 figures and 10 tables. Macmillan. 1895. Pp. xvi, 496.

It is not to be concealed that this book is not well written. The author himself makes no

effort to do so—he recognizes it rather with a charming frankness. He speaks of the conflicting aims he had in writing it, of his inability to hit upon an arrangement of his material that would satisfy him, of the "need of a patient reader before the page." In spite of liberal warnings in the preface, and of statements of the problem and of what the several chapters contain, the perplexed reader about the three-hundredth page is inclined to throw the book aside, or to wish, when he finds the scattered threads at last being drawn together, that it had been written just backwards. The pages are too full, too well-fed. There *is* a central problem, a main discussion, but it lies so imbedded in remarks and considerations by the way that one is perpetually losing sight of it. Prof. Baldwin is essentially an inquirer at first hand, and he carries his method over into his exposition; he begins with his apparatus, he keeps one in suspense, he determines his shortcomings, he goes into side issues, he shows one his uncompleted work. With the best intentions in the world he is bewildering. And his sentences at times are as puzzling as his order of exposition. And yet, when one has vented one's spleen, one's abiding impression of the book is very favorable. Its pages breathe something of the intimacy, the frankness, the personal charm of a clever investigator's note-book. The fragmentary state of some of the experiments, the loose threads and ragged ends, give one the not unpleasant sense of being admitted behind the scenes, of seeing science in undress—in the making. And the substance of it all—of the experiments and discussions themselves—is capital.

'Mental Development: Methods and Processes' is a preliminary volume to be followed under the same general head by a companion sub-entitled 'Interpretations: Educational, Social, and Ethical.' Prof. Baldwin regards it as the fundamental weakness of current sociology that there exists no theory of the *socius*. It is this deficiency which his projected volume will endeavor to supply. The present one, leading up to it, yet possessing an independent value, deals with the evolution in the individual of conduct adapted to environment and of voluntary self-control. The hypothesis which has hitherto obtained the widest acceptance is best known in the form Prof. Bain gave it in his 'Emotions and the Will.' Granted, it says (what seems to be the observable fact), that the earliest movements of the new-born individual are quite at random, and that activity which results in pleasure tends to be continued and that which results in pain to be stopped, it may be shown according to mere natural selection how there would arise in the lapse of time habits of pursuing pleasure and avoiding pain, and a connection more or less complete between pleasurability and wholesomeness, pain and harm. This hypothesis, so far as it goes, Prof. Baldwin accepts, but it goes nothing like the whole way.

(1.) It proceeds as if all pleasures and pains came to the organism originally as effects of (random) movement on its part—which is in the majority of instances quite the opposite of the truth—"turns the case completely over," as Prof. Baldwin says, "and stands it on its head." It is the environment (including the living creatures that in part constitute it) that commonly takes the initiative, brings to bear on the organism some fresh stimulus of pleasure or pain—it is to this in the main, if not exclusively, that the "random movements," when they exist, are due.

(2.) It proceeds as if the organism were entirely dependent on the environment for the repetition of an agreeable stimulus; whereas the fact is, that the organism possesses the power of *Imitation* (Prof. Baldwin calls it), of taking a hint, of eking out the gaps in a defective environment and securing the repetition of a desirable stimulus by efforts of its own.

These two positions Prof. Baldwin argues with much point, in detail. Of their importance as completions of the Spencer-Bain theory of development, there can hardly be dispute. But whether the second of them is as distinctly an addition to that theory as is the first—whether *Imitation* is an independent factor in the result—is something more doubtful. Adherents of the Spencer-Bain theory have commonly held that, if the hypothesis of random movements and "lucky" chances would account for adapted conduct of any kind, it would account for *Imitation*.

This is the main current of the book, but, as has already been indicated, the discussion is of a richness and breadth of which the foregoing gives but a scant idea. Notably there are some admirable chapters early in the book on Distance- and Color-Perception by Infants, the Origin of Right-Handedness, the Rise of Tracery Imitation and the Origin and Analysis of Handwriting, and on Suggestions.

Essays and Studies. By John Churton Collins. Macmillan. 1895.

UNDER the unpretentious title of 'Essays and Studies,' Mr. Churton Collins has collected into a single volume five of his contributions to periodical literature. Two of these papers—"John Dryden" and "The Predecessors of Shakspere"—are of considerable importance. The third, "Lord Chesterfield's Letters," is interesting, but drives its thesis to such an exaggeration as to fail of convincing. The fourth, "The Porson of Shaksperian Criticism," is a labored attempt to rehabilitate Theobald. The fifth, "Menander," is of little moment. We shall confine our remarks to the first two essays, contenting ourselves, as to the fourth, with the suggestion that Mr. Collins is not the discoverer of Theobald, though he seems to think so.

Everybody knows Mr. Churton Collins's critical style, that curious combination of clearness, vigor, browbeating, and exaggeration, inspired throughout with zeal to reverse some verdict of history. When the offensive qualities are held in check—or, in other words, when Mr. Collins does not forget his manners—the directness and perspicuity of his diction are refreshing in these days of superfine critical slang and cant. One is always sure that he has a meaning and that he knows what his meaning is—two certainties not always attaching to some critics less old-fashioned. One feels sure, besides, that Mr. Collins is coming to something, right or wrong, and that also is a comfort. All these good qualities are present in the essay on Dryden, which is a good specimen of sober and virile criticism. We doubt if there is anything better on the subject. The author's weakness for reversing verdicts contents itself with a defence of Dryden's personal morality, and such a defence can do no harm if it brings the reader to consider. In literary matters the critic holds the balance well, and does not sacrifice truth to rhetoric. If he adds nothing to our knowledge of facts, he at least assists the settlement of our opinions.

The second paper in the volume, that on "The Predecessors of Shakspere," is not better done than the first, but it is of more consequence. Its occasion was the publication of the late J. A. Symonds's "Shakspere's Predecessors," of which it is in part a critique, and a just critique. Its most valuable portion, however, begins after the critique is finished, and consists of a sketch of the history of the English drama from its origin to the time when Shakspere entered upon his career. This is, in some respects, the best piece of work that Mr. Collins has ever done. It is a rapid sketch, and not always well-proportioned, but it has striking merits. In particular it states the relations of the English drama to Italian literature and to the classics more clearly and forcibly than they are stated elsewhere, and this is so considerable a service that we can pardon the inequalities, and even the inaccuracies, from which the paper is by no means free. We do not feel sure that Mr. Collins could write a good history of the drama on a large scale—that he is a poor editor was long ago proved by his attempt with the plays of Cyril Tourneur—but we cannot help wishing that he had tried it. The result, whatever its faults, would at least have possessed merits to which the ponderous and over-estimated work of Prof. A. W. Ward can make no pretensions.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Beautiful Britain: The Scenery and the Splendors of the United Kingdom. Chicago: The Werner Co. $6.75.
Brown, H. E. Betsey Jane on Wheels. Chicago: W. B. Conkey Co. 25 cents.
Davis, Ethel. When Love is Done: A Novel. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Fletcher, J. S. When Charles the First was King: A Romance. London: Gay & Bird; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Foster, Mary F. Doty Dontcare: A Story of the Garden of the Antilles. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.
Foster, Rev. A. J. Ampthill Towers. T. Nelson & Sons. 80 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 29, 1895.

The Week.

THE statement of Mr. Balfour in the House of Commons a week ago puts international bimetallism out of its misery. It has been at the last gasp for many weary weeks, and now this lifting up of the heel against it by its old familiar friend leaves nothing to be done for it by anybody but the undertaker and the grave-digger. For Balfour has long been its last stay and hope. Did he not heroically and emphatically declare himself for international bimetallism in his Mansion House speech two years ago? Has he not been the man in all England upon whom bimetallic hopes have been fondly centred, and who was going to do great things for silver when he got office again? No one can have forgotten Mr. Whitney's glowing tribute to him when he returned from Europe on May 29. Balfour was "the brainiest statesman in England today." No wonder, therefore, that "in England the movement for international bimetallism is very strong." Business men were against it, but just look at Balfour! The "City" was against it, the Chancellor of the Exchequer was hostile, the newspapers were almost unanimously opposed, but how about Balfour?

He was plumply asked whether, as before, he was in favor of an international monetary conference, and whether he would advise the Government of which he was the leader in the Commons to invite one. He answered as plumply, it must be said for him; and when he was done, nothing was in order but a decent interment of international bimetallism. Mr. Balfour's answer was, in fact, peculiarly complete and crushing. He applied his Scotch thoroughness to the business, and got right down to what Dr. Chalmers called "the osteology of the subject." He was still in favor of an international agreement upon the currency question, but "he had no right to pledge his colleagues to such an opinion." What does that mean? It means that the matter had come up in cabinet, and that the said colleagues had bidden him let them have no more of the bimetallic nonsense. But worse was to come. An "international agreement" was one thing, and an international conference another. Even the agreement had no countenance from the cabinet, and the conference had no countenance from Mr. Balfour. A conference would be sure to be "abortive," and that would be "very undesirable." Therefore he was against calling one. He still cherishes his love for an "agreement," but it is evidently to remain a sad and hopeless passion. An agreement that cannot be talked about, that is only made more impossible by conferring about it, that no government can approach without danger of ruining everything, would smell just as sweet in bimetallic nostrils if it were frankly called disagreement. The only international agreement in sight is an agreement to drop once and for all the whole humbug of international bimetallism.

Kentucky is generally regarded as so impregnable a "Democratic stronghold" that any Republican assault is hopeless, but a review of the situation indicates that there is a fair chance of a revolution this year. It is true that the Democrats have carried the State every year since the formation of the Republican party except in 1863, midway of the civil war, when a "Union" candidate for Governor was successful; but the Democratic preponderance has been diminishing of late years. While Tilden received 62,534 more votes than Hayes in 1876, Cleveland's plurality over Harrison in 1892, when the tide everywhere ran so strongly with the Democrats, was only 40,020; and in 1894 the Democratic candidates for Congress led the Republican by only 160,350 votes as against 153,022, while the lead might have been with the Republicans if most of the party in one district had not supported the Populist candidate as the most hopeful way of beating the Democrat. Last year's total poll was almost as large as in the last Presidential contest, and if about 20,000 of the Democrats who voted for Cleveland on a sound-money platform in 1892 should vote in 1895 for the only sound-money candidate now running, Bradley would be elected. The success of the Democratic canvass is no longer to be desired on national grounds, now that it would be regarded as a triumph for the silverites, while, so far as State interests are concerned, there is no doubt that the general overhauling which would follow the inauguration of a Republican Governor would be the best thing for the commonwealth.

The issue of free coinage was the controlling one in the canvass for the late Democratic State convention. The sound-money men won a decisive victory, and the free-coinage element was beaten, nearly three to one, on a square vote upon the silver issue. The most prominent candidate for the gubernatorial nomination was Gen. "Wat." Hardin. He had always been a "red-hot" silverite, and Senator Blackburn, another of the same sort, told him before the contest was settled that he could not afford to be the candidate if the sound-money men should succeed in framing the platform. But Hardin assured the other side that he was a Democrat who would consider himself bound by the action of the majority, and the sound-money men accepted him upon the clear understanding that as a candidate for a State office having nothing to do with the silver question he would not obtrude his personal convictions. No sooner, however, had he got the nomination than he repudiated this agreement. Both Hardin and Blackburn refused to accept the action of the majority of the party as binding upon men who sought the governorship and senatorship. Blackburn took the stump at once, and proclaimed himself still for free coinage, while Hardin, after taking weeks for deliberation, at last came out on the same side. The extraordinary spectacle was thus presented of a Democratic Senator and the Democratic candidate for Governor abandoning the Democratic platform. An attempt was made on Saturday by the State central committee and other leading party men to persuade Hardin either to change his attitude or to withdraw as a candidate, but he flatly refused. Blackburn openly proclaims that the next Senator from Kentucky shall be either himself or a Republican.

Democrats who have any convictions on the financial question have thus been forced to make the choice between swallowing those convictions and standing by them at the expense of electing a Republican Governor and probably a Republican Senator. All who believe in honesty and independence will rejoice at the daily multiplying proofs that such Democrats are making the right choice. Leading party journals refuse any longer to support men who will not themselves support the platform of the party. The most prominent of all, the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, which made a splendid fight against free coinage during the canvass before the convention, will not stultify itself by advising its readers to vote for a nominee who still declares himself for free coinage. More than one other Democratic organ has taken down Hardin's name. Leading Democrats are declaring openly against him, and a host of the rank and file are evidently getting ready to vote for Bradley, the Republican candidate, who stands for the maintenance of the gold standard. The coming election will be the first when a Governor has been chosen under the Australian system, and it will be much easier and safer for the disgusted Democrat to express his feelings than when he had to proclaim *viva voce* his choice of a Republican candidate.

"No more important election has been held in Charleston and South Carolina since the war," said the Charleston *News and Courier* of August 20 with reference to the voting on that day for members of

the Constitutional Convention; and the statement was fully justified by the facts. The convention is to frame for the State a fundamental law, whose chief feature is sure to be some severe restriction of the suffrage. Various schemes are mooted for educational or property qualifications, for plural voting on the plan of one or more ballots for the property-holder above the single one for the poor man, for "privilege votes" to be cast by the husband or other male representative of a woman who owns property, and divers other devices, all of which are intended to keep from the ballot-box most of the blacks and swell the strength of the white minority. But, despite the immense importance of the interests involved in the election, very little interest was shown in the choice of delegates anywhere, the polls in some precincts not being opened at all, nobody voting in some other cases where they were opened, and not more than one-sixth of those registered even in Charleston taking the trouble to turn out. Many people believed that the call for the convention was fairly defeated in last year's election, and many others felt that it would make little difference with the results declared now whether they voted or not. The Tillmanites will control the convention by a large majority, and the result of their work must be awaited with apprehension.

Quay's threat to "have the law" on his opponents by appealing to the courts for a mandamus compelling the chairman of the Republican State committee to produce his books and papers and cash balance, in order that it may be seen just how he has managed the committee's affairs, is in itself of inestimable value. It will be remembered that we tried to get good Mr. Wanamaker, when he had admitted that he had raised a large sum of money for Quay to use in the election of 1888, to call upon Quay, who was chairman of the national Republican committee, for an accounting of the same, but Mr. Wanamaker thought it hardly worth while. Quay has now come over to our side of the question, and confesses that he thinks it would be in the interest of honest politics to have committee chairmen show what use they make of the funds placed in their hands. He says that if Mr. Gilkeson, the chairman whom he is trying to defeat for reëlection, were to be forced by the courts to do this now, it would make his re-election impossible. It is clear that Quay is familiar with the uses which political committees make of money, or he would not be so confident as to the damaging effect of the disclosure.

The Republicans have as yet put forth but one issue for the elections of this year and 1896, and here comes the *Tribune* of Monday to tell them that it is no issue at all. "Disgust," observes the profound political philosopher now guiding Republican thought, "is not usually long-lived," and hence "it seems likely that majorities this year may be smaller than in 1894." This is alarming, and, if carried to its logical conclusion, will compel the Republican party to get up some other platform than the simple and convincing one, "We are thoroughly disgusted." But there are ways of reviving moribund disgust, as the *Tribune* shows in its own person. Everybody remembers how its attacks on the bond-syndicate operations disgusted all Republicans who happened to be business men. Like Lodge, it was for some days convinced that the contract made with the syndicate was, "on its face, the blackest ever made." But, again like Lodge, it was shamed into silence by the unanimous approval of the contract by the business world. Republican disgust with these tactics of the chief Republican newspaper might also have shown itself short-lived and died away. But the *Tribune* chooses this auspicious moment to revive it, and asserts that, whatever bankers and business men may say, "it will be impossible to persuade most American voters that the Government had any business" to prevent the suspension of gold payments. This defiance of the financial world is heroic, but, coming just at the time when the operation in question has proved itself completely successful, can only be compared to the attitude of the Swedish abbé of whom Byron tells us. He was engaged in correcting the proof-sheets of a book designed to show that the constitution of his country was indestructible and immortal, when word was brought to him that the King had just overthrown it. "Sir," said the unflinching author, "our sovereign, the illustrious Gustavus, may certainly overthrow the constitution, but never *my book*."

We knew that there would be an exposure of that California Republican Congressman, Mr. Hilborn, who lately came back from Hawaii saying that annexation was preposterous. His views no sooner reached Honolulu than the mystery was cleared up. The annexationists admit that they were deceived in him. He had not been five hours in Hawaii before he drew one of them aside, and said, "My dear sir, you'll get annexation; the next Congress is Republican, and we want these islands." This looked like far-sighted statesmanship, and the Hawaiians were naturally pained to find the same person later taking the grovelling view that the United States didn't want the islands and wouldn't know what to do with them if it had them. But the explanation is simple. Congressman Hilborn was travelling "on a pass furnished by Spreckels." This accounts for everything. Most great statesmen travel on passes, but a pass furnished by Spreckels is well known to predispose to low views and to make a man ask troublesome questions about Hawaiian ignorance and unfitness for self-government, instead of just taking the whole lot of mixed nationalities to his bosom in a burst of generous enthusiasm for liberty. Something must be done to cut off the supply of Spreckels's passes, or the whole sacred movement for annexation will be in danger.

If Mr. Whitney's well-regulated blood ever boiled in this country—and there is no record of its ever having done so—it would have great provocation to boil now over the way in which the Democratic press of this State is treating him. He gave an interview, most reluctantly, a few weeks ago to the *World*, in which he firmly and impressively put away the nomination of his party for the Presidency next year. What has the *World* done with this magnanimous act? Why, made it the excuse for sending a circular letter to all the Democratic editors of the State, asking them how Mr. Whitney would run if nominated! In explaining this astonishing proceeding the *World* says that Mr. Whitney's declaration that he was not a candidate "aroused a curious amount of talk in newspapers and among people, all based upon the idea that Mr. Whitney may be a candidate after all." Was there ever such perversity as that, to take a man's positive refusal of a nomination as evidence that he would be a candidate! And the country Democratic editors, when asked what their views on the matter are, respond with more or less seriousness, giving somewhat varying opinions as to his running qualities, but expressing no doubt whatever about his willingness to run. One of them says he "would run like a steer in the corn," which is not a happy simile since it implies devastation along the path of the running. Only two express doubts as to his ability to carry the State, which shows that the Democratic press of the State as a whole is a prudent institution, and is not blind to the advantages of a candidate who has what the Tammany Boys call "de stuff."

What is the nature of the "pull" which Tammany is still able to exercise upon several of the morning and evening newspapers? It is exerted in the form of nagging attacks upon two of the most successful reformers in municipal administration—Col. Waring and Mr. Roosevelt—and scarcely a day passes without a new development of it. There is seldom direct assault made upon either of these officials, but individual peculiarities of utterance or dress are sought out and exaggerated in order to make them ridiculous. The great good accomplished by both is not questioned. That Col. Waring does clean the streets as they have never been cleaned before is not denied, but the twist of his moustaches, the cut of his clothes, the hardship to which he subjects his force by making them keep

their belts buckled, the fluency of his speech and his prolificacy in letter-writing—these and other peculiarities are dwelt upon at great length day after day and afford boundless comfort to Tammany and its sympathizers. Mr. Roosevelt's teeth, his volubility, and above all his recklessness in speaking directly of himself in the first person singular, are made use of to the same end. There is something more serious in this systematic and persistent effort to make these officials ridiculous than a desire to supply the "well nows" with arguments against the practicability of reform and the possibility of a theoretical reformer accomplishing anything. The real object is to prevent the public as a whole from getting the idea that good government of this city is not only a possible attainment under universal suffrage, but a very easy attainment. If that idea gets full possession of the community, Tammany can never regain power. Hence Tammany is working the press, as it is working the Comptroller, to break down the two men who are accomplishing the most for good municipal government.

No better evidence of the improving condition of business can be found than the increased receipts of the Post-office. The greatest absolute increase for the month of July is at Chicago, where the receipts this year are more than $65,000 above those of a year ago, a gain of nearly 20 per cent. But July, 1894, was a troubled month in Chicago, and such an increase is abnormal. If, however, we examine the returns from all the principal cities we see that in few cases is the gain less than 10 per cent., while in some it rises even to the Chicago rate. Boston shows receipts greater by 15 per cent., St. Louis shows 18 per cent., Brooklyn, Buffalo, San Francisco, and other centres show 20 per cent. and more. The total gain for the month of July is nearly $350,000, and probably as much as two-thirds of this is net gain. At this rate the deficit in this department, which is a chronic one, should be reduced this year by two or three millions.

Mr. Keir Hardie is making no such sensation in this country as John Burns did last year, and the reason is not far to seek. It is partly, perhaps, due to the fact that Hardie is not such a windy and reckless talker as Burns, but the main reason is that he and his fellow-agitators in England and this country have been badly discredited. Even in John Burns the great swelling words of vanity seem to have died away since the overwhelming rout of the Labor party in the English elections, and Mr. Hardie's feebler roarings will excite little but laughter. We observe that he, as President of the Independent Labor party, issued just before leaving England a résumé of their achievements and a programme for the future. They put up candidates for Parliament in twenty-eight constituencies, it seems, and did not elect a single one. From this the cheering inference is drawn that, at the next general election, "our comrades will throw themselves into the work and make it a complete success." A great deal of curiosity was expressed, at the time of the election, as to who was "financing" the Independent Labor party. It was charged that the brewers were backing them. Not so, says President Hardie; "we can say to all that no Tory or Liberal money, or money from any tainted source, has been received by us." This looks like political reform in earnest. Electoral contributions are to be closely scrutinized, and all "tainted" funds severely rejected. There is a great lesson here for Quay and Platt and Tammany. May not their present embarrassments be due to the fact that, in a weak moment, they have accepted money from tainted sources?

The recent opening of the port of Biserta in Tunis by the French republic was a pretty distinct indication of the policy to be followed in that region, and M. Leroy-Beaulieu frankly advocates a still more pronounced step in the same direction. Within a few weeks the time will expire for the "denunciation" of the commercial treaty between Tunis and Italy, and the *Économiste* insists that the opportunity must not be lost. Under the present treaty, Italy receives the treatment of the most favored nation, and the customs duties levied upon Italian goods imported into Tunis are limited to 8 per cent. M. Leroy-Beaulieu contends that France as a "protecting power" has a right to establish a customs union between herself and her ward. He thinks that to permit the importation of Italian goods on the same terms as those of France tends to create an "equivocal" situation. There is something incongruous in the spectacle of the merchandise of the protecting country paying duties in the country that is protected, and France has displayed great patience in tolerating such a discordant feature for the fourteen years of her occupation of Tunis. There ought to be complete freedom of trade between the two parties, and since this would involve a considerable loss of revenue, it is only proper that the deficiency should be made up by increasing the duties upon imports from other countries. It is true that there is a commercial treaty between Tunis and England, which fixes no date for its expiration. But that cannot be taken to mean that it shall be perpetual, and, by judicious diplomacy, England can be persuaded to consent to its gradual abrogation. In short, M. Leroy-Beaulieu concludes, France must make Tunis a veritable dependency, and thereby fortify its situation in the Mediterranean and in Africa. To this end she has been working for fourteen years, and the work must be carried on until it is completed.

It is evident that patriotism has somewhat colored M. Leroy-Beaulieu's economic views. He stands for free trade, and to advocate discriminating duties against the importation into Tunis of all goods except those of French origin is to go back to the colonial policy of the last century. As he points out, Tunis is the most prosperous of the French dependencies. Since it was taken charge of by France, it has made great progress. Many miles of railroad have been built, and many internal improvements made, all without involving the French Government in any expense or liability. Commerce has very greatly developed under French control. Fifteen years ago it amounted to scarcely 23,000,000 francs. It has now attained the figure of nearly 75,000,000 francs, and it is gaining all the time. The government is self-supporting, and that is more than can be said of most of the French colonies. While much the greater part of this commerce is with France and Algeria, the trade with other countries is by no means insignificant, and it seems regrettable that this trade should be hampered with new restrictions. Still, it is possible that the loss thus occasioned may be balanced by the gain from free trade between France and Tunis. At all events we may be sure that the policy recommended by M. Leroy-Beaulieu will be adopted, and that Tunis will eventually become practically as much a part of France as Algeria now is.

The Sultan now gravely informs the powers that he cannot consent to have reforms in Armenia carried out under foreign supervision. That would interfere with his precious sovereignty. His heart is set on reform, but he must be allowed to execute it in his own way and time. Of course that means never. The Porte is simply at its old tricks of shilly-shallying and solemnly negotiating to gain time. Turkish sovereignty is but a ghastly fiction. It has been overridden too repeatedly by the European nations to make them hesitate an instant now on that score. As Mr. Gladstone said in his Chester speech, the word "ought" means nothing at Constantinople, and the only word that counts there is the word "must." It is time that monosyllable was uttered, and uttered sharply, by the foreign ambassadors. The Turkish ministers have only been trifling with them. A little while ago the Porte's position was that it was going to reform not only Armenia but the whole empire. Reform, God bless you! there couldn't be too much of it, and all Turkey should have it. But this nonsense was well compared by Mr. Gladstone to that of an English government which should say, after a great and overwhelming agitation to repeal a particular act of Parliament, that there were a great many other bad laws which ought to be looked into and repealed after a few years' discussion.

OHIO FOR SOUND MONEY.

THE action of the Ohio Democrats on the silver question has been awaited with a good deal of interest because the attitude of the party in that State on financial issues has often served as a sort of political barometer—especially in the direction of "low pressure." Whenever any monetary heresy gained a foothold in the country, it was sure to spread rapidly among the Democrats of Ohio. Twenty years ago they were "red-hot" for more greenbacks, the amount to be limited only by "the wants of trade." When free silver displaced greenbackism a few years later, they became enthusiastic for unlimited coinage of "the dollar of the daddies."

The recrudescence of the silver craze after the panic of 1893 was therefore, naturally enough, especially violent among the Democrats of Ohio. Their State convention for the campaign of 1894 met in September last, while the business depression that followed the panic was at its height. The financial plank in the platform was the matter of chief interest. There were sound-money men in the body, and they were willing to stand up and be counted, but the test showed that they were sadly in the minority. By the decisive vote of 468 to 319, the convention adopted this "flat-footed" repudiation of Mr. Cleveland's financial policy, and endorsement of free coinage:

"We dissent from the President's views, construction, and treatment of the silver question, and, therefore, believe that silver should be restored to the position it occupied as money prior to its demonetization by the Republican party, and to that end we favor the unlimited free coinage of silver, at the legal ratio of 16 to 1, and with equal legal-tender powers."

The convention of 1895 met on Wednesday week, and again confronted the silver issue. The committee on resolutions reported a platform which "congratulated President Cleveland that his efforts in favor of the repeal of these vicious laws [the Sherman law, the federal election law, and the McKinley law] and the upholding of the credit of the country have been successful," and reaffirmed that portion of the national platform of 1892 which declared for "the maintenance of the parity of the two metals, and the equal power of every dollar at all times in the payment of debts," and which demanded that "the paper currency shall be kept at par and redeemable in such coin." A small minority of the committee offered the following as a substitute:

"We demand the immediate restoration of the law providing for the free coinage and full legal tender of both gold and silver coins, without discrimination against either metal, as provided in the Constitution, and without awaiting the assent of England or any other foreign nation."

After speeches on both sides, the proposed substitute was overwhelmingly rejected by the convention. The vote stood 270 for the immediate and unlimited coinage of silver and 524 against, or in support of the President's policy. While last year the Democrats of Ohio in convention assembled supported free coinage in the proportion of almost five to three, this year they declare against it nearly two to one.

The history of American politics is full of sudden and sharp changes, but there has seldom been a quicker and greater revolution than is here recorded. The vote in last week's convention at Springfield drove the last nail that was required in the coffin of free coinage before its burial. When the Democrats of a State where the party has always been weak on the financial question so far recover their senses as to vote two to one against the silverites; when an unscrupulous politician like Senator Brice sees that his sole hope of a political future rests in the championship of a sound-money President; when a demagogue like Campbell, who in 1891 was "willing to chance it" on a platform declaring for "free and unlimited coinage," has to stand in 1895 on a platform from which such a plank was kept by a vote of 524 to 270—then even such purblind antediluvians as Senator Harris of Tennessee and his associates in the recent "national conference" of free-silver Democrats at Washington must realize that they are wasting their time and strength. If any doubt whatever remained that the Democratic national convention of 1896 would not take up the silver delusion, it was removed before the adjournment of the Ohio convention.

Popular interest in the Springfield gathering centred about its attitude towards free coinage. Other features of the convention require little attention. Senator Brice's speech endorsing President Cleveland as "the greatest statesman and party leader of his time," and declaring that the record of the Democratic party under him will be "the great paramount issue upon which the battles of both this year and next will be fought," was the tribute of a time-server which gains added weight from the fact that only a year ago he was himself doing all he could to mar that record by thwarting Mr. Cleveland's efforts to carry out the party's pledges as to the tariff. Mr. Campbell, the candidate for Governor, has always been a demagogue, and he advertised himself in that character afresh when he insisted upon the party's twisting the tail of the British lion as the condition of his acceptance.

Ohio is normally a Republican State—although Cleveland came within about a thousand votes of carrying it in 1892, and did get one of the twenty-three Presidential electors. At the last election for Governor, in 1893, McKinley got his second term by a plurality of over 80,000, and in 1894 the Republican candidates for minor State offices won by pluralities exceeding 135,000. The chief reliance of the Democrats in this campaign is the extraordinary coincidence that for the eighteen years beginning with 1877 they have elected the Governor and carried the Legislature that was to choose a United States Senator once in every six years; and 1895 is another sixth year. But history can hardly be expected to go on repeating itself in this curious fashion indefinitely.

THE RESULTS OF PROTECTION IN CANADA.

THE arrival of a distinguished English financier as president of the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada is an event that may have consequences outside the railway world. In his investigations into the condition of the great property committed to his charge, Sir Rivers Wilson will presently discover that the operating expenses are materially increased by protective duties. He will find that for the purpose of encouraging the coal-miners of Nova Scotia a tax of 60 cents a ton upon all bituminous coal imported into Canada is levied. He will learn that the result of this tax is, not to force Nova Scotia coal up to the province of Ontario, but to compel the industries of that province to pay the tax upon coal from Pennsylvania and Ohio, which they use exclusively, and that the contribution of the Grand Trunk Railway to this tax is about $350,000 a year.

Pursuing his inquiries further, he will ascertain that upon pig iron an import duty of $4.48 per long ton is collected, while the furnaces of Nova Scotia get a bounty of $2 a ton for their product, with $2 additional for steel. In spite of these protective arrangements, the manufacturers of Ontario find it to their advantage to purchase in this country a very large part of the iron which they consume. At the prices at which pig iron has recently been sold the tariff increases the cost about 50 per cent. This cost is, of course, further increased in the processes of manufacture, and it is evident that, in the case of such vast consumers of iron as railways, this increased cost must be a very large item. Another article the cost of which is increased by protective duties, is coal oil. There is some coal oil found in Ontario, and, in order to protect the industry of producing and refining this oil, that imported from the United States is taxed at a rate which in the year 1893-'94 amounted to over 100 per cent. The valuation of this imported oil at the custom-house during that year was $420,000, and the duty collected was $466,000. That it is possible to import this article to such an extent in spite of such a duty shows the intensity of the demand, or in other words shows the severity of the tax.

We might go through the Canadian tariff in this way, showing how the cost not only of operating a railway, but also of carrying on every kind of industry, is increased by protection. The experiment has now been tried for about sixteen years. It was defended by many reasons, the principal one being that, as the United States had prospered under a protective tariff, therefore Canada must. The event has proved the fallacy of this argument. In 1874 the value of the goods exchanged

between Canada and Great Britain was about $108,000,000. In 1894 it was $107,000,000. The whole foreign trade of Canada in the three years 1873–'5 averaged $212,000,000; for the three years 1892–'4 it averaged $229,000,000. By taking infinite pains a considerable immigration into Canada has been stimulated. Both private societies and the Government have established agencies abroad and encouraged immigrants to make permanent homes in Canada. The immigrants have come, but they have not made permanent homes. In the decade 1881-91 some 800,000 immigrants went to Canada, but during that period the population of the country increased by only 500,000 souls. This is less than the natural excess of births over deaths should have been, so that it may fairly be said that bringing immigrants to Canada is like bringing water in a sieve.

The increase of the debt of the Dominion by $100,000,000 in the last fifteen years, bringing it up now to over $240,000,000, is of course not to be charged directly to the protective tariff. But it is the natural result of the protective theory. Whenever the postulate is admitted that it is the duty of the Government to take the lead in guiding the industries of the people, protective duties and governmental extravagance follow together. The Government has no money of its own to spend, but it can extort vast sums from its subjects by the exercise of the taxing power, and this the Dominion Government has done. It is computed by a Canadian correspondent of the London *Economist*, who has carefully examined the whole subject, that British investors have altogether contributed not less than $1,000,000,000 to the development of Canada. This shows clearly enough that the interposition of the Government was not required in order to secure ample capital for Canadian enterprise. This interposition may have been to some extent imperative on political grounds: it might, for example, not have been possible to retain British Columbia except by the iron bands of the transcontinental railway. But there is no straighter road to legislative corruption than through the granting of subsidies, and such political unity as has been attained by bounties and protective duties in Canada has been purchased by grave political demoralization.

It is high time for the Government of the Dominion to retrace its steps, but it will not be so easy as it has been in our own case. The reason is, that the Dominion is so loaded with debt that it must raise a large revenue, and it will require great skill to accomplish this through a reduction of the tariff. Many of the duties imposed for the purpose of protection have proved to be revenue duties, and though the country would benefit by their immediate abolition, the Treasury would suffer. But the example set by this country will again be controlling upon Canada. The removal of restrictions upon industry here will make it impracticable to retain them there. The impulse given to our manufactures by freer trade will make it hopeless for those of Canada to try to keep up the race with the handicap of their present tariff. As Canada imitated us to her hurt in adopting the protective policy, she will eventually imitate us to her gain in abandoning it.

FRENCH COLONIZATION.

THE imitative impulse appears to affect nations as easily as individuals. We ourselves have recently constructed a very expensive navy for no assignable reason except the example set by other powers, and the European states are grasping at remote territories because they see England extending her possessions. The most remarkable manifestation of this spirit is in France. It is comprehensible that she should desire to extend her frontiers in Europe, and even across the Mediterranean Sea; but why she should undertake to found colonies in Tonquin and Madagascar is not so clear. An explanation has, however, been lately offered by a brilliant French orator, M. Chailley-Bert (who is the Secretary of the French Colonial Union), which throws some light on the question.

According to this authority, France does well to establish colonies because, beyond utilitarian considerations, there is something nobler and grander which a great nation ought to strive for. This is in effect to transmit to others the marvellous treasure of civilization which the French have inherited. France ought to perpetuate herself, to reproduce herself, under new aspects. Colonization is for nations what marriage is for individuals. It is the means whereby the species is continued; and the injunction, Increase and multiply, is laid upon the French as well as on other peoples. France was once a great nation in territory and remains one in intellect. She ought to assert her duty to be, not only to-day, but in the future, of equal greatness in thought and in dimensions.

Whatever may be thought of the validity of such an argument, it necessarily suggests, in the case of France, reflections which are painful. The French race is no longer a spreading stock. Hardly, by the constant infusion of foreign blood, does the population maintain its numbers, and the conditions of life are such as to hold the tendency to increase steadily in check. To maintain that a people which has reached the stationary state must undertake colonization upon a grand scale as a duty is paradoxical. Its marvellous treasure of civilization may be better communicated to mankind than by the assertion of military dominion over remote regions and barbarous tribes, when there is no reason to expect that French soldiers will be replaced by French colonists.

It is true, M. Chailley-Bert confesses that the ancient colonies of France were of a type that cannot now be imitated. Canada and Louisiana were colonies occupied by real settlers. Frenchmen emigrated, voluntarily or involuntarily, in large numbers to these colonies, and became permanent inhabitants. They married and reared families and reëstablished in a way the civilization of France. The conditions now render this kind of colonization impossible. There are no superfluous Frenchmen to emigrate. The climate of the new colonies is such as to prevent Europeans from reproducing themselves, and the regions are already occupied by indigenous populations. Hence such colonies as Tonquin and Madagascar are not to be settled by Frenchmen. They are to be colonies only of "exploitation and commerce." Frenchmen are not even to reside there steadily or to undertake to rear families. They are to return every three or four years to France to restore their health and to satisfy themselves that they are not exiles.

Hitherto, it is undeniable, this process of exploitation has consisted chiefly in sending soldiers to conquer the colony, and functionaries to administer it. The native population has been assured that the blessings of civilization were about to be conferred upon it, and the first step has been to double their taxes. Somehow or other, M. Chailley-Bert says, this must be changed. Colonists who are not prepared to live in these colonies or to mingle with the native races, must in some way be enabled to establish themselves there and to enrich themselves and the natives at the same time. It is obvious that peculiar qualifications are required for this task, and it is highly important, according to the standard set up by this philosopher, that the people who are ready to go as colonists should not be allowed to do so. They are the people who have been unsuccessful at home; who have lost their money; who have been dismissed from their employment — the dishonest, the spendthrifts, and the incapables. It is the people who do not want to colonize who would make the best colonists, and M. Chailley-Bert seriously recommends to his wealthy fellow-citizens that they should furnish capital to deserving young people who shall therewith undertake the exploitation of Tonquin and Madagascar.

No historical example of this method of colonization having been adopted is referred to. We have in British India, it is true, a "colony of exploitation" and not of settlement. But that colony was a consequence and not a cause of commerce, and we know of no reason to suppose that the order of events can be reversed. So far as France is concerned, M. Chailley-Bert incidentally shows why she cannot be a colonizing power. Before the liberty of testamentary disposition was abridged, younger sons were expected to shift for themselves. The family property passed to the eldest child; the cadets had to seek their

fortunes in war or the adventures of commerce. The present system of petty entails, as Sir Henry Maine called them, has altered this. The younger son no longer feels that he remains at home on sufferance, and, as some means of support are assured him, he lacks motive for undertaking an adventurous career.

Finally, life in France is on the whole so pleasant as to make the thought of expatriation among the barbarous inhabitants of Tonquin and Madagascar far from attractive. Why should any Frenchman who can manage to live in the bright and salubrious climate of France, surrounded with all the amenities created by centuries of civilization—why should he throw away his health and his life in the pestilential swamps of a tropical colony? There is room for all in France, since the population is stationary, and the disposition to emigrate may well be regarded as evidence of incapacity. Other countries are overcrowded, or are lacking in advantages; but France should be able to support an increasing population, and is intrinsically a country which charms rather than repels. Surely her modern schemes for founding great colonies are the vainest of dreams, and compel us to apply to those who entertain them the incomparable epigram of Mme. de Staël as being a people *qui ont pris les souvenirs pour les espérances.*

MANUSCRIPTS RELATING TO AMERICA IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

LONDON, August 9, 1895.

To Americans in quest of materials relating to the colonial period of their country's story, and who have not yet made themselves familiar with the collections of manuscripts in the British Museum, a few hints cannot but be welcome. A ticket of admission to the reading-room having been obtained, the student is at liberty to work either in the reading-room itself or in the students' room. The hours for the former are from 9 A. M. to 8 P. M.; those of the latter from 10 A. M. to 4 P. M. In the reading-room, which is sometimes called the Round Room, either books or manuscripts are delivered to one; in the students' room, manuscripts only can be had. The students' room is, in fact, for the use of those alone who are searching manuscripts. It has the advantage of being in the very heart of the manuscripts department, and documents applied for can consequently be more speedily obtained there than in the reading-room. Moreover, it is a shade quieter than the Round Room is. The difficulty of the shorter hours can be got over by having manuscripts in use transferred, at 4 o'clock, to the Round Room, where the student may go on working until 8 o'clock in the evening.

The searcher of manuscripts will not fail to use the students' room from choice. To get there the new-comer, having entered the Museum from Great Russell Street, will find himself in the hall. Here he must give up his umbrella to an attendant on the left, and will get a check for it. Then, turning to the lofty door on the right of the hall, he will enter the Grenville Library, so named after the donor, the Right Honorable Thomas Grenville, the second son of that George Grenville who helped materially to found the American nation, but without intending to do so. The treasures of this temple of books must be explored at another time; but the brilliancy of the illuminated manuscripts lying in glass cases will be sure to strike the wayfarer's eyes. Passing out of the Grenville Library, the saloon of manuscripts is entered, and as the pilgrim casts his eyes to the left, the grand hall that he gets but a glimpse of is the King's Library. Standing still for a few moments, his eyes fall upon letters written by persons whose names have been familiar to him since he began to read the history of that Old England from which his fathers went forth into the New World to build better than they knew. Not to mention other Kings and Queens, he will see the signature of good Queen Bess to a proclamation against the intentions of the house of Guise and its influence over Mary Queen of Scots. He will also find letters from Sir Philip Sidney, Mary Queen of Scots, and Lord Burghley. He must feel a glow of pride as he reads a resolution of a council of war of the English commanders, after the defeat of the Spanish Armada off Gravelines, and he will note with eager interest that to it are subscribed the names of Howard of Effingham, Clifford of Cumberland, Lord Thomas Howard; Edmund, Lord Sheffield; Sir Francis Drake, Sir Edward Hoby, Sir John Hawkins, and Captain Thomas Fenner. The signatures of Bacon, Strafford, Laud, Clarendon, Hampden, Pym, Montrose, Prince Rupert, Oliver Cromwell, Admiral Blake, Algernon Sidney, Claverhouse, William of Orange, Marlborough, Pitt, Fox, Wellington, Nelson, and other famous persons will also be noted. They must be inspected at leisure on some other occasion. There is, however, one document that the pious American cannot, must not, pass by. It is in Case 4, and is a letter addressed to the Earl of Buchan of that day, and dated Philadelphia, April 22, 1793. The signature is "G° Washington." In that part of the letter that is visible as it lies in the glass case, the Father of his Country speaks hopefully of the future of the United States, and elsewhere in the same letter gives it as his opinion that it should be the policy of the United States "to be little heard of in the great World of Politics." He further observes: "I believe it is the sincere wish of United America to have nothing to do with the Political intrigues or the squabbles of European nations; but, on the contrary, to exchange commodities and live in peace with all the inhabitants of the earth, and this I am persuaded they will do, if rightfully it can be done."

With the wise words of Washington lingering in his mind, the literary explorer will bear to his right hand from Case No. 4, as he walks towards an open door which has a slip-bar drawn across it, on which he will observe in painted letters the words "For Students Only." Passing through this door, and bearing to the left, he enters a short passage which in five seconds brings him to the door of the students' room. The door is ajar; and, as the ingoer passes through, it draws back again on its spring.

The presiding genius of this *adytum* of research is Mr. F. B. Bickley, one of the ten assistants to Mr. E. J. L. Scott, the keeper of the Manuscripts Department. The literary student, be he never so humble in rank, need never hesitate to apply to Mr. Bickley for guidance; for that courteous, cultivated, and expert official is as ready to help Mr. Nobody as to give the benefit of his knowledge and experience to a cabinet minister engaged in looking up a point. Excepting writing-paper, all mechanical aid to literary work will be found at hand, as the student takes a seat at one of the tables provided for searchers. Silence pervades the room, and those at work will hardly heed the entrance and exit of those who come and those who go. Many a person whose name is known far and wide, the world over, may from time to time be seen in the students' room. Of such are Lord Acton, Mr. Andrew Lang, and Lord Wolseley, now engaged upon his 'Life of Marlborough.' When Mr. Gladstone makes researches at the Museum, he does so in the board-room of the trustees, as being himself a trustee of the Museum. Lord Acton is entitled to the same privilege, being also a trustee, but he finds it more convenient to sit in the students' room.

There are, of course, rules for the guidance of persons who use the manuscripts, whether they do so in the Round Room or in the students' room. The very least that a student can do who is accorded the privilege of delving in this mine of information is to observe the rules with strictness. They are as follows:

(1.) Readers are particularly requested not to write for more than *one* Volume, Charter, or Roll on the same Ticket, unless the Numbers required form a series.

(2.) They are also requested to use the Manuscripts with care, and specially to avoid placing the hand on the written page or miniature before them; and in no case to place a Manuscript or Book on an open Manuscript.

(3.) As a general rule, Manuscripts, while in use, are to be placed upon book-rests, or in glazed cases.

(4.) There is no restriction on copying Manuscripts.

(5.) Manuscripts of more than ordinary value can be used only in the Department of Manuscripts.

(6.) Permission to draw from the Illuminated Manuscripts can be granted only on the production of a special Letter of Recommendation for that purpose, addressed to the Keeper of the Manuscripts.

(7.) Tracing is not allowed, unless by permission of the Keeper of the Department; nor in any case from paintings in body-colors.

(8.) As a general rule, only one Illuminated Manuscript will be supplied at a time; if others are required for the purpose of comparison, the permission of the Keeper must be first obtained.

It is well to know that, on application being made to the authorities, permission will be accorded for the photographing of manuscripts, under proper safeguards. As book-rests are provided for readers, there is no cause for any one not to comply with Rule 3.

Should the student not be in quest of any particular manuscript, but be on a search in general for manuscripts relating to America or to Americans, he must examine the large volumes of catalogues which he will find on shelves opposite the entrance door. There are catalogues upon every main division of knowledge, and there are catalogues of nearly all the collections of manuscripts. The seeker will find huge volumes lettered *Biography*. On opening volume i. of this series he will find a classification of the contents under the names of the leading political divisions of the earth. Then, there are catalogues lettered *Church History*, *Naval*, *Military*, *Voyages and Travels*, *Private Letters*, *Genealogy*, *Heraldry*, and so on, upon every subject that inquirers are likely to be interested in. To many of these catalogues there is an introductory classification of subjects, with a note of the pages over which their respective entries extend. These will be found at the beginning of the first volume.

This paper being intended for the guidance

of students of the colonial period of the United States, reference will not be made to the treasures of the Museum relating to Oriental and classical and general learning that abound in the Manuscript Department. Our inquirer may search with advantage the Harleian, the Sloane, the Egerton, the Hargrave (upon legal matters), the Royal, the Lansdowne, and the recently added Stowe collection, acquired from Lord Ashburnham for £45,000. This collection is so called because it was made by the Grenvilles, Dukes of Buckingham, at Stowe. Above all must he search the *Additional* MSS., which is the classification of the general body of documents acquired since the Manuscripts Department was founded upon the Sloane, Harleian, and Cottonian collections. Catalogues of these several collections, except the Egerton, have been printed, and, *where not out of print*, may be obtained at the Museum itself or through the agency of any London bookseller. The printed catalogue of Additional MSS. comes down to 1893. These are very valuable, being fully indexed. Those who can read Spanish will find much material relating to America in the four volumes of catalogues of Spanish MSS., edited by that literary veteran Don Pascual de Gayangos, whose assistance to Prescott is duly noted in that historian's Life. The worthy Don having finished his work of cataloguing, it is to be hoped he will now prepare an index to his catalogues. Students must, meanwhile, content themselves with the classification made in volumes ii. and iv., under the head of *Spanish Settlements in America*, of papers relating to America (North and South), Geography, and Travel. The special Catalogue of Seals in the Manuscript Department, and that of Maps, Charts, and Plans, contain much that will interest the American student. The Royal MSS. were collected by James I. for the use of Prince Henry, the too early cut-off elder brother of Charles I., and the very good friend of Sir Walter Raleigh. They were given to the nation by George II., and must not be confounded with the King's MSS., which were "presented" by George IV., on the nation's paying that most dread sovereign's debts. The King's collection consists of old MSS. mainly, many on vellum.

Let us suppose that our student has had his attention drawn to the Egerton collection. He takes down the catalogue, pores over it, and is struck by the number of documents he finds calendared under Volume 2395, as relating to New England and Virginia. Wishing to inspect these interesting papers, he has only to take one of the green-ticket forms of application which he will find at hand for the use of students, and to fill it up. The place for number of the reader's seat is to be filled up only when the student makes his application in the Round Room, for seats are not numbered in the students' room, where there is not accommodation for more than three dozen persons at one and the same time. Having filled out the form with the press numbers, exactly as they are given in the catalogue, our student must then place this ticket in a small box that he will find for the purpose, beside an attendant who sits near the entrance door. Going back to his seat, he will not have long to wait before the volume requisitioned for will be handed to him. He may then use it for the remainder of the day; and, should he be likely to require it on the day following, he has but to notify his wish to the attendant, on giving it up, to have it reserved for his use on the morrow. On giving up the volume, when he has done with it for the day, the student should make a vital point of getting back his green ticket from the attendant to whom he delivers the book. Although more than one volume of manuscripts (excepting the numbers forming a series), should not be applied for on the same form, any number of volumes, in reason, may be applied for, on separate forms, at one time.

Where a student cannot give the time to make copies himself of manuscripts, or extracts from them, he can get numbers of persons in London who are willing to do so at moderate rates of charge. Some of the attendants at the Museum will also undertake such work, which they are ready to do out of the hours of their official work. It depends upon the nature of the handwriting in the documents, but the usual charge is from 2d. to 4d. the folio.

Much valuable information with respect to the collections of manuscripts in the Museum is to be found in a 'Handbook to the Library of the British Museum,' written by Mr. Richard Sims, for many years one of the staff of that great institution. The work was published in 1854 by the late John Russell Smith of Soho Square, London. The difficulty is to get a copy of this precious tome, which has become very rare. Mr. Sims himself is now enjoying the proverbially long life attributed to pensioners. Would that he might be induced to bring out a new edition of his most useful handbook.

In a later number of the *Nation* a list will be given of some of the manuscripts in the British Museum that relate to the colonial period, mainly of the history of the United States. D. D.

LA ROCHEFOUCAULD.

PARIS, August 14, 1895.

IT was natural to give a prominent place to La Rochefoucauld in the collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français." The author of the 'Maxims' will always remain among our classical writers. Some of the maxims have become proverbial, and in our pessimistic era La Rochefoucauld may almost appear to be the deepest of our French moralists. Such thoughts as these, "There is always in the misfortune of our best friends something which does not displease us," or, "Our virtues are oftentimes vices in disguise," are not made to displease the disciples of Schopenhauer. A Darwinian philosopher, accustomed to the struggle for existence and the survival of the fittest, cannot much object to the fundamental idea of La Rochefoucauld, who justifies our own egotism by showing egotism to be the universal rule of mankind.

It would be unjust, however, to consider the 'Maxims,' as has often been done, as a bald apology for egotism. If you read them with attention, you will find that M. Bourdeau, who has published a recent essay on La Rochefoucauld for Hachette's collection, is right when he says: "The 'Maxims' teach us not to count on others, not to confide in their promises, not to expect from them more than they can give, and thus to deliver ourselves from the most frequent cause of discontent and deception; they give us, in short, an imperious lesson in self-help." This lesson in self-help could well be given by La Rochefoucauld, who spent a great part of his life—the part during which ideas are formed and the bent of the mind is taken—amid the confusion and dangers of a civil war. The life of La Rochefoucauld throws much light on the formation of his genius; the 'Maxims' seem impersonal: they are in reality the work of a man who was engaged in a great historical drama, and who was able to see the play of human passions on the grandest stage.

François, sixth Duke of La Rochefoucauld, was born in Paris, in the Rue des Petits-Champs, the 15th of September, 1613. His house is well known to be one of the greatest in France; it bears the arms of the Lusignans, a house from which it was detached in the tenth century. Like the Plantagenets, they trace their genealogy to the fair Mélusine, who figures in their arms. After the Hundred Years' War, the La Rochefoucaulds preserved large estates in Poitou and Angoumois. In 1628 Marsillac (such was the first name borne by the author of the 'Maxims') was married to a great heiress, Andrée de Vivonne; he left the year after for Italy, where he made his first campaign. On his return we find him engaged in intrigues against Richelieu and in the confidence of Anne of Austria. After a short campaign in Flanders, he was exiled to his estates from 1633 to 1637; in this interval he met in Touraine, where she had herself been exiled, the famous Duchess de Chevreuse, the great friend of Anne of Austria and the mortal enemy of Richelieu. He helped her to fly to the Spanish frontier on horseback; she left him all her jewels, which were worth 200,000 *écus*, asking him to keep them if she died, or to give them back to her some day. Richelieu, when he knew that Marsillac had helped off the Duchess de Chevreuse, sent him for a week to the Bastille, and he was exiled again for two years to Verteuil. He was there approached by Saint-Mars, but was so fortunate as not to be compromised in his conspiracy.

In 1642 Richelieu died, and Marsillac thought that the time had come for him to be in favor. "For ten years," he says in his Memoirs, "the Queen had counted me particularly as her servant, for six or seven years I had been publicly denominated her martyr. . . . She assured me afterwards that it was a matter of honor with her that I should be satisfied with her, and that there was nothing great enough in the kingdom to recompense me for what I had done in her service." The moralist concealed in the *grand seigneur* had to learn that gratitude is not a common virtue. Marsillac was disappointed when he saw Mazarin assume all the power, and he entered into the cabal of the *Importants*, who afterwards became the Fronde. The Duchess de Chevreuse, after ten years of adventurous exile, came back. She had lost her beauty, and La Rochefoucauld transferred his homage to the Duchess de Longueville, the sister of Condé. Married at the age of twenty-three to a widower who was forty-seven years old, Mme. de Longueville was very tenderly attached to her brothers. She was ambitious, proud, intelligent; she was one of the stars of the Hôtel de Rambouillet. Mme. de Nemours says in her memoirs of the ladies of the cabal that "they employed their minds altogether in playful conversation, in comments on the delicacies of the heart and the feelings; they made the merit of a person consist wholly in subtle distinctions. . . . They regarded as ridiculous and coarse whatever seemed like solid conversation." La Rochefoucauld's love for Mme. de Longueville was mingled with ambition, and, if we may believe Mme. de Sévigné, he had always more ambition than love.

The history of La Rochefoucauld is intimately connected with that of the Fronde, perhaps the most confused portion of French his-

tory. It is not quite true to say that the Frondeurs followed only personal interests; there was among them a common desire, which was to resist the arbitrary and absolute power of a prime minister, and to preserve some authority for the French nobility. But it is quite true that every one of the Frondeurs had some personal interest, passion, or resentment to satisfy. La Rochefoucauld's ambition was to be treated at court like the Rohans, the La Trémoilles, and a few others; he claimed for his wife the *tabouret* in the Queen's presence, and for himself the right to enter into the Court of the Louvre in his *carosse*. These honors were the privilege of the peers of the realm and of the princes belonging to sovereign houses. There was a peerage in his house, but he was still Prince de Marsillac, and he asked before his father's death for another peerage. Mazarin did not comply with his wishes, and, besides, Marsillac had now become attached to Mme. de Longueville, and the *point d'honneur* more than his love obliged him to follow her fortunes. He became a rebel when she became a rebel. At that very moment, his father died; he formed a small army at Vertueil, and united his forces with those of the Duke de Bouillon.

The history of the Fronde of Bordeaux has been related many times. At the end of it La Rochefoucauld negotiated with Mazarin the deliverance of Condé, who was a prisoner at Vincennes. He tells us in his Memoirs how they met secretly at the Palais Royal, in the rooms of the Princess Palatine; the Cardinal came to meet him by a hidden staircase, with a lamp in his hand. When Condé broke openly again with the Court, La Rochefoucauld followed his cause. He confesses in his Memoirs that one day, at the Hôtel de Ville, he shut the head of Retz in a door, and told Coligny and Ricousse to kill him. Coligny refused; Ricousse simply said he had no orders from Condé. Retz was released by the great efforts of one of his friends, and, entering the *grand'chambre*, he told the President what had just happened: "Traitor," screamed La Rochefoucauld, "I care little what becomes of you." "I answered him," says Retz, "in these words: 'Very well, my friend *la Franchise* [we had given him this surname in our party], you are a coward [I lied, for truly he is very brave], and I am a priest, to whom duelling is forbidden.'" They were separated by the President. The next day the comedy followed the drama. Retz, who was the coadjutor of the Archbishop, was in a procession, in his pontifical robes. La Rochefoucauld came upon it in his coach where he was with Condé. They both left the coach and went upon their knees to receive the episcopal benediction. "I gave it to him," says Retz, "my mitre on my head. I took it off immediately, and made him a profound bow."

Condé entered into open revolt after the majority of the King was proclaimed. Gourville has given in his amusing Memoirs the account of the journey on horseback which La Rochefoucauld made from the Garonne to the Loire with his young son Marsillac, Condé, and a few gentlemen, travelling day and night by cross-roads. La Rochefoucauld had a touch of gout, and his leg was bandaged on his horse. At the battle which took place between Condé and Turenne before the walls of Paris, La Rochefoucauld received a shot which nearly put out both his eyes. Almost blind, his white coat all covered with blood, he was taken to the Hôtel de Liancourt in Paris, and his rôle of Frondeur came to an end. His terrible wound saved him from the necessity of joining Condé when he entered into alliance with Spain and began a war which lasted several years.

Gourville tells us that, as La Rochefoucauld had joined Condé chiefly for the sake of Mme. de Longueville, he inscribed under her portrait these two verses:

"Faisant la guerre au Roi, j'ai perdu les deux yeux;
Mais pour un tel objet je l'aurais faite aux Dieux."

His "objet" had not remained faithful to him; she had conceived a new passion for the Duke de Nemours, and had had the pleasure of taking him from the hands of Mme. de Châtillon, one of her rivals. Nemours was killed in a duel by Beaufort, and Mme. de Longueville turned her heart towards religion. She took an apartment in the convent of the Carmelites in the Rue St. Jacques. La Rochefoucauld was much interested in her conversion. He called her a "mother of the church." In his Memoirs he treats her with much severity. He describes, more than is becoming in him, all her weaknesses; he goes so far as to throw some doubt on the character of the relations of Mme. de Longueville with her brothers Condé and Conti, whose irritation at her engagement with Nemours was "more excusable in a lover than in a brother."

La Rochefoucauld, after the Fronde, had much difficulty in putting some order into his finances and in paying his debts. He fortunately found a very intelligent assistant in Gourville, who had been first a servant in his house and had by degrees become his factotum. Gourville's fortune is one of the most extraordinary of an eventful time. He was involved in the most important negotiations which ended in the Peace of the Pyrenees, employed by Condé and by Mazarin; he managed the finances of the La Rochefoucaulds as well as of the Condés; he amassed a great fortune, and in the end he married morganatically the sister of the Duke de La Rochefoucauld.

La Rochefoucauld began to turn his attention to letters, and found in them a solace, first in the company of Mme. de Sablé, and in his last years in the company and friendship of Mme. de Lafayette. Mme. de Sablé was the author of a small volume of 'Maxims' which has now become very rare. She had counted among her lovers M. de Montmorency, who was beheaded in 1632 by order of Richelieu. Tallemant des Réaulx, who was very evil-tongued, speaks of her as an "insigne catin" and calls her a "grosse dondon." She became a Jansenist in her old age, and aspired, like Mme. de Longueville, to become a "mother of the church." She had a salon, a sort of Abbaye-aux-Bois, where the fashion was to write maxims and sayings. La Rochefoucauld followed the fashion. His first maxims were composed in 1662, four years before the 'Pensées' of Pascal. Mme. de Sablé made copies of them, which were distributed among her friends. The 'Maxims,' by their conciseness, mark an epoch in French literature; they are like medals, and reduce an idea to its simple elements. Voltaire says with truth that "the 'Maxims' was one of the books which contributed most to form the taste of the nation and to give it a spirit of exactitude and precision."

About the long friendship between La Rochefoucauld and Mme. de Lafayette, there is nothing for readers of the correspondence of Mme. de Sévigné to learn. Add to what Mme. de Sévigné says what is found in Gourville's Memoirs. Gourville is not sentimental, and says coarsely that La Rochefoucauld had a great attachment for her—"à cause de la commodité dont elle lui était." La Rochefoucauld called Mme. de Lafayette "la vraie"—a fine and concise eulogy. There must have been a great charm in the society of the author of the 'Princesse de Clèves,' one of the most delicate works in the literature of the seventeenth century. The 'Princesse de Clèves' is the brightest and expiring ray of the society of the Hôtel de Rambouillet. The gouty Duke de La Rochefoucauld, and his friend, always lying on her bed "galonné d'or," are also the best representatives of a society which is the connecting link between the France of the Fronde and the France of Louis XIV.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE AND PUBLIC OPINION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the prompt punishment by the Mississippi authorities of Marshall and his abettors for the recent murder of Sinkler at Brandon Station merits all the praise it received in the last issue of the *Nation*, one incident connected with the trial has been almost universally condemned. It seems that among the array of counsel for the accused was the Democratic candidate for Governor. The more intelligent section of the Southern press has, therefore, criticised the unfortunate appearance in the case of one who is running for the office to which the pardoning power is attached. But future events may not justify the gloomy predictions of a speedy pardon.

The most encouraging feature of this fresh chapter in the long story of Southern homicide lies in the general indignation it aroused; and there is little doubt that if the accused had stood trial instead of pleading guilty, they would have received the maximum sentence of the law. Unfortunately, however, the brutality exhibited in the murder of Sinkler forms no very unusual exception to the ordinary run of such crimes: there are hundreds of similar cases. But it is reassuring to observe the birth of a new sentiment in regard to such occurrences, and even what many are inclined to regard as a mock imprisonment in the penitentiary is better than no punishment at all. It is to be hoped, moreover, that the day is not far distant when it will no longer be taken for granted in these parts that every man "totes" a revolver, which he is ready to use with savage effect whenever a blackguard may endeavor to "insult" him.

B. J. Ramage.

University of the South,
Sewanee, Tenn., August 24, 1895.

OWEN AND EVOLUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation's* notice of the 'Life of Richard Owen' (in No. 1569), I think that there is a misapprehension of Owen's actual position in regard to the doctrine of Evolution. I took a letter of introduction to him from Agassiz in about the year 1858, and I saw him from time to time until near the date of his death. He lived at Hampton Court and I at Clapham Junction, and it happened sometimes that we went out from London together. I remember very distinctly a conversation we had on the train soon after the death of Agassiz, in which he lamented that our great naturalist had held out so obstinately against Evolution, and said that if he could have had personal intercourse with him in those later days, he was convinced that he would have brought him over to a recognition of the law. His words

were: "If I could have had half-an-hour's conversation with Agassiz, I believe I could have convinced him of the truth of Evolution." He made no reserve in admitting the process of Evolution, but he did not accept Natural Selection as the sufficient and final cause of Evolution, and he insisted equally on the Divine Intelligence as the directing agency in Evolution.

He had, no doubt, in earlier years, fought hard against the apparently mechanical process of creation, as many early opponents of Evolution who now admit it considered it, because the theological bias in him was strong, as it was in Agassiz, and it was a ground of sympathy between them. With Agassiz there was another consideration which prejudiced him in the weighing of the new doctrine, in that it overstepped the limits of physical science. I remember his saying to me once, in the woods, that the question which was involved in the doctrine went into Teleology, and that this was the province of theology, not of natural science, whose business it was to observe and classify, not to investigate the final cause. Any man who has been reared in the influences of the old theology and has succeeded in freeing himself in mature life from its bias, will judge tenderly these two intellectual giants, in whom reverence for truth as they understood it was the feeling at the bottom of their science. But Owen always retained a little of the narrowness and bitterness of Scotch theology, from which Agassiz was free, and no doubt the extreme liberality of the latter's religious notions kept him from that reaction towards extreme scepticism which has been a powerful stimulant in the progress of the doctrine of Evolution. Perhaps, when we get to the end of the matter, we shall find that Agassiz was not so entirely mistaken as he is now considered.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Laufenburg, August 15, 1895.

ENGLISH LIVES OF TURGOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is a slight misstatement in the *Nation* of August 8, in the review of Stephens's Life of Turgot, or rather in the preface of the book itself and quoted by your reviewer. There *is* another Life of Turgot in English, a translation by Melville B. Anderson of the one by Léon Say, published by A. C. McClurg & Co. of Chicago in the "Great French Writers" series. This set of translations is probably not known in England; hence the author's statement.—Yours very truly,

Mary W. Plummer.

Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y., August 24.

"INDUSTRIOUSLY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Of this word there was long current, in the language of our forefathers, an acceptation which American compilers of dictionaries, without exception, pass by unrecognized. To passages exemplifying it, from Dryden and Swift, Dr. Johnson prefixes the definition "for a set purpose, with design." This, however, on the presumptuous assumption that he misunderstood his authorities, all his successors on our side of the Atlantic, Dr. Webster and the rest, alter into "with care," or else give nothing in its stead. The frequency of the by-gone occurrence of *industriously*, as distinctly one with "designedly," "purposely," "intentionally," "voluntarily," is attested by the annexed quotations:

"The chiefe remarkable thing in this Ile, from all Antiquity, is the burning Hill of Aetna. . . . The North side, toward Rindatza, at the Roote beeing vnpassable steepe, yet gathering, on all parts, so narrow to the top as if it had beene *industriously* squared." William Lithgow, *The Totall Discourse*, etc. (1632), p. 390.

"Of all which every man living, that injoyeth but the use of reason, findeth naturally within himselfe, at the very first naming of them, a plaine, complete, and satisfying notion, which is the same, without any the least variation, in all mankind, unlesse it be in such as have *industriously*, and by force, and with much labour, perplexed and depraved those primary and sincere impressions which nature had freely made in them."—Sir Kenelm Digby, *Two Treatises* (1644), vol. i., p. 6 (ed. 1645).

"Frederick perceived that his arrow had a little paper rouled about the end thereof, instead of a pile, and *industriously* accommodated." "At the end of the dance he let fall, *industriously*, his cypresse." Anon., Translation of De las Coveras's *History of Don Fenise* (1651), pp. 177, 239.

"The truth is, he *industriously* deferr'd the assailing those whom, for Oroondates sake, he lov'd." Sir Aston Cockain, Translation of Calprenede's *Cassandra* (1652), vol. i., p. 126.

"But an exact concatenation of the Series of things throughout is more than ought to be expected; no such Accuracy being *industriously* intended." Rev. Dr. Henry More, *Conjectura Cabbalistica* (1653), p. 145 (ed. 1662). "The Cherubims . . . were *industriously* hid from being any Object thereof" [*i. e.*, of worship]. Id., *A Brief Reply*, etc. (1672), p. 37.

"We have wordish Quibbles . . . studiously and *industriously* affected." Rev. John Sergeant, *Sure-footing* (1665), p. 176.

"The Romans were fond of thinking that Providence *industriously* adapted the various dispositions of its kings to the different necessities of its people." Goldsmith, *Roman History* (1769), vol. ii., p. 23 (ed. 1786).

"I had sent to the auctioneer, who could prove that the watch had been offered to him for sale, and whose evidence would, of course, have operated in my favour; but he was *industriously* out of the way." Rev. Dr. John Trusler, *Modern Times* (1785), vol. i., p. 70.

"The three pyramids of Egypt have been *industriously* built upon the first hill between Cairo and the western bank of the Nile." Rev. G. S. Faber, *Origin of Pagan Idolatry* (1816), vol. iii., p. 244. "It is not likely that this plural term would, as it were *industricusly*, have been employed in a sense so very different from that in which it everywhere else occurs." *Id.*, *Eight Dissertations* (1817), vol. i., p. 421 (ed. 1845). "But our legislator *industriously* joined the two together, employing at once both action and precept." *Id.*, *A Treatise on . . . the Dispensations* (1819), vol. ii., p. 192 (ed. 1823). Faber repeatedly uses *industriously* as in these citations.

Sedulo and *studio*, in classical Latin and in unclassical, respectively signify both "diligently" and "on purpose." When, therefore, as in several instances not here produced, their contexts being indefinite, they are rendered by "industriously," the sense which the translators intended by their choice of adverb is uncertain.

That *industriously* has often denoted "with care"—one of Dr. Webster's definitions of it, but overpassed by Dr. Johnson—is not to be denied, as I could show by numerous quotations.

The *industriously* now especially under consideration, though not corresponding, in signification, with *industrie*, is exactly equivalent to *de industria*, *ex industria*, etc., by which it was suggested.

Matching this *industriously* is *industrious*, "intentional," "purposed," etc., to which, likewise, Dr. Webster and others refuse record, as though Dr. Johnson were mistaken in supposing it to have warrant. Here follow proofs of its existence:

"It was the part of a shamelesse Cham to bee an *industrious* spectator of his father's nakednesse." Nathanael Carpenter, *Achitophel* (1629), p. 8.

"Some there are suspect this mistake to have been not involuntary, but *industrious*, in him." Hamon L'Estrange, *The Reign of King Charles* (1654), p. 188 (ed. 1656).

"His [Elijah's] *industrious* affectation of the wilderness." Rev. G. S. Faber, *Eight Dissertations* (1817), vol. i., page 269 (ed. 1845).

In its sense of "careful," *industrious* could be illustrated to profusion.

To turn to *industry*, it is not inapposite to point out that, in the seventeenth century, reminding one of *chevalier d'industrie*, it was occasionally put for "device," "scheme," "stratagem":

"Fenise, who had a subtle wit, made the Vice-Roy yet more beholden to him, teaching him an *industry* how to make these slaves feele the effect of the evill they had plotted." "On the contrary, the *industry* I have advised my selfe of tends onely to its conservation and safety." "If you please, this is the *industry* we will use." "But, if heaven inspire you with some *industry* to deliver me from the extreame torment which my soule suffereth," etc. Anon., Translation of De las Coveras's *History of Don Fenise* (1651), pp. 111, 156, 179, 188.

"And, to render their Design less perceptible, they added this *industry*, That Liante should continue in his dissatisfaction of Iphigenes," etc. Major J. Wright, Translation of Bp. Camus's *Nature's Paradox* (1652), p. 334.

"It happened that a Lord of great birth and quality . . . fell not altogether in disgrace, but in disesteem, with the Prince, by the artificious *industries* of a Favourite that loved him not." "To let him burn in a little fire, and take her vengeance in this love by a new *industry*, she makes no shew to understand these Enigma's, nor did say anything in particular." J. Jennings, Translation of *Elise* (1655), pp. 4, 135.

Of the *industry* in the foregoing quotations lexicographers know nothing, and nothing of the Gallicism *industriously*, "ingeniously":

"The first part was full of little Chambers, so *industriously* built that they seemed to be cut out of the Rocke it selfe." "The seeling was of a hollow mirror, made of many Venice glasses, so *industriously* joyned together, that, by a miracle in perspective, you would have thought your selfe to be under a vault of an extreame highnesse." William Browne, Translation of *Polexander* (1647), Part I., pp. 26, 28.

By this letter, as by many another of mine, it must have been made evident how very imperfect are nearly all existing English dictionaries, for want, on the part of their compilers, of a competent acquaintance with our literature. If not constructed on historical principles, and if not the outcome of extensive collaboration, no longer can any dictionary of our language claim to be of the first rank, on grounds that are tenable. F. H.

Marlesford, England, August 1, 1895.

Notes.

The Century Co.'s announcements for the fall season embrace 'Old Dutch and Flemish Masters,' Cole's engravings, and text by Prof. John C. Van Dyke; a wholly new edition of Gen. Grant's Memoirs, annotated by Col. F. D. Grant; 'Washington in Lincoln's Time,' by Noah Brooks; 'Electricity for Everybody,' by Philip Atkinson; 'Life in the Tuileries under the Second Empire,' by Miss Anna L. Bicknell; 'Municipal Government in Continental Europe,' by Albert Shaw; 'The Other Jungle Book,' by Rudyard Kipling; 'Kitwyk Stories,' by Anna Eichberg King; 'A Madeira Party,' by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell; 'Notes

of a Professional Exile,' by E. S. Nadal; and 'Rivalries of Long and Short Codiac,' by George Wharton Edwards.

The first autumn announcements of G. P. Putnam's Sons contain, among others, the following titles: 'The History of the Fifth Army Corps,' by Lieut.-Col. William H. Powell; 'Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages,' by Geo. Haven Putnam; 'The Literary History of the American Revolution, 1765–1783,' by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler; 'Echoes of the Playhouse: Reminiscences of some of the Past Glories of the English Stage,' by Edward Robins, jr.; 'Earthwork out of Tuscany,' by Maurice Hewlett; 'The Midsummer of Italian Art,' by Frank Preston Stearns; 'Buddhism: Its Origin, its Ethics, and its Sacred Books,' by T. W. Rhys-Davids; 'Selected Essays from Schopenhauer'; 'The Epic of the Fall of Man: A Comparative Study of Cædmon, Dante, and Milton,' by S. Humphreys Gurteen; and 'A Metrical History of the Life and Times of Napoleon,' compiled in songs and poems by William J. Hillis.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready an illustrated edition of De Amicis's 'Cuore.'

Stone & Kimball have in press a new volume of verse, 'My Lady of Dreams, and Other Poems,' by Eric Mackay.

'The Vacant Chair, and Other Poems,' by Henry Stevenson Washburn, will be published directly by Silver, Burdett & Co.

The Hakluyt Society will issue almost immediately a volume from the pen of its president, Mr. Clements R. Markham, C.B., consisting of a translation of the journal kept by Pedro Sarmiento during his voyage to Magellan's Strait in 1579–'80, supplemented by documents procured from the archives at Madrid. Another of the Society's volumes, which, under the joint care of Mr. C. A. Gosch and Mr. Miller Christy, deals with the Arctic voyages of Jens Munk and James Hall, is in the press and may be expected shortly; while a commencement has also been made with the printing of Dr. Robert Brown's edition of the 'Travels of Leo Africanus.'

The "Society of Iconophiles of New York," an inner ring of the Grolier Club, has progressed so far as to issue "publications" Nos. 1–4, of each of which only "101 impressions have been taken and the plate destroyed." The subjects chosen for illustration are "St. Paul's Chapel," "The Chancel of St. Paul's Chapel," "Fraunce's Tavern," and the "Roger Morris House"; and the plates from the burin of Mr. E. D. French make charming prints illustrative of Old New York. Each is issued in a wrapper on which are given brief historical notes concerning the subject of the plates, but these are hardly up to the quality of the engraving, for it is stated of St. Paul's that, "in 1774, Alexander Hamilton, then but seventeen years old, delivered a speech against the Stamp Act in the Chapel," though the only speech we know of Hamilton's making at that epoch was "in the fields," eight years after the Stamp Act was repealed; and, further, that "Dr. O'Meara," Lord Howe's military chaplain, preached a sermon in this church, though O'Beirne was the man. As the wrapper will in most cases be discarded, these blemishes detract in no sense from the value of the plates.

The 'Summary of the Vital Statistics of New England for the Year 1892' has just appeared (Boston: Damrell & Upham). These statistics are compiled under the direction of the secretaries of the boards of health of the New England States, and their value will be greater henceforth, as it is only since 1894 that the reports from the State of Maine have become available. In some respects the figures are still unsatisfactory, the returns of births being regarded as very incomplete in both Maine and New Hampshire. It is believed that 3,300 in Maine and 2,000 in New Hampshire should be added to the numbers reported, and this conjectural correction has been made. Even when thus increased, the New England birth-rate is lower than that of any of the principal countries except France and Ireland. The death-rate, however, is lower than that of most of these countries, while the marriage-rate is the highest known. Evidently the day of small families has come for New England, and in some of the States the number of married people having only one child is very large.

'Game Birds at Home,' by Theodore S. Van Dyke, is a dainty little volume bearing the imprint of Fords, Howard & Hulbert, New York, but copyrighted by the author, who is favorably known by previous sketches of outing and sporting, chiefly in California. 'Game Birds' consists of fourteen short stories about our best-known game birds, such as the bobwhite and other quails, several species of grouse, the turkey, woodcock, snipe, plover, various geese and ducks, and a few others. The articles are written in the vein of an enthusiastic sportsman's reminiscences, in general with much good feeling, but also with much mere sentimentalism and apparent straining for verbal effect. Those who like an extra gamey flavor in the literature of their craft will be best pleased with the book, which is a little too "high" for our taste. The description of riding into a flock of wild geese is one of Mr. Van Dyke's best.

Mr. Franklin B. Wiley (A.B. 1886) has just brought forth a new 'Harvard Guide-Book' (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever), which is both accurate and agreeable, as it is written *con amore* and enlivened with much pertinent quotation and historical anecdote, besides being copiously illustrated and supplied with a good map and reference index. It shows in a striking degree the present size of the University.

A valuable paper by Signor Vittorio Cian has been taken from the Memoirs of the Academy of Turin and published as a byprint: 'L'Immigrazione dei Gesuiti Spagnuoli letterati in Italia' (Clausen). Signor Cian begins with a study of the two currents of feeling, one favorable and the other unfavorable to the Jesuits, which were running in Italy at the time of the immigration, and describes the reception which the Spaniards received. He then goes on to an appreciation of the characteristics of the new-comers, and of their works, which overcame the prejudices by which they were at first met, and which enabled them to win their way. Incidentally he gives much interesting information on their relations with Italian writers of the time. It will be seen that his memoir does not lack immediate interest. The interrelation of literatures and their influence upon each other were, perhaps, never more studied than now.

Two recent publications, 'Les Dessous de l'Histoire: La Vérité sur Jeanne d'Arc,' by Francis André (Paris; Chamuel), and 'Le Portrait de Jeanne Darc, par un Essénien du XIXe Siècle' (same publisher), are to be recommended for perusal to those only who wish to realize what incredible absurdities the revived cult of the Pucelle occasionally calls forth. The former is a painfully pretentious treatise of nearly four hundred pages, written from the ultra-orthodox standpoint; the second, a pamphlet, fiercely anti-Catholic, yet seeing in the Maid not only a saint but the "Messiah of Nations," the "Spirit of Truth promised by Christ."

To say that passages in C. Wagner's 'La Vie Simple' (Paris: A. Colin & Co.) remind one of the seventeenth-century moralists, and again of Mme. de Maintenon's admonitions to the inmates of St. Cyr, is not praising the book too highly. The author believes in a regeneration of modern society through individual effort; his book is serious, but in no sense narrow or pessimistic. M. Wagner's previous publications have met with deserved recognition in France. His 'Jeunesse' must be known to some of our readers in Redwood's English translation, 'Youth' (Dodd, Mead & Co., 1894). We trust that this new work will be equally well received and widely read.

'Le Roman d'une Âme,' by Jean Bertheroy (Paris: Colin), is an interesting psychological study in form of a confession. With delicate frankness the heroine discloses the state of her soul during the stages of girlhood, young womanhood, and matrimony, and though her story is not entirely free from adventures beyond the bounds of conventionality, she has no transgressions of the grosser kind to record.

Daniel Lesueur, in his latest novel, 'À Force d'Aimer' (Paris and New York: A. Lemerre), relates a story of sin against society and the State, and its wages, without a morbid relish for particulars or an undue accumulation of horrors. A thread of socialism of a mild form is interwoven with the plot, and Panama Canal swindlers and Cornelius Herz are castigated under the names of the Channel Tunnel Company and M. Vallery. Some touching situations in the story are due to the author's clever use of his insight into child psychology.

Advanced students of German, and all who have occasion to use the language synthetically, will be interested in a work which, though not quite recent, has not, we believe, attracted much attention in this country: Schlessing's 'Deutscher Wortschatz, oder der passende Ausdruck' (Stuttgart: P. Neff; New York: Westermann & Co.). An explanation of its arrangement and use is here unnecessary, since the author has avowedly followed very closely Roget's 'Thesaurus,' a book which may be presumed to be within everybody's reach. Not only the general plan of the two works is the same, but the 1,000 idea-groups are identical in both to the point where the details of the English and the German "word-treasuries" make divergence unavoidable. The volume is handy, printed in good type, and comparatively inexpensive.

The *Revue Critique* of July 29, among other interesting literary announcements, says that the University of Budapest is now paying what is, in some sort, a debt of honor by the publication of the complete works of its founder, Cardinal Pazmany (1570-1637), the Magyar Bossuet, as he has been somewhat ineptly called, who not only was one of the fiercest opponents of Protestantism in the Reformation struggle in Hungary in the sixteenth century, but was also the first great prose-writer among the Magyars. His works, divided into two sections, according as they are written in Latin or in his vernacular, will be published in fourteen volumes by the theological faculty of the University. The first volume of each series has just appeared, with an introduction and notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. present the first number of a new magazine—the *Badminton*—devoted to sports and pastimes. It is edited by Mr. A. E. F. Watson, who has so successfully carried out the Badminton Library of sporting handbooks, and many of the contributors to

that excellent library have agreed to assist in the new venture. In this first number Mr. Hutchinson discourses entertainingly on the subject of Golf Championships, the Earl of Onslow on Wheeling in London, Mr. C. B. Fry on Cricket, and so forth. The print is clear, and the illustrations sufficiently numerous if not remarkable in quality. There is certainly in England, and probably here too, a large body of readers who will prefer these carefully written expert opinions on current sporting topics to the hasty and often ill-considered judgments of the daily press.

Sun and Shade for June and July (New York Photogravure Co.) presents the usual medley of plates from life and nature and art-product, but nothing calls for mention except the two specimens of color-printing in three impressions, which mark the progress of a process that is certain to be highly perfected and to have a far-reaching influence on the popularization of art.

Africa and the Polar Regions were the subjects which aroused the greatest interest at the recent Geographical Congress in London. Sir John Kirk, the veteran companion of Livingstone, introduced the former with a valuable paper on the white colonization of tropical Africa, in which he stated that this was possible only on the plateau to the north of the Zambesi, the uplands of British East Africa, and probably the mountainous districts of Abyssinia. He was followed by Henry M. Stanley, M. P., who, in a characteristic speech, urged the feasibility of colonization, but said that commercial development was all for which he looked at present. The feature of the session, however, was the deeply interesting account given by Slatin Pasha of his escape from his eleven years' captivity, and of the present condition of the Mahdist Sudan. He confirmed the death of Gordon, of which some have always doubted, by saying that, after his murder on the highest steps of his palace, "his head was severed from his body and was mockingly shown to me as I lay in irons." The culminating point of interest in the discussion upon the Polar Regions was reached when Herr Borchgrevinck (described by Dr. John Murray as "the first man, perhaps, who had put his foot upon the earth of the Antarctic continent") gave his graphic account of his voyage in an Australian whaler last winter as a man before the mast. He closed with an earnest appeal for the sending out of a scientific expedition to those regions, saying that he himself was "perfectly ready and willing to become the leader of a landing party to remain throughout the winter months at Cape Adair," on the continent. From this point the South magnetic Pole was only 160 miles distant, and he believed that it would be quite possible to reach it with dogs and sledges. A resolution was adopted by the Congress recommending the several scientific societies throughout the world to urge this work, "the greatest piece of geographical exploration still to be undertaken."

A new hurricane station has been established in Yucatan, and observations will be cabled from Mérida to New Orleans during the hurricane season, or when severe storm development is noticed. This station is the first link in what will probably be a long chain of stations along the borders of the Gulf. In this plan a thorough coöperation on the part of the Mexican Meteorological Bureau will, it is hoped, be secured, as it would be of the greatest assistance.

But one MS. was received in competition for the prize of $400 given by Dr. Gould's *Astronomical Journal* "for the most thorough discussion of the theory of the rotation of the earth with reference to the recently discovered variations of latitude." The paper was sent and the prize received by Prof. Newcomb. The other prize, of $200, was given to Mr. Paul S. Yendell, who made the best series of determinations of maximum and minimum of variable stars.

A year ago the students of history and geography in the University of Paris were invited to prepare, during the year, theses on subjects to be chosen by themselves and to be approved by the faculty. A score of young men responded to the appeal of their teachers and were then left to their own resources. Their examination and the discussion of their papers took place recently before two committees, presided over by MM. Himly and Lavisse, and the results proved to be most gratifying, five or six of the productions being, according to M. E. Lavisse, worthy of immediate publication, and others requiring but little additional labor. This new test of proficiency entitles the successful student to a new kind of diploma ("d'études supérieures d'histoire et de géographie"), which may be taken even by those not holding the bachelor's degree. It is hoped that foreigners also will avail themselves of this opportunity of obtaining recognition of their work in the University after a comparatively brief residence. A new effort to attract foreign students is being made by the "Comité de Patronage des Étudiants Étrangers," which, at a meeting held recently at the Sorbonne, formed a Franco-American committee with MM. Bréal, Levasseur, Lavisse, and others as members, and M. Paul Melon as secretary.

A genuine American artist, and no less genuine man, Mr. Thomas Hovenden, who lately sacrificed his own life in endeavoring to save another's, is worthily commemorated in the series of imperial panel photographs for which Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has won distinction.

—The death on Monday of Mr. Henry O. Houghton, founder of the Riverside Press and head of the eminent Boston publishing-house of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., was not unexpected, though he went to his office, if not to business, to the very last. He was a native of Vermont, born in 1823, and a graduate in 1846 of the University of Vermont. His first partnership as a publisher was with the late M. M. Hurd, and he gradually fell heir to the houses of Ticknor & Fields and Osgood, which gave his firm a practical monopoly of the New England classics in prose and in verse, and insured its remarkable prosperity. Mr. Houghton's business sagacity was not more marked than his kindness of heart, and his relations to his employees of the Riverside Press were most exemplary. He had, too, a pride in his function as publisher which sometimes led him to embark in enterprises without the hope of profit, like the magnificent issue of Prof. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads.' His views in regard to international copyright were tinged at first with the spirit of protectionism, or, in other words, with provincialism; but he soon found himself in accord with the new order. His genial presence will be much missed; his name will doubtless long be handed down in the imprint of his associates and successors.

—The remains of Sergeant Floyd were reinterred at Sioux City on August 20, in the grave where they had been discovered last June. His skull, of which plaster casts had been secured, was enclosed in an urn made for the purpose, with inscriptions cut into the material. With the skull was placed a copy of Floyd's journal, which he had kept up until the second day before his death, and which, as printed last year by the American Antiquarian Society, was the first narrative of the Lewis and Clark expedition that came from the press as its author wrote it, unmarred by editorial improvements. The day was hot, but a crowd, clustering around the grave, hung like a swarm of bees all over the narrow and sharp bluff. Prof. James D. Butler of the Wisconsin Historical Society had brought from the archives of that association the original of Floyd's Journal, which he held in his hand while delivering a funeral discourse. Other speeches were made; the urn and a casket containing other bones were deposited in the grave among decayed fragments of the Floyd coffin. The spot was marked by a slab of limestone about 8x3 feet and a foot thick, on which the following legend had been engraved: "Sergeant Charles Floyd, died August 20, 1804. Remains removed from 600 feet west and reburied at this place May 20, 1857. This stone placed August 20, 1895." In the evening Dr. Elliott Coues, editor of the admirably painstaking reprint of Biddle's narrative based upon the journals of Lewis and Clark, delivered a lecture on the expedition, which he summarized and celebrated as "our national epic of exploration," and was followed by Prof. Butler with a plea for some grand memorial in honor of Floyd.

—The languishing condition of the book trade in France is discussed by M. Albert Cim in the *Revue Encyclopédique* of July 15 and August 1. He confines himself mainly to new publications of the size published at 3 fr. 50c., and usually sold for 2 fr. 75c. Considering first the proper season for launching books on the market, he observes that formerly October was the favorite month, as marking the end of the vacation; but the present preponderance of opinion inclines in favor of March, April, and May, for a variety of reasons. People have no time to read in winter, being taken up with theatres and social duties, while, in summer, book-buyers, consisting mostly of ladies, are at a loss what to do with themselves, and have to read as a last resort. Then, again, books published in October and November have hardly appeared before they are driven out of view by the rising tide of gift-books that floods the book-stores in December; and when the tide has ebbed, they have already lost the charm of novelty, so that they are unable to compete with the fresher harvest of January. In like manner the newspaper reviews of books published in the autumn have to stand over till the new year to make room for notices of the holiday publications which have the right of way. And at this point M. Cim takes up the question as to what is the efficacy of newspaper notices of new books. Twelve or fifteen years ago a puffing notice, an "echo," on the first page of one of the leading journals was amply worth to a publisher the 300 or 400 francs that he had to pay for ten lines. Ten years ago the advertising manager of Hachette & Co. said to M. Cim: "As soon as an article on one of our books appears in the *Journal des Débats* (which has a circulation of only 9,000 copies), we notice the effect in the calls for copies the same evening." But the thing was overdone, and now the public declines to be fooled by the most elegant "derangement of epitaphs." As for the more literary book reviews, they have

ceased to appear. Publishers generally send at least two copies of their publications to every journal, one for the manager and one for the reviewer. These copies are always accompanied by a ready-made puffing review, usually prepared by the author himself, and bearing the request, "Please insert." By inserting this notice the manager saves the salary of the reviewer, and can keep both copies of the book. It may be noted, however, that in many cases the reviewer draws no pay at all, and gets nothing but the book.

—Among various other reasons for the decline of the reading habit, M. Cim mentions the bicycle fever, which has also injured the business of the theatres, cafés, etc.; the quantity of reading-matter furnished by the newspapers; the excessive production of books, many of which are published for account of the authors, who are usually out of pocket by the venture. The booksellers have endeavored to arrest the decline of their business by forming a syndicate, which has entered into negotiations with the publishers' syndicate with a view to fixing uniform prices and trade discounts, and cutting off the supplies of dealers who undersell. This measure was principally aimed at the large department or dry-goods establishments, like the Bon Marché and the Louvre, which have taken over bookselling and obtain extra discounts by buying large quantities. Booksellers appear to be vanishing in France as rapidly as elsewhere, especially since publishers have begun to announce that they will mail books free of postage on receipt of the regular price. Popular authors, however, do not suffer from the general neglect of literature. Zola heads them all. Of 'La Débâcle' 187,000 were sold, of 'Nana' 171,000, of 'L'Assommoir' and of 'Lourdes' 132,000, of 'La Terre' 113,000. He first sells the serial rights to some newspaper or magazine, and, when his novels appear in book form, he receives a royalty of 75 centimes (15 cents) per copy. The customary royalty is 10 per cent. of the gross retail price, but occasionally rises as high as 60 centimes for volumes at 3fr. 50c.

—A German translation of Freeman's 'History of Sicily,' by Bernhard Lupus of Strassburg, of which the first volume has just been published (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner), is noteworthy for the close fidelity of its rendering, which is attained without sacrificing idiomatic ease of style. It is, indeed, a readable and attractive book, and its literary value is even greater than that of the original, inasmuch as it embodies a number of rectifications and additions in Freeman's appendices, and contains a fuller index, as well as more complete maps. Thus, for Freeman's general map of Sicily it substitutes Kiepert's, which contains more names of places. The translation has one peculiarity which is due to Freeman's diffuseness of style. It is generally assumed, and with justice, that the English language is more concise than the German, and can express the same meaning in fewer words; in the book before us the reverse is sometimes the case. Thus, in one instance the translator uses fourteen words to render what Freeman needs eighteen for, in another thirty-eight German words give us everything that Freeman said in forty-eight. Even a German *Gelehrter*, however, is not quite infallible, and there are occasional minor slips, as when "countless" is translated "endlos," instead of "unzälig," or "zahllos"; but these are unimportant and infrequent inaccuracies. Five volumes are promised, covering the period from B. C. 735 to 241, all that Freeman finished; a supplementary sixth volume will treat of the Norman conquest of Sicily as far as Freeman completed it. Expected works by Adolf Holm, Lothar von Heinemann, and Ettore Pais will probably complete the story that Freeman left half told. Of the mechanical execution of the book it is enough to say that it is worthy of the great reputation of Teubner.

—*Hamlet's* brutality to *Ophelia* is perhaps the hardest thing to understand in Shakspere. The editors and critics are baffled by it. The players have met the difficulty variously, but only by dint of interpolated action. Now comes a little book with an explanation which looks paradoxical, but which is so logically and persuasively presented, and with such appeals to evidence, that one is inclined to accept it and even to wonder if it has not always been one's own opinion. We refer to Mr. John Corbin's 'The Elizabethan Hamlet' (London: Mathews; New York: Scribners). Mr. Corbin proves—we think this is not too strong a word—that in the lost pre-Shaksperian "Hamlet," ascribed by Sarrazin to Thomas Kyd, the assumed madness of the hero had a comic aspect. In explaining why this is so, he throws light on the temper of an Elizabethan audience towards insanity and physical suffering. We are thus prepared to assent when, reminding us of Shakspere's ways in making over an old drama, he concludes that, in the first draught of Shakspere's "Hamlet," some traces of this archaic element of brutal comedy were retained, and that these were not refined out of existence when, in the later version, the character of *Hamlet* was deepened and the whole play ennobled. Mr. Corbin's procedure is scientific, and gives him occasion to discuss many questions of sources and versions. Into these we cannot enter in a brief notice. Though recently issued, the essay has already raised a very pretty debate, the progress of which we shall watch with interest.

COURTHOPE'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH POETRY.

A History of English Poetry. By W. J. Courthope, M.A. Vol. I. The Middle Ages: Influence of the Roman Empire—The Encyclopædic Education of the Church—The Feudal System. Macmillan. 1895.

ANY extended work on English literature from the pen of a critic so able as Mr. Courthope would call for more than passing notice. The volume before us, however, will attract unusual attention, for it deals with a period not heretofore regarded as this author's peculiar domain—the Middle Ages. No one could doubt from what point of view Mr. Courthope would contemplate his subject. His creed was laid down some ten years ago in his brilliant, if partisan, 'Liberal Movement in English Literature.' Indeed, the 'History' now beginning is an attempt to carry out in elaborate application the principles set forth in this earlier work—particularly in the lectures on "The Conservatism of the Eighteenth Century" and "Wordsworth's Theory of Poetry." Holding that all great poetry expresses the thoughts and feelings not merely of the poet, but of his people or his time, Mr. Courthope rejects as a critical process the method of "appreciation," or, as he phrases it, the method "which seeks to explain the character of all masterpieces of literature and art by personal sympathy and intuition." Such a method seems to him a kind of divination. Its results, therefore, are more likely to reflect the idiosyncrasy of the diviner than to reveal the truth. It is the business of the literary historian not so much to furnish biographies with appraisements and specimens as to define the influences, foreign or native, to which literature has been subjected, and to trace their fluctuations from age to age. These influences are, in Mr. Courthope's view, identical with those to be traced in political, religious, and social history; for the poet is, to him, rather the spokesman or interpreter than the creator, and utters not his own message, but the message of his time. In literature, as in politics, Mr. Courthope has a deep distrust of individualism and innovation. This distrust, besides making his general theory of poetical activity somewhat mechanical and depressing, affects his historical perspicacity and his sense of proportion. Constantly on the alert to detect a reason for the form or the matter of poetry in the thoughts or manners of a whole people or a class, he habitually underestimates the influence exerted by a great poet on his contemporaries and successors: His abrupt rejection of Gray's classification of English poetry on the ground that "the 'schools' of which [Gray] speaks existed only in a metaphor borrowed from the art of painting," illustrates the tendency to which we refer. Another illustration will be observed in his chapter on the Early Renaissance, where the distinctly literary influences at work are not duly emphasized in comparison with the stress laid on the political movements of the time. However, when all deductions have been made, the method pursued by Mr. Courthope is a sound one. It is well that the continuity of literary tradition and the essential unity of all literary study should be strenuously insisted on, particularly now, when teachers and educational theorists are prone to overlook this unity and to foment an illogical opposition between one department of literary study and another, setting up English, for example, against Greek, or the modern languages against the ancient. If Mr. Courthope finishes his 'History' in the spirit in which he has begun it, its general effect on the study of literature cannot fail to be good, whatever flaws may appear in the execution of the work.

After defining his method and the scope of his book, Mr. Courthope proceeds to "The Character and Sources of Mediæval Poetry." Then follow two chapters on Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman poetry. In the second of these the author attempts a history of the Saxon-Norman fusion of race so far as that fusion affected language, national character, culture, and imagination. This brings him to "The Early Renaissance." We have then a chapter on Langland, another on Chaucer, and one chapter each for "The Epical School of Chaucer," "The Progress of Allegory," "The Rise of the Drama," and "The Decay of English Minstrelsy." "A Retrospect" collects the threads.

The author makes every effort to reduce this varied material to order. Yet, in spite of his long preface, his careful "analysis of contents," his numbered headings, his repetitions, and his references backward and forward, the demonstration is not always easy to follow. Not that one's attention flags, for there are no dull pages in the volume. The difficulty comes rather from a kind of vagueness or wavering, produced—to adopt Mr. Courthope's favorite form of statement—by three causes: (1) a fondness for division and subdivision, resulting in a complex expository machinery; (2) a habit of conducting the argument in terms of abstractions; and (3) an inaccurate and frag-

mentary acquaintance with the details of the subject. Of these qualities the first two are perhaps inseparable from Mr. Courthope's method; it is their combination with the third which does the mischief.

The qualities to which we refer are all illustrated in the extremely interesting chapter on the "Character and Sources of Mediæval Poetry." In this chapter the author argues brilliantly in support of his main thesis of literary continuity. He admits no hiatus between the decay of the Hellenic culture and the revival of learning. He denies that Hellenism and Christianity have been opposed to each other in the intellectual development of the world. Christianity, he contends, alone prevented the fabric of Roman civilization from falling to pieces. The Church, necessarily succeeding the effete Empire as a centralizing force, was the only power that could perpetuate any kind of culture. In modifying the encyclopædic education of later paganism to suit the needs of a transformed social and political order, it operated not as a destroying but as a conservative agency, for it kept alive some faint memory of the classic traditions while society was settling itself upon a new basis. Thus, when time was ripe, the revival of learning came by an easy and natural process, and not as a volcanic outburst of forces long held in repression. So far Mr. Courthope's argument —which will be recognized as identical with that in his essay on the "Conservatism of the Eighteenth Century"—is developed with brilliancy and vigor. But when he attempts to take the next step, and to account for "the extraordinary difference between classical and modern poetry," he loses his footing. His labored exposition, worked out with a complicated series of subheadings, and presenting the appearance of the utmost fulness, is in fact confused both chronologically and genetically, vague at points where sharp definition is imperative, and excessively incomplete. He has no competent knowledge of the difficult questions that obscure the origin and development of "popular" poetry and its relations to the poetry of art. He talks much of the *chanson de geste* and the *roman*, but he has no clear idea of their genesis and their place in literary history. The account given of the Charlemagne cycle is a shred; that of the romances of the Round Table is pathetically futile. He informs us that "the simple Teutonic *lied*, or lay, branches into such various kinds of epic composition as the *dit* (dicere), the *fabliau* (fabula), the *roman* (romanus), and such lyrical varieties as the *ballad* (balla), the *sonnet* (sonare), the *chanson* or *canzone* (canere)." And in general he exhibits such ignorance of the achievements of modern scholarship as must deprive his 'History' of all claim to be referred to as authoritative.

This unfavorable judgment is only confirmed when we examine the remainder of the volume. The treatment of Anglo-Saxon and Middle English is conspicuously incompetent. At the outset we are confronted with the following dictum: "Between the poetry produced in England before the Norman Conquest and the poetry of Chaucer there is absolutely no link of connection. In the poems of the Anglo-Saxons the general reader finds an expression of the mind of a nation cut off from the long tradition of civilization almost as completely as the Britons before they were brought under the Roman Empire." Though this utterance reveals itself later as merely a rhetorical exaggeration into which Mr. Courthope is betrayed in his revolt against those scholars who unduly magnify the Anglo-Saxon element in our literature, still the exaggeration is so monstrous as to make us approach the chapter on Anglo-Saxon poetry with some disquietude. Nor are our misgivings groundless. The superficiality displayed is not creditable to a writer of Mr. Courthope's standing. The errors, omissions, and fantastic disproportions of the chapter are hard to reconcile with a conscientious effort to get at trustworthy sources of knowledge. The solemn excursus on the composition of 'Béowulf' and the uninstructed notes on Cædmon will amuse such of our readers as happen to be acquainted with the present state of information on these subjects. The last few pages of the chapter are devoted to a sketch of the "decomposition of the Anglo-Saxon language." This sketch bids defiance to chronology, dialectology, and morphology, and could have been written only by a man profoundly ignorant of Anglo-Saxon and Middle-English as well as of the general workings of linguistic law.

Scarcely more successful are the author's observations on the history of English metre—a subject on which he has expended some time and thought, and to which he often reverts in the course of the volume. To begin with, he knows very little about Anglo-Saxon versification. His description of it is derived from the 'Corpus Poeticum Boreale'; he has apparently never heard of the researches of Sievers, and no echoes of the strife now raging between the two-accent party and the four-accent party have disturbed his studies. With regard to Middle-English metre he is scarcely better informed. When he tries to explain how the preservation or decay of inflections is related to the development of versification, he becomes hopelessly confused. He is also quite unable to distinguish between Latin and French influence on the native measures. A cæsural dot, accidentally misplaced, leads him far astray in his scansion of Robert of Gloucester (p. 150). That the history of Middle-English alliterative verse is unknown to him, except in a fragmentary fashion, is shown both by what he says and by what he neglects to say. The omissions we have no space to record; of the distortions the closing paragraph of the chapter on Langland may serve as an instance. The sections on the metre of Chaucer and his successors require correction throughout. How patient the corrector must be, our readers can infer from the following sentence (p. 340):

> "In a word, the syntax of Occleve, as well as the prosody of Lydgate, shows the tendency of the native Anglo-Saxon element to revolt against those foreign laws of grammar and harmony which had been imposed on the English language by the cultivated genius of Chaucer."

This single utterance betrays such misconceptions that it is almost enough to prove Mr. Courthope unfit to discuss Middle-English Literature, and indeed much of his discussion will not pass muster. In the first place, he is unable to read the language correctly, as his amusing errors in translation show.* Then he has too narrow an acquaintance with the literature of the period to enable him either to select with the best judgment or to generalize soundly. From the Conquest to Langland he treats Middle-English poetry mostly in connection with that of the Anglo-Normans, and in neither field is his guidance safe. He has not succeeded in defining the literary relations of the Anglo-Normans to France, or in distinguishing Anglo-Norman influence on English literature from French influence. He is almost equally at fault with regard to the literary relations of Wales with the Anglo-Normans and of the Normans with Brittany. The vexed Celtic question cannot be settled by referring to Pomponius Mela, Venantius Fortunatus, and the Abbé de la Rue! His "three well-defined stages" of Anglo-Norman poetry are not quite intelligible. In describing "the second and most important" of them, "extending from the close of the reign of Henry II. to the reign of Henry III.," he involves himself in hopeless confusion, especially with regard to the prose romances of the Round Table. "The third stage," he continues, "is marked by the works of Marie de France." One is somewhat startled at first by this chronological overturn, but the reason for it is soon apparent: Mr. Courthope has had the misfortune to follow obsolete authorities, and hence he has put Marie in the reign not of Henry II., but of Henry III.—a blunder that brings on serious consequences. It would be hard to devise a phrase less true to the facts than that in which he defines Marie's "great merit as a poet" as "the skill with which she has blended the opposing elements of the *fabliau* and the romance." The *fabliau*, we may add, has been already described as "the offspring of the primitive genius of the tribesman brought into contact with city life"—a bizarre definition, which makes the character just given to Marie seem the more perverse.

After this, one is not surprised to find Mr. Courthope's account of Middle-English poetry distorted and incomplete. One serious defect is his neglect of the metrical romances. If he had known something of these interesting compositions, he could not have failed to perceive the important bearing which several of them have on matters with which his book is vitally concerned. Some knowledge of 'Ywain and Gawain,' for example, would have given him light on the literary significance of Chrétien de Troyes. The mere reading of 'Gawain and the Green Knight' would have suggested to him a number of important observations which we miss at present. How much his chapter on Chaucer suffers from his neglect of this class of Middle-English poems our readers will easily imagine.

Under the rubric of "The Early Renaissance" Mr. Courthope has contrived to include a consideration of Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, of the 'Roman de la Rose,' of Wright's 'Political Songs' in Latin, French, and English, and of Laurence Minot. This is accomplished by means of an excessively vague definition. To him the Renaissance is a complex movement arising from "(1) a general recognition of the authoritative theory of life in church and state; (2) an equally widespread sense that this theory was not working in harmony with the actual requirements of human society; and (3) an attempt to give expression in the vernacular speech to the thoughts awakened by the sense of discord." The treatment is ingenious and suggestive, but it illustrates in a striking manner the dangers of the author's method. He is so bent on making the Renaissance out to be the inevitable consequence of slowly and obscurely working political and social causes that he undervalues the workings of another cause of a less occult character: we refer, of course, to deliberate literary imitation inspired by the wish to emulate the ancients. We must confess, too, that we doubt the soundness of a definition which allows one to introduce Laurence Minot as an exponent or even an unconscious forerunner of

*See, for example, pp. 130, 132, 133, 188, 189, 241. The strange fashion in which an extract from the 'Ormulum' is printed at p. 123 may be compared with the alleged Anglo-Saxon that disfigures pp. 106 and 244.

the Renaissance. Apart from questions of theory, however, the chapter contains one huge error in a matter of fact. We refer to the Courts of Love, which Mr. Courthope regards as highly significant phenomena, and which occupy a correspondingly important position in his discourse. Unfortunately, the latest news which he has heard on the matter is some seventy-five or eighty years old, and in the meantime scholars have not been idle. Thus it happens that his remarks are written—to repeat the words of a distinguished Italian whose elegant brochure on this subject would have been a revelation to Mr. Courthope—"con un candore di fede, un' ignoranza d'ogni dubbio, degni davvero del paradiso."

From Laurence Minot the author turns directly to Langland. A comparison of 'Piers Plowman' with the 'Divine Comedy' is the medium through which he looks at the art and purposes of Langland and at his place in our poetry, and not unnaturally his views are considerably affected by the nature of the medium. Still, there are many good remarks in the chapter, and the comparison, though the points of similarity and of contrast are occasionally forced, was on the whole worth making. Unfortunately, the author has not entirely recovered from the long-prevalent delusion which regarded Langland as a kind of belated Anglo-Saxon addressing the vulgar in the faltering metrical accents of a "last minstrel." Two curious blunders require a word. One is the notion that "Langland derived his conception of allegory mainly from the Miracle Plays." The other is contained in the remark that in the thirteenth century "no French poet seems to have raised his voice against the intolerable exactions and exaggerated luxury which attended the decay of feudalism." Mr. Courthope has heard of Eustache Deschamps—for he refers to his *ballade* to Chaucer—but apparently he knows him as a panegyrist only.

The long chapter on Chaucer is far from satisfactory. We have already adverted to the author's false conception of Chaucer's relations to the English language and English metre. His errors on these points are not merely discreditable in themselves; they seriously affect the accuracy of his general estimate of the poet. It may as well be said in plain terms that Mr. Courthope is no Chaucerian. He is but imperfectly acquainted with the work of his predecessors, and he does not always use with accuracy such sources of information as are accessible to him. Further, he does not know Chaucer's language quite well enough to read it without some limping sense of its remoteness. On no other theory can we account for the amazing assertion that "Chaucer rarely attempts the pathetic," and that "when he does, he usually has recourse to the machinery of interjections and apostrophes, by way of hinting to his audience that it is time to display a little emotion." Chaucer's humor, too, does not always reveal itself to him. Witness the solemnity with which he surveys "The House of Fame," and the result of the survey—the statement that "the poet wishes to present a moral and metaphysical view of the world in emulation of Dante." Another discovery is that the impatience of the Knight and the Host in the "The Monk's Tale" indicates "the dislike with which [Chaucer] and a large number of his countrymen regarded the educational discipline of the cloister." Frivolous is the remark that in the character of Pandarus "Shakespeare had afterwards merely to fill in the dramatic outline Chaucer had sketched." To call Chaucer's carefully finished delineation "an outline" is bad enough, but to imply that Shakspere's Pandarus is the same character as Chaucer's Pandarus is to forswear criticism.

We must hurry over the remaining chapters. In "The Epical School," Gower, Lydgate, and Hoccleve are discussed at some length, but no new light is thrown on the period, and there are, as usual, grave errors in matters of detail. We may specify the account of the supposed quarrel between Chaucer and Gower, and the excursus on Lydgate's verse. In the next chapter Mr. Courthope tries to show that "the development of allegory reflects very accurately the internal changes that modified the structure of society and men's system of thought during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries." The attempted demonstration is incomplete and not well-proportioned, and it is somewhat hampered by the perplexing machinery which the author insists on employing, but it contains a number of excellent observations. Of "The Rise of the Drama in England" the less said the better. It is one of the weakest chapters in the volume. The author has nothing new to tell us; he has not even presented a good account of what is already known.

More remarkable is "The Decline of Minstrelsy" in England. In this, with unwearied confidence in the exhaustiveness of his researches, Mr. Courthope undertakes to treat the extremely difficult subject of minstrels—scalds, *scopas* (*scôpas*, as he prints it, holding fast to an obsolete etymology), jongleurs, mimi, ballad singers—what not?—to trace the history of the metrical romance, and finally to unveil the whole mystery of the English ballad. We shall not follow Mr. Courthope in his wanderings. His conclusion, as we should expect, is to the effect that the ballad, "so far from being a spontaneous product of popular imagination, was a type of poem adapted, by the professors of the declining art of minstrelsy, from the romances once in favor with the educated classes." No doubt this conclusion, announced with much assurance by so distinguished a littérateur and supported by the appearance of learning, will be widely quoted and widely accepted. As a matter of fact, however, it is of no value. Mr. Courthope's acquaintance with mediæval literature, with Germanic and Romance philology, and with the theories and reasonings of scholars on the subject of *Volkspoesie*, is too slight to entitle his opinion on any of the subjects discussed to more weight than that which attaches to the *aperçu* of a clever amateur. The whole chapter, we regret to say, has no scientific importance.

We have been forced to criticise the work of Mr. Courthope with some severity; but we do not wish to belittle its merits. It abounds in good critical remarks and instructive generalities; it stimulates thought; it follows an enlightened method; it is written in a finished and attractive style; it breathes a spirit of admirable moderation. These are qualities which insure the book an influence alike extensive and lasting, and it is with this fact in mind that we have allowed our critique to occupy itself mainly with the author's limitations. The volume deserves a place in the library of every lover of letters, but it cannot be resorted to as a storehouse of trustworthy information. We look with some eagerness for the continuation of the work, for, in the parts that are to follow, the author will be upon ground with which he is well acquainted.

HARTMANN'S ESSAYS.

The Sexes Compared, and Other Essays. By Edward von Hartmann. Selected and translated by A. Kenner, M.A. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1895. Pp. xl, 164.

It is difficult to avoid the supposition that the reader of a respectable publishing-house must have been nodding, or even half asleep, when he decided to issue this volume of essays. Neither in selection nor in execution does the venture seem to have been a happy hit. Among the subjects discussed are "Our Relation to Animals," "The Need of Books," and "My Relation to Schopenhauer." It is difficult to imagine who the readers are that will be interested in a repetition of the self-evident considerations which can be brought to bear against the anti-vivisectionists; in an argument for the reading of better books which involves the undertaking of the bookselling business by the post-office and the persuading of young men to postpone all participation in politics and even all reading of the newspapers until "about" their thirtieth year; and at the same time in the fact that between the Abstract One-Being and the subjective-ideal phenomena of consciousness there exists for Hartmann the objective-real (transcendental) phenomenal world of many individuals, while Schopenhauer, on the other hand, goes in for an internal development of the one will into several non-temporal acts of will, or intelligible characters of species and individuals. And it is equally difficult to imagine how any one who might have been interested in these essays in their original tongue could be able to preserve a serious frame of mind in reading this translation.

As a compendium of curiously meaningless sentences, the book is not without its charm; it would be unfair to our readers to withhold from them a taste of the good things which it contains. We are told not only that young men should shun newspapers, but also that "older men must cease to conveniently invest periodic literature with unmerited value." It is suggested that for the needy author a society should be formed "which will subject the manuscripts sent in to an honorary examination, and publish at its own cost those deemed worthy of publication." The imagination loses itself in trying to make out the nature of this "honorary" examination. We hear of a "nervous world-disgust, with its sickly harmoyance," of "the cloak of a transcendant religionism," and of a pessimistic theory which ends in Diskoly. "It would be very desirable to solve this technical problem, namely, to discover a method of issuing smaller editions, say 100 to 500 copies, which should be cheaper than the letterpress and at the same time present the usual appearance of small and large type." "Young men have never before put so high a price on their bachelorhood, and hope they might be spared the disappointment of marrying a poor maid." "For (as in England) it is the private house which enables one to keep a library for oneself. . . ." "It would also give to the school the opportunity of furthering such studies, as the history of art, with real use." "The cry against the increasing mortgages of large landed estates should be directed against the impetus given to the rapid rise in the prices of goods, by the advance in the habits of those families directly or indirectly deriving their daily bread from them."

And this is the standard which Mr. Kenner

(mistaken name!) attains in the translation of poetry:

"Longing is the world's great secret,
All creation's growth and glow;
Towards everlasting concord
One eternal effort show."

There is no doubt that the interest in German metaphysics is on the wane in Germany. The vigorous young men of the universities devote themselves more and more to hard and close-grained science; in particular, those who have the philosophical turn of mind have a feeling of uneasiness if they have not had a good grounding in experimental psychology, and sound German thinkers are less and less imposed upon by the all-embracing and incomprehensible "systems" of the metaphysicians. A large part of the admiration which the plain scientific man has felt for them has come from the fact that they can keep their head in the midst of considerations of a tremendous degree of abstractness and complexity. That they keep their head wholly *straight*, no rival metaphysician, at least, will for a moment admit. That their logic is sometimes childishly weak, the scientific man cannot know, for he has no time to read their books; but their safeguard lies in writing nothing but metaphysics, and to issue volumes of popular essays is nothing less than reckless carelessness on their part.

It would be a grateful task to show up the tissue of unrealities and inconsequences which constitute Hartmann's proof that his "pessimism" is a comforting doctrine, but it would take too much space. One instance, however, of the course of the reasoning may be given, because it is so extremely typical of metaphysical reasoning in general. He says: "Selfish love *forgets* that in the posthumous life the countless souls are as indistinguishable from each other as the pebbles on the seashore." Monism, that form of it which accepts a future life and a loss of individuality, is a speculation which it may please some minds to make, but it is not a thesis of which any one human mind can hope to convince any other, nor is it a thesis which offers much interest to those who like to keep their grounded beliefs distinct from their poetry. But Hartmann, having offered a loose argument or two in favor of it, treats it as if it were an established truth, and proceeds to berate his opponent for having "forgotten" to include it among his premises. We must make room also for this passage (correctly summed up by the translator), which is enough to make one's head swim:

"We must base our conduct to [*sic*] animals on justice and not on sympathy. It is a mistake to think that animal torture is due to the deadening of the sympathetic sense. On the contrary, without a powerful capacity for feeling the pains of others, no pleasure would be derived from these barbarously depraved practices. Sympathy, then, is a false principle of conduct, and must be displaced by justice."

That Hartmann is no more capable of comprehending either the nature or the results of science than the scientist is of reading Hartmann, will be sufficiently evident from a single quotation, probably the most delicious scientific statement that has ever yet been printed: "Owing to the senseless bloodletting of the last century, we have become an anæmic and chlorotic race." And as a contribution to methodology, which it is to be hoped that future metaphysicians will take warning by, we must reproduce the following *argumentum ad hominem* in favor of building up one's system by inductive reasoning rather than by deductive:

"This difference is of the greatest importance. For as soon as we assume the fundamental principle of a deductive system, we must, willy-nilly, accept every part of it which has been demonstrated to be the result of a formally correct syllogism. In an inductive system, however, we need only ascend the pyramid as far as we like. . . . It is this crowning point of my system which has led to a condemnation and a refutation of the whole of my philosophy, notwithstanding that this proceeding could only be justified if my system were deductive and not inductive."

It will readily be imagined that Hartmann's discussion of the woman question is antiquated in the extreme. He considers that every woman has failed in the performance of her duty if she has not become the mother of eleven children—"two before the twentieth year, five in the twenties, three in the thirties, and one in the forties—eleven in all"; that "the postponement of the average nuptial age of girls till the twenty-seventh year is unnatural; . . . several children which might have been produced will forever be lost to the world"; and that "maidens cannot learn too early that it is . . . their task to add to the state as many sound and well-trained citizens as they are capable of producing, so that it may engage triumphantly in the struggle for national existence." He forgets the terrible strain which would be put upon individual existence were all "maidens" to take his advice seriously. Most modern German writers, too, consider that the serious economic evils under which Germany already labors are due to over-population, and Hegar, who has written the most important book on the subject, speaks wholly in favor, for Germany, of what he calls the *Zwei Kinder System*, which has so long prevailed in France. Hartmann believes that the chief source of present-day ills is girls' high schools, and he would gladly "put an end to this system with one stroke, and set our daughters back to the level of education with which our grandmothers were satisfied." A girl's school life renders her too refined and cultured to perform "her natural and social [*sic*] duties—nursing and housework." "From the sixteenth to the twentieth year she is therefore compelled to spend her time in idleness, if she is not engaged in scientific or artistic studies, which render her still more unfit for her future occupation as housewife." And one-third of the volume is devoted to berating women for not doing all their own housework, with the occasional assistance of a charwoman for the roughest part of it. If German women, with the absolute absorption which they show in the labors of the household, are still not able to satisfy German philosophers, they are indeed to be pitied. The Germans do not know that half the pleasure of life consists in social intercourse between men and women of a common degree of intelligence. And Hartmann has not one word to show that he is aware of the belief which other nations hold, that part, at least, of the function of the mother is to see that her children grow up to be graceful, intelligent, and high-minded human beings. What interest can his treatment of the subject have for English-speaking people?

The Story of the Expansion of Southern Africa. By A. Wilmott. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. 1895.

THE great British colonies of Australia and South Africa and (to Europeans) Canada have now somewhat the same position in the eyes of the world that the United States had in the eyes of Europe early in the century. They are looked on as rather unknown regions, occasionally visited from motives of curiosity, where there are great tracts of land inhabited by a few not over-civilized settlers, and where the cities, like the fashions, are merely rough copies of better models. Australia vaguely suggests convicts, sheep-farms, and kangaroos; South Africa, diamonds, gold-mines, and Zulus. Their history or politics appears to have little interest or importance for the rest of mankind.

Of the three, South Africa is the least known, yet it well deserves attention, for there is growing up there a great state (or states) which will some day occupy a prominent place among nations, and which will have problems to solve that have seldom been encountered elsewhere. Mr. Wilmott's book is a short history of this country from the time of its discovery by white men to the present day. The volume is well worth reading for the importance of its subject, even if it does not suggest that its author is an eminent historian. He tells his story simply and dispassionately. Though an Englishman, he is just to the Dutch, recognizing the mistakes and sins of the British Government, such as the annexation of the Transvaal or the robbery of the West Grigua-Land diamond-fields from the Orange Free States. To the natives he is a little less fair. It may be true that "it was also found, later on, that the teaching of Christianity was impossible, and that white men could not occupy the country unless the power of the savage was broken and his military organization shattered." The question remains as to the morality of propagating Christianity and civilization at the point of the sword. Likewise, remarkable as Mr. Cecil Rhodes certainly is, he is hardly an ideal philanthropist, and though the Mashona expedition was composed of skilful and daring pioneers, they do not deserve more credit than many others who have risked and accomplished much in the search for gold. As for the Matabele war, it was no doubt bound to come sooner or later, but the disparity between the spears of the naked savages, however numerous, and the Maxim guns of their adversaries, was too great to make the campaign either interesting or admirable. Again, Lo Benguela was a savage like many another, the creature and victim of his circumstances, who will soon be forgotten. The following remark shows a curious idea of perspective: "Extraordinary repetitions and analogies in history! Chaka was the first Napoleon of Southern Africa, Lo Benguela was the third." This black third Napoleon is soon after compared to Cato because he may have asked a friend to kill him.

South Africa is at the same time one of the oldest and the newest of colonies. The Cape of Good Hope, which was discovered by the Portuguese in 1486, was settled first by the Dutch in 1652. For the next two centuries its story was that of similar settlements—good and bad governors, hardships, discontents, wars with the natives, etc. The most important event during this period was its conquest by Great Britain in 1795, and definitively in 1806. Gradually the boundaries of the province spread, and the white population increased. Dissatisfied Boers who trickled into the wilderness founded Natal, then the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal Republic, into each of which British authority followed them to confiscate their independence, though the two latter have since regained it. The Zulu war in 1879 broke the power of the most dangerous native state, while the discovery of the Kimberley diamond-mines in 1875 proved a great source of wealth. But the recent history of South Africa, its aroused tenfold rate of activity and progress, dates from about ten

years later. When the diamond industry made a profitable "Trust," gold in immense quantities was discovered in the Transvaal, and then further north fresh territories were rapidly annexed. Zambesia, or British Central Africa, was founded, boundaries were regulated by treaties with Germany and Portugal. Mashona-Land was occupied by a bold expedition, the Matabeles were crushed. Now South and Central Africa (*i. e.*, British, with the small Dutch States) stretch in one united region from the Cape of Good Hope to the neighborhood of the great lakes, and "the country from the Cape to the Zambesi alone embraces an approximate area of one and a quarter million square miles, and this is larger than British India." Much of this immense expanse possesses a temperate climate. It contains fertile land, great rivers, valuable mines; in fact, all it appears to need for greatness is a sufficiently large white population, even if we Americans are too familiar with such descriptions as "a paradise for the downtrodden struggling men and women in the gloomy, overcrowded countries of the north of Europe," to be deeply impressed by them.

It would seem as if such a land must have a great future. At the same time it will have difficulties of its own to deal with. As in Canada, the white population is of two nationalities, who by no means always get on smoothly together. But for the sudden recent immigration, the prolific Dutch element might probably have preponderated in the end; now the chances are rather in favor of the English. Then, too, there are foreign rivals, for if it is improbable that Portugal will ever do much with her possessions, the Germans, little as they have accomplished in Southwest Africa so far, are intelligent and determined. They may become powerful neighbors some day, and are sure to claim a share in any liquidation of Portuguese territory. Far more serious is the negro question. The black races of South Africa, once almost six times as numerous, "are now multiplying in a quicker ratio than white people." Of the perils of this situation we have recently spoken.

Louisiana Folk-Tales, in French Dialect and English Translation. Collected and edited by Alcée Fortier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. [Memoirs of the American Folk-Lore Society. Vol. II.] 8vo, pp. xi, 122.

THE American Folk-Lore Society began last year the publication of an annual volume of memoirs, the first of which, already noticed in this journal, was devoted to the folk-tales of Angola. These stories from the west coast of Africa were not inappropriately published in the memoirs of the American Folk-Lore Society, as it has been shown that a considerable part of the folk-lore of our own negroes was brought by their slave ancestors from that country. The second volume of the society's memoirs continues, as it were, the first, and presents an interesting and valuable collection of Louisiana folk-tales.

The collector, who is professor of the Romance languages in Tulane University, has heightened the value of his work by giving the original Creole text as well as an English translation. He says in his introduction: "It is very difficult to make a complete collection of the negro tales, as the young generation knows nothing about them, and most of the old people pretend to have forgotten them." This is the common experience of collectors, especially where they are of a different race from the story-tellers, and it requires great tact and perseverance to overcome the narrator's shyness. Still, there is no doubt that the popular literature of the Indians and negroes is rapidly disappearing, and that it was time for some organized body like the American Folk-Lore Society to save what it could from perishing.

Of the forty-one stories in the volume before us, fourteen have already been published in the Transactions of the Modern Language Association of America, 1885, and in the *Journal of American Folk-Lore* for the same year. The twenty-seven stories which appear here for the first time in print are divided into fifteen "Animal Tales" and twelve "*Märchen*," and the names and addresses of the narrators are carefully given in the notes, where may be found a few parallels from European folk-lore. The editor has expressly disclaimed any attempt to make a comparative study of the tales, and they are presented to folk-lorists as material for study. It would, however, have been a great advantage if the American variants and parallels at least had been given. This is the method pursued by Pitrè in his grand collection of Sicilian folk-lore, and is undoubtedly the correct one. The collector, for many reasons, should be familiar with the field in his own country; he cannot always be expected to know that of other countries. Nor would Prof. Fortier's task have been difficult or protracted, as few of the new stories have parallels, so far as we have found. We have noticed, however, the following: No. i, "The Elephant and the Whale"=Hartt ('Amazonian Tortoise Myths') p. 20, Smith ('Brazil and the Amazons') p. 545, Harris ('Uncle Remus,' 1881) p. 111; Nos. iv, xiii, "Compair Lapin and Compair L'Ours" and "Compair Lapin's Godchild"=Grimm, No. 2, "The Cat and Mouse in Partnership"; No. xvi, "King Peacock," *cf.* Grimm, No. 53, "Little Snow-White"; No. xvii, "The Singing Bones"= Grimm, No. 28, "The Singing Bone"; No. xviii, "Jean Sotte," *cf.* Grimm, No. 22, "The Riddle"; No. xix, "The Devil's Marriage" is a combination of "Bluebeard" with the theme of "Flight of lovers, and obstacles thrown in pursuer's way"; No. xxiii, "The Men who became Birds"=Grimm, No. 49, "The Six Swans"; No. xxv, "The Basket of Flowers," is the story of the "Thievish Magpie" (*La gazza ladra*); No. xxvi, "John Green Peas," *cf.* Grimm, No. 61, "The Little Peasant." Appendix No. i, "The Tar Baby"='Uncle Remus,' pp. 23, 29; No. ii, "Compair Bouki and Compair Lapin," *cf.* 'Uncle Remus,' pp. 70, 89; No. iv='Uncle Remus' pp. 89, 143; No. vi='Uncle Remus,' p. 34; No. vii=Jones, 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast'), p. 94; No. viii, see 'Roman de Renart,' ed. Méon, Paris, 1826, i., p. 29, *cf.* Bleek, 'Reynard the Fox in South Africa,' p. 16, Jones, p. 102, and *Modern Language Notes*, 1890, pp. 129, etc.; No. ix, "The Cunning Old Wizard"=Grimm, No. 98, "Doctor Knowall"; No. xi, "The Talking Eggs," see a Creole story published by L. Brueyre in *Mélusine*, vol. i., p. 43, cited by Fortier when this story was first printed in the *Journal of American Folk Lore*, 1888; and No. xiv, "Give Me," *cf.* Grimm, No. 85, "The Gold-Children."

Some of the other stories contain familiar episodes, as in No. ii, "Compair Taureau and Jean Malin," where an animal (bull) assumes human shape and courts a lady; No. x, "The Tortoise," where the tortoise escapes from the boy in a way which recalls the famous story in 'Barlaam and Joasaph' (see Gaston Paris, *Le lai de l'oiselet*, Paris, 1884); appendix, No. v, "Compair Bouki and Compair Lapin," No. 3, in which the tree opens and shuts like the robbers' cave in the "Forty Thieves." Finally, in No. xiii, "The Golden Fish," we have an incomplete and distorted version of "The King of the Fishes" (see Hartland, 'The Legend of Perseus,' 1894, chapter ii).

The stories in the present collection are not nearly so interesting as those in 'Uncle Remus,' or even in Jones's 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast,' but they constitute a very valuable and welcome addition to the stock of American negro tales, and the handsome volume in which they are contained is another evidence of the vitality and intelligence of the American Folk-Lore Society, which richly deserves the support of scholars and patrons of learning.

My Literary Passions. By W. D. Howells. Harpers.

MR. HOWELLS, having achieved eminence "in the line of his highest activity," need feel no concern at his failure as a critic. He can answer "non omnia" when his assailants rage. And indeed the flurry caused by his confession of heretical opinions has pretty well subsided. The republic of letters is not a South American republic. It is in no danger of armed revolt under his banner. The perpetual and necessary swing from the romantic to the "real," and back again to the romantic, has not been retarded or accelerated by his utterances or by the protests of the old guard, "*Yet* all goes well; *yet* all our joints are whole." Hence we infer that the hearty professions of extreme dogma which occasionally enliven the quiet pages of 'My Literary Passions' will not keep the most nervous admirer of Thackeray awake o' nights. They are not dangerous, and they do possess a curious documentary interest. Mr. Howells himself describes his successive enthusiasms as, collectively, a "perennial literary youth." His latest "passion" is as fresh and generous as any that have gone before. Mr. Howells thinks it will be lasting. Perhaps he is right; for his worship of Tolstoy is not merely literary—it satisfies his ethical nature; and one sees, in reading these pages, more clearly than ever, that his critical standards are really ethical standards after all. But the chief interest of the book is not so much literary as autobiographical. Slender as these papers are, and little as they content those of us who would have the author always worthy of himself, they still contain, in fragments, some record of a strenuous and happy boyhood. In this regard they can claim indulgence for their haste and their trifling, and may even challenge a hesitating respect.

Life of Thomas Pinckney. By his grandson, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THE Pinckneys of South Carolina deserve a fit memorial of their public services in the last century, but it is impossible to give praise to the present Life. The military record of Thomas Pinckney in the Revolution was not of sufficient moment to offer material for a lengthy notice, though it secured him an appointment in the war of 1812. As Minister to England and to Spain, in which latter capacity he negotiated the treaty of San Ildefonso, giving the United States definite and valuable privileges on the Mississippi, he rendered important services, and was successful in dealing with the delicate questions then dividing the nations. As Governor of the State and as Congressman, he stood high in the esteem of

his contemporaries, and had more than one opportunity for promotion at the hands of Washington or the call of party. No matter what office he held or what duty he had to perform, he displayed a ready energy and unselfish devotion that enhanced his reputation and benefited his country. His love of agriculture and his earnest and intelligent efforts to improve methods of culture then in vogue place him by the side of Washington.

Not one incident of Pinckney's career receives adequate treatment in this Life. A very few, hardly a dozen in all, unpublished letters of Pinckney are given. Everything else is a restatement of what was already known, or a curious exaggeration of what is trivial and unimportant. What is called the "Tench Coxe letter" is treated at greater length and with more solemnity than the Spanish mission and the resulting treaty. Yet this letter was one written in a moment of spleen by John Adams, containing a charge of English influence on Pinckney which was beneath notice. None of Pinckney's "state papers," military letters, or despatches are reproduced, and the frequent comparisons between men and events in the Revolution and in the civil war of 1861-'65 are in questionable taste, as they have no immediate connection with the subject. In place of original research, a quotation from Lodge, Dallas, Bancroft, Ingersoll, or Garden is given; instead of original documents, the reader is treated to hasty generalizations, or a crude sketch of contemporary events in which Pinckney took little or no part. In short, it is discouraging to receive such a work in a critical spirit, for it is cast in the historical methods of fifty years ago, neither worthy of the subject, nor, we sincerely hope, of the author.

If the Pinckney papers are in existence (and even of this we are left in doubt), his grandson cannot do better than to print them as they are, and let his ancestor tell his own story. In this way he can confer a lasting benefit upon his family and his State, and give material aid to all sincere students of American history.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balzac, H. de. At the Sign of the Cat and Racket. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Desmond, H. J. Mooted Questions of History. Benziger Bros.
Graves, Rev. R. H. Forty Years in China; or, China in Transition. Baltimore: R. H. Woodward Co. $1.50.
Holmes, O. W. The Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Lawless, Hon. Emily. Grania. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Robert Louis Stevenson and Other Poems. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Meyer, Rev. F. B. Christ in Isaiah: Expositions of Isaiah XL.—LV. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Nelson, A. L. The Money We Need. Harpers.
Potts, William. From a New England Hillside. New ed. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Roark, R. N. Psychology in Education. American Book Co. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 5, 1895.

The Week.

MATT QUAY won last week the greatest victory of his career. The fight for control of the Republican State convention in Pennsylvania this year has challenged the attention of the whole nation. The nominations to be made counted for nothing, except to the candidates for the State treasurership and a half-dozen judgeships. There was no controversy over the platform, like the one over the free-coinage issue that lent interest to the recent Democratic State conventions in Kentucky, Iowa, and Ohio. The fight was solely and purely for the control of the party machinery in the greatest Republican State, with a view to its exercise in the national convention of 1896 and the disposition of the patronage in case a Republican President shall be elected next year. Quay's old pupils in Philadelphia had turned against him, and, under the lead of Dave Martin, sought to overthrow the man who had helped them into power. At the other end of the State, Chris Magee, who runs the party machinery in Pittsburgh, organized his forces in an alliance with the well-named "hog combine" of Philadelphia. Despite all these disadvantages, Quay won, dictated the terms of surrender, and shrewdly yielded to his opponents the empty honor of uncontested nominations while he pocketed the real prize at stake. There was hand-shaking of former opponents and plenty of gush over a harmonious party, but the real harmony consisted only in the absolute yielding of all would-be usurpers to the dictator whom they could not dethrone.

Quay's appearance in the rôle of reformer lends the needed touch of humor to a performance which would otherwise have been too solemn for many of the participants. The resolutions which he himself introduced, "decrying the growing use of money in politics," "earnestly insisting" upon wholesale measures of civil-service reform, "demanding that public office should be for the public benefit, and its term in subordinate positions should be during good behavior," declaring that "schools should be divorced from politics," and the rest of it—how grotesque it all sounds! It is a satisfaction to find that the sound-money sentiment of Pennsylvania insisted upon a "flat-footed" declaration against free coinage at 16 to 1, which a Republican convention in that State has never before made; and forced the abandonment of the absurd plank favoring the expansion of the currency to $40 per capita, which the boss put into the platform last year and the year before. For the rest, if Matt Quay represents the perfect flower of Republicanism in the greatest "Republican stronghold" of the Union, the country can stand it if Pennsylvania can.

Quay seems to have had the enthusiastic support of the G. A. R. in his recent fight for the control of the Republican party of Pennsylvania. The fact that the leader of the opposition forces, Gov. Hastings, had vetoed a bill giving preference in appointments to honorably discharged soldiers and sailors, and making it a misdemeanor punishable by fine to disregard this requirement, was made great use of to rally the soldier support to Quay's side. One veteran published a letter setting forth the Governor's dastardly conduct in the most "scathing" manner, and saying of the services which the veterans had performed in the war that the flags floating from the school-houses were "enduring monuments of the bravery of the Pennsylvania soldier," adding: "Any man with an ounce of brains would know that were it not for the courage and heroism of our soldiers upon the battlefield, there would be no flag, no schoolhouse, no teachers, nor no children of any account in the State to-day." It cannot be denied that if this view of the soldiers' services is correct, and even children would have ceased to be born in Pennsylvania if those services had not been rendered, no reward can be too great. The old soldier from whom we have quoted is, therefore, quite modest in his demands when he goes on to say: "Whenever and wherever there is a 'soft place' within the gift of the Administration, where the work is light and the salary heavy, that is the place for the old veteran. It is his by right of conquest, humanity, and common sense."

It is rather hastily assumed that because Quay has become once more the undisputed Republican boss of Pennsylvania, Mr. Harrison has lost all chance of the Presidential nomination next year. This does not follow by any means. Quay was just as much opposed to Harrison in 1892 as he is now, and Pennsylvania was against his renomination at the Minneapolis convention—that is, she cast 45 of her 64 votes against him. It is assumed by some of the Republican newspapers also that Platt will control the New York vote just as Quay will control that of Pennsylvania, and that it will be cast against Harrison for that reason. This is another *non sequitur*. Platt is no stronger in Republican party councils than he was three years ago—in fact, is rather weaker. He did all that he could at Minneapolis to prevent Harrison's renomination, yet 27 New York votes were cast for the latter, 35 going to Blaine and 10 to McKinley. There is nobody in the field now who possesses anything like Blaine's strength in the party in New York. It will be correspondingly difficult for Platt to divert from Harrison any votes that are inclined to go his way. If it be true, as the Harrison men claim, that the Republican masses are for him, Mr. Platt will not be able to turn them against him, nor will Quay, with all his prestige, exercise much influence outside of his own State.

Northern Republicans who believe in sound money cannot be pleased with the outlook in North Carolina, as there is every indication that the Republicans and Populists mean to maintain the fusion which they established successfully last year. The Republican and Populist members of the last Legislature from Cleveland County and the chairmen of the Republican and Populist executive committees in that county have issued a statement declaring their belief that "it is essential for the welfare of the State and the preservation of the laws passed by the Legislature" that there shall be a continuance of the fusion, or "coöperation," as they prefer to style it, between the two parties next year. Moreover, the Populist managers declare their readiness, in view of Republican liberality in the division of the offices already won, to let the Republicans have the candidate for Governor; and the Cleveland County fusionists "take pleasure in unfurling to the political breeze the name of Judge Daniel L. Russell of Wilmington, as the Cooperation candidate for Governor of North Carolina for 1896, and pledge him our hearty support and promise to do everything in our power that is honest and legitimate to bring about his nomination." Mr. Russell has been prominent in North Carolina politics ever since the war, was once elected by the Republicans of his district to Congress, and is probably as good a man as could be named in point of personality. But the fatal defect of his candidacy is that any fusion nominee must run upon a free-coinage platform.

An extraordinary incident of the Mississippi campaign is the demand upon the Democratic candidate for Governor, whose election is assured, for a pledge that he will not pardon out of the penitentiary a group of murderers, and his prompt recognition of the propriety of the demand. It appears that before the candidate for State Senator who recently went with three friends in pursuit of an unarmed man began preparations for the killing, he retained ex-Senator Laurin, the gubernatorial nominee, as his counsel in the legal proceedings which he expect-

ed would grow out of the encounter upon which he deliberately entered. In other words, he planned a cold-blooded murder, and engaged the future Governor to defend him. Naturally enough, the disclosure of this fact aroused suspicion that the counsel, when elevated to the executive chair, might pardon his former client and the latter's equally guilty friends, who were forced by an unexpected display of popular indignation to plead guilty of murder and take a sentence of life imprisonment. Mr. McLaurin says that he does not think any application will be made to him, but that if one should be made, "it would be indelicate and improper in me to grant a pardon in this case, and I would therefore neither grant the pardon nor consider the application." This vindicates the next Governor, but what shall be thought of a state of society where a prominent politician goes about a murder so coolly that he engages the lawyer to defend him before he shoots his man?

Massachusetts has a political organization of a rather novel sort. The Socialist Labor party has just held a State convention and nominated a full ticket for the November election, but the candidate for Governor says that "the party is not at this time looking for votes." The mission of those already enlisted is only to teach the working people the doctrine of international socialism and organize "sections," as the subordinate bodies are called, with a view to the education of the voters. The leader has an unfaltering faith in the final success of the party "within a generation." This is a greater exhibition of self-restraint than we are accustomed to see in our politics—especially when "all that is necessary is that the common people, the working people, go to the polls and elect men who are pledged to carry out the demands of the party." When those demands are carried out, by the way, the millennium will be ushered in, with "the human race one great family organized on a business basis for the common good." The candidate for Governor insists that "there is nothing complicated or Utopian" about this scheme, and it really does not appear why we should have to wait a generation for its fulfilment.

The New York Liquor-Dealers' Association has ratified the resolution of its executive committee, pledging all its members to keep their saloons closed on Sunday hereafter in obedience to the law. There were some dissenting voices, but the vote in favor was by a large majority, and the entire association will be bound by it. Some of the observations made by the President of the association in advocating the adoption of the resolution were remarkable. He said that, under former officials, the law was interpreted with such liberality that the liquor-dealers were able to violate it without incurring disgrace of any kind, but at present it was impossible for them to violate it without being branded as criminals and constant violators of the law. He declared that the liquor-dealers must place themselves "in the category of citizens who respect the law, be it what it may, must comply with the law at present and assume their places in the community as law-abiding citizens," and devote their energies to securing the enactment of more liberal laws. He said very truly that both political parties had been hostile to them, and he might have added that both had played tricks with them in the past and are likely to pursue the same policy in the future. The chances at present are that neither party will venture to take up the question of local option in its platform this year, but will seek to dodge the issue and to put its opponent on the unpopular side of it.

The arrival in this city of a fleet of steel canal-boats towed by a steam propeller from an Ohio port is an event of much significance. For a number of years the old-fashioned wooden boat towed by horses or mules has been losing in the race, and the boatmen have had hard work to make a living. The Delaware and Hudson Canal Company long ago found that it was cheaper for them to carry their coal by rail than by boat, and have continued to operate their canal less from business considerations than from motives of mercy to the unfortunate men whose little capital was all invested in the canal industry. The new steel boats, drawing but six feet of water, have the relatively small carrying capacity of 250 tons. But they should be compared, not with the great lake or ocean steamers, but with freight-cars, which they much resemble in function. The propeller corresponds with the locomotive, and the carrying capacity is that of the fleet that is towed, as the train-load is the true unit of reckoning in railroad computations. From the experimental trip concluded last Thursday it would appear that a fleet of these boats drawn by one propeller can carry over 1,200 tons of freight, or four or five ordinary train-loads. How far the low rate of speed attainable may offset the gain from cheapness of operation is a question which the railroads will need to investigate. At all events, it should not be forgotten that a vast amount of freight necessarily goes in comparatively small lots, and that the internal distribution of goods is a far greater commerce than the exportation of grain and provisions in bulk.

The deficit of the National Treasury for the last fiscal year is in round figures $44,000,000. For the previous year it was nearly $70,000,000. Thus it appears that the Treasury has gained $26,000,000 without any help from the income tax. Twenty-six millions is a very small sum in the fisc of a country like ours. Yet it is much to be desired that it should be on the credit rather than on the debit side of the ledger. That the receipts will equal or exceed the expenses of the present fiscal year is the belief of the best judges in Washington. In a letter to a morning newspaper, Postmaster-General Wilson considers the prospect of a large increase of revenue from customs duties very hopeful, as a consequence of the renewed prosperity of manufacturing industries. "Tariff reform," he rightly says, "although wounded in the house of its alleged friends, is triumphantly justified by its results." This remark, by the way, may be taken by Senator Gorman as a reflection on himself.

Secretary Morton continues to infuriate the protectionists by the economies which he is enforcing in his department. His last reform consists in winding up the business of carrying on experimental sugar stations, and the particulars of this business as carried on by Government may be commended to the attention of those who desire to nationalize our industries. During the last ten years Congress has appropriated over half-a-million dollars to carry on experiments in the manufacture of sugar, nearly half of which was expended in the purchase of materials and machinery. Yet for three years nothing has been done at any of the stations, and nothing for four years in Kansas. Last winter Senator Peffer laid before the Secretary a bill providing that any person found in possession of any of this machinery should be considered to have good title to it—a measure of such suggestive character as to indicate the need of prompt investigation. It now appears that something like $10,000 has been received by the department from the sale of machinery and buildings, and that there remains only one factory to be disposed of. No evidence can be found that a pound of sugar was ever made from sorghum, but doubtless experiments were made. Probably it was the intention of Congress to produce not sugar, but experiments, and to employ as many people as possible in this valuable industry. In short, although no pure, unadulterated sugar may have been produced, the sugar-experiment business beats the record, Secretary Morton says, as a pure, unadulterated steal.

The arrest of the band of Cuban filibusters ought to have a sobering effect on many excited minds. We do not suppose it will prevent the reckless press from keeping on after its kind, but it ought at least to instruct Cuban agitators in this country that the reckless press is one thing, and that the law is quite another. The hysterical people who ask why we do not throw over Spain and "free" Cuba, do not stop to ask what are our obligations to Spain. They are, first, the general

obligations which, under international law, one nation is under towards another—obligations which especially embrace the duty of strict neutrality in case the other country is at war or has a rebellion on its hands. That it would not be a serious breach of neutrality to allow an armed expedition against Cuba to fit out in the United States, the country that made England smart for letting the *Alabama* get away should not have the face to suggest. Then, we have our special treaty obligations to Spain, and our own laws which make crimes of such acts as those for which the Cubans were arrested on Friday by the federal authorities. Whatever our sympathies may be, we have but a single course to follow under the law.

Mr. James Schouler's second *Atlantic* article on President Polk's Administration gives most interesting revelations concerning the Mexican war. The historian says that the Polk diary and correspondence, "with their private disclosures, confirm the worst that was ever imputed to this Administration in its deadly and depredating course." Particularly flagrant does Polk's war message of May 11, 1846, appear. The President had hoped to get territory from Mexico by purchase, but on Saturday, May 9, Slidell came back to Washington to report the frustration of that hope. Polk immediately called his cabinet together and told them that he desired at once to send to Congress a war message. The majority concurred, though Buchanan hesitated, and Bancroft candidly said that we ought to wait for some act of hostility before declaring war. Polk, however, as his diary shows, determined to go on with the message. By a great piece of luck, that very night, after the war message was thus decided upon, news reached Washington of a skirmish on the Rio Grande, and the President jumped at the chance to say to Congress that "War exists, and, notwithstanding all our efforts to avoid it, exists by the act of Mexico herself." Such perfidy is monumental, and the wonder is that Polk should have left behind him the papers to display it to posterity. But he had a curious conscience. He worked on his message all day Sunday, except the time spent in public worship of the Prince of Peace, and, after deliberately spending the day in doing what he knew would plunge two nations into needless strife and bloodshed, piously recorded in his diary, "It was a day of great anxiety to me, and I regretted the necessity for me to spend the Sabbath in the manner I have." Posterity may discern a parallel to this piety in President Harrison's Sunday Chilian war message.

No British Prime Minister in an official and public address ever went the length that Lord Salisbury did in his speech in the House of Lords in threatening the Turkish Government. This was the more remarkable as coming from the leader of the Tory party—a party which, as Lord Salisbury said, had been traditionally anxious to maintain the integrity and independence of the Ottoman Empire. Yet he went on flatly to say that there was nothing but a "factitious stability" about that empire, which might fail the Sultan at any moment if he did not take heed to his ways. The Sultan's boasted "prerogatives," affirmed the Prime Minister, were only "nominal," and his "independence" only "formal"; which is but another way of saying that England is prepared to go ahead, treaties or no treaties, and make the Sultan reform his government of Armenia or be himself reformed altogether off his throne. Mr. Gladstone, in office, never spoke so bluntly as this. We doubt if even Lord Palmerston ever did. With three British men-of-war reported on the way to Constantinople to back up Lord Salisbury's words, it is no wonder that the Turkish Government is now said to be in a great scramble to do something for Armenia. Mr. Gladstone urged Salisbury to say "must," and he has said it.

An amusing feature of the debate on the Address in the House of Commons was the attempt made to hold the Tories up to their ante-election promises in regard to their famous "social programme." One amendment moved was, "But we humbly beg to draw the attention of your Majesty to the existing widespread depression in agriculture, and submit that it would be expedient to pass remedial measures during the present year." This produced vast squirming among the Conservatives. Only two months before, they had been reviling the Liberal Government for doing nothing for the farmer, and saying, when Sir William Harcourt asked them what they would do, "Put us in office and we will tell you." Now they are in office, but they will not tell. Solemn Mr. Chaplin said they must take time to consider, to prepare their bills with deliberation. Sir William rallied him with excellent humor on this sudden access of caution, and Mr. Balfour had to take refuge in Lord Salisbury's joke that all the Conservatives had ever promised to do was to think hard and long about depressed agriculture. Thinking is one thing and doing is another. So the amendment was voted down by a majority of 131. So, too, was voted down a similar amendment relating to the "evils arising from want of employment." The effect of office on the Tories is very like the effect of property on a Socialist: This is not such a bad world, after all; let us be careful how we make changes lest they be changes for the worse; above all, let us do nothing to put our property or our offices into the hands of those who will not make as good a use of them as we shall. So far, the vaunted social programme of the Tories is clearly a do-nothing programme.

The art of getting witnesses to testify to things they never dreamed of saying seems to be passing from the courts to commissions of inquiry about labor. Nothing is more common than for a zealous investigator to extract from an amazed witness all sorts of arguments and opinions to bolster up his pet theories. Mr. Chamberlain gave a beautiful example of this in a question he put when sitting on the English aged-poor commission. A rather slow-moving witness was testifying, when Mr. Chamberlain darted at him the question whether he didn't think there would be "a dangerous agitation if nothing were done—an agitation that the provision of an old-age pension scheme might do something to prevent." Of course the startled witness took the cue, and thought there would be a very dangerous agitation indeed, though it was evident that this was the first time he had ever heard or thought of such a thing. Imagine, however, the gravity and earnestness with which Chamberlain would say, in his next socialistic speech, that it was high time something was done, that the working classes were in an inflammable condition and might break out into riot and bloodshed at any moment, and if you didn't believe it, just read the testimony taken by the aged-poor commission. A great deal of the evidence quoted as to the opinions and wishes of laboring men is of precisely this character. Labor investigators are too often like boys throwing a ball against a barn: they get their own opinions bounded back at them, and then solemnly cite them as proof of what the working classes really think.

Despite what were taken for authoritative announcements to the contrary, Lord Salisbury's Government have decided to reverse the decision of the Rosebery cabinet to withdraw from Chitral. For the present at least, it was declared in both houses of Parliament in the debate on the Queen's speeech, the British garrison will be retained in Chitral, and the routes thither be kept open and patrolled by British troops. Lord Rosebery rather hotly attacked this policy of the new Government, asserted that it would necessarily result in a vast increase in the Indian army and the Indian budget, and added that, in his opinion, Russia would have good ground to be offended at what would look very much like a breach of faith. He read the proclamation of the Indian Government when the expedition was undertaken, which said: "The sole object of the Government of India is to put an end to the present and to prevent any future unlawful aggression on Chitral territory, and, as soon as this object has been attained, the forces will be withdrawn." Both Salisbury and Balfour contented themselves with saying that when all the papers were laid before Parliament, the decision of the Government would be fully approved.

THE SOUTH DIVIDING.

BEGINNING with the Presidential election of 1876, the South became solidly Democratic, the Republican governments being soon afterwards made way with in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, though these States were counted for the Republican candidate in the national contest. From that time down to and including the Presidential election of 1892 every one of the sixteen States in which slavery had once existed went Democratic, not only in national contests, but also in each election of Governor—with the single exception of Tennessee in 1880, when a split among the Democrats on the State debt question, which was the only issue, enabled the Republican nominee to slip in between his two rivals.

During all this long period, covering almost half of the time allotted to a generation of men, the Republican party of the nation pursued a policy which could not have failed to keep the South solid. It maintained on the statute-book laws regarding the control of elections which had been enacted for especial use in the South, and it constantly threatened to extend the scope of this federal interference with States in that section by passing force bills far more rigorous than the old laws. Just before the Republicans, for the first time since they came into power, lost control of both branches of Congress in 1875, the Grant Administration made a desperate attempt to pass such a bill, which was defeated only by the open opposition of Blaine, then Speaker, and some other prominent Republicans in the House. Sixteen years later, when a Republican President again was supported by a Congress Republican in both branches, the Harrison Administration repeated the attempt of Grant's, and failed only because free-silver Republican Senators from the mining States made a trade with Southern Democrats to block the force bill, in return for help in their free-coinage schemes.

Two motives combined to hold the Republicans to this sectional policy. One was the honest belief of many sincere members of the party that federal interference in Southern affairs was necessary for the protection of the negro voters, and essential to the full reaping of the "fruits of the war" in the emancipation and enfranchisement of the slaves. The other was the cool calculation of the managing politicians, that the solid South created by persistent threats of force bills would make the North so nearly solid as to insure the election of a Republican President more easily than would be possible by any other policy.

Thoughtful students of the race problem gradually reached the conclusion that federal interference in Southern affairs only harmed the negroes. Professional politicians found that the solid South bugbear had utterly lost its power to frighten anybody in 1892, when Illinois and Wisconsin went Democratic for the first time since the ante-bellum period, and Ohio came so near it that Cleveland actually got one of her twenty-three electoral votes. The Democrats came into full power in 1893, under the distinct pledge to repeal the existing federal election laws, and the pledge was promptly redeemed. The Republicans in Congress made only a perfunctory opposition. The true friends of the South among them at last realized that the force-bill policy did no good, from the standpoint of the public interest. The men who cared nothing for patriotic motives, but everything for partisan considerations, had become convinced that there was "nothing more in the bloody shirt." Repeal had hardly been carried before Republican journals began to admit that it was a good thing for the country—and for their party, too. To-day no politician would listen for a moment to the idea of reviving the policy of the Harrison Administration. Indeed, Joe Manley confessed to an interviewer the other day that "it would have been infinitely better for the Republican party if it had dropped the agitation of the force-bill question eight years before it did," as "that policy kept the South arrayed against it."

The effect of eliminating the sectional issue was plainly discernible in Southern elections last fall, and is still more obvious in this year's canvasses in that region. The force bill had been cunningly and successfully used by Democratic politicians to keep the whites together, not only in States where the negroes were numerous or even exceeded the whites, but also in the border States, where the black vote, if counted, could not be dangerous to white control. Attempts were made to draw the race line in Maryland and Kentucky, in Tennessee and Missouri, as well as in Alabama and Louisiana, and with too much success. In the election following the repeal of the federal election laws, on the other hand, the Republicans carried Tennessee on a square test between the two parties, for the first time since the reconstruction period; their candidate for Governor having several hundred plurality, although he was afterwards counted out by the Democratic Legislature. At the same time the Republicans, again for the first time since reconstruction, carried Missouri for minor State officers, both branches of the Legislature, and ten of the fifteen Congressmen. Simultaneously the Democrats, for the first time since reconstruction, lost the Legislature in North Carolina, and the two senatorships which that body had to fill, through the desertion of the party by enough whites to give the Republicans and Populists control.

The tidal wave which swept over the country last year, of course, put the Democrats at a disadvantage in the South, as everywhere else; but if the party organs and stump-speakers could still have used the force-bill issue, they might easily have held to their old allegiance enough whites to prevent the narrow Republican pluralities that were secured in Tennessee and Missouri. The change caused by the loss of this ancient issue is even more clearly visible in this year's campaigns in Maryland and Kentucky, particularly in the latter State, where it used to cut a great figure. In the old days, Hardin might have preached free coinage, and still have held sound-money Democrats to his support by urging the necessity of standing together in the interest of white domination in the South. As things are now, he cannot use the "horrors of negro rule" as a reason why Democrats who believe in an honest dollar should vote for a candidate advocating a fifty-cent dollar. The same tendency must operate in States further south as elections there come on.

The nation is immensely the gainer by the now assured division in the South. The solidity of one section was alike an injury to itself and a menace to the rest of the country. That substantially all of the white men in one-third of the land should vote together, decade after decade, was abnormal, undemocratic, and dangerous. The abolition of the old sectional issue, and the consequent division of the Southern vote, are grounds for national congratulation.

IMPROVED LEGISLATION.

No better subject could have been selected by Mr. Carter for his address to the American Bar Association than that of reform in our methods of legislation. Laws are like the books of the Sibyl: the fewer there are, the greater their value. In the State of New York we suffer under an annual infliction of nearly 2,000 pages of new statutes; and although the Legislature ceased its production several months ago, the people of the State, owing to the delay in publication, are still without any means of ascertaining what the newest laws are which they are expected to obey. A short time ago a judge in Buffalo discharged two barbers who were brought before him charged with practising their art on Sunday, contrary to the statute in such case made and provided, on the ground that no copy of the statute had been furnished to the court. Application had been made for such copy, but it had received no attention. Even if the statutes were promptly published, it is obvious that very few people could find time to read them, and no task is now more onerous to the bar than that of ascertaining the statute law actually in force. We have consolidations and codifications and revisions without number, but our last state is worse than our first, for before any one can be sure that the law is as it appears to be in the latest code, he must painfully inquire whether the previous statutes on the same subject have been repealed or amended, or have been allowed, by accident or design, to continue in force.

The revision of our statutes is no doubt

theoretically desirable. We can imagine codes and revisions that would simplify and condense the law; but the commissions that are charged with this task do not perform it successfully. It is too often the case that appointments to such commissions are made as rewards for party services, and the appointees fail to exhibit a due sense of professional responsibility. A few years ago there was a revision of the general laws relating to corporations, and almost the first act of the Legislature succeeding that which had enacted this code was to repeal some of the exasperating innovations which it had introduced. More recently the law affecting dower was changed in a revolutionary manner, without the knowledge of the profession, and within a few weeks the Legislature was compelled to repeal the act in response to the chorus of complaints that arose from the bar. Last year an alteration was made in the law relating to the legitimacy of offspring. The change may have been a desirable one; the subject, however, is one of such fundamental importance that it should have received the most serious consideration. But it was accomplished in what may be fairly called a surreptitious manner. We venture to say that the people of the State are to-day ignorant that the alteration has been effected. It was not advocated by the bar or by the press, nor was it opposed. No newspaper, so far as we have observed, alluded to it or commented on it. Thus a fundamental change in the most fundamental of our social institutions, involving the decision of a question which has for ages exercised the thought of the most eminent writers on jurisprudence, was accomplished by the unknown author of an unnoticed act of the New York Legislature.

It is impossible to overestimate the political advantages of our peculiar system of combined national and State governments. They may be summed up in a word as averting from the people the most serious of the dangers of centralization. On the other hand, we are industrially one people, and the losses and inconveniences arising from the existence of more than forty different jurisdictions are very great. In so far as the people of the several States differ in their social standards and customs, it is altogether desirable that their laws should reflect these differences. But in their business affairs the differences are relatively slight, and uniformity of legislation ought to prevail. Some attempts have been made to secure such uniformity, and some progress has been made by the commissions already appointed by a number of the States. Good will eventually come from these attempts, but it is undeniable that they fail to arouse the interest of our legislators. Party advantage and the gains of office absorb their attention, and most of them would stare and laugh if any one undertook to engage them in discussions concerning comparative jurisprudence. As Mr. Carter says, never so much as at the present time has the need of competent legislators been manifest.

The reason assigned by Mr. Carter for abstaining from attempts to codify our unwritten law may strike those unfamiliar with legislation as paradoxical. The unwritten law of the several States is substantially the same, and therefore, he says, it ought not to be reduced to a written form. But experience has proved that Mr. Carter is right in holding that, if the attempt were made, it would result in "plunging the law into diversity." At the present moment it is seriously proposed to undertake a revision of the code of procedure in New York, which would amount for practical purposes to the enactment of an entirely new system of practice. No one could undertake to conduct a legal proceeding without the most anxious scrutiny of all the new provisions in the light of the old; and, no matter how perfect the new code might be, the next Legislature, following the example of all that have preceded it, would introduce hundreds of changes.

The truth is, as Mr. Carter declares, that we suffer from two evils, the passion for framing new laws, and the willingness of Legislatures to act upon subjects which are not proper subjects of legislation at all. On this account the substitution of biennial for annual sessions of the Legislature in most of the States is to be regarded as a conservative measure. Rather than have an excess of bad laws, we prefer to forego the possibility of obtaining a few good ones. But, of course, the true hope of improved legislation lies in obtaining improved legislators. In this direction many efforts must be made; but we can agree with Mr. Carter that nothing is more needed among us than "a deepened conviction that the sphere of legislation, like that of other forms of human activity, has its proper limits, which can never be exceeded without mischief, and a sufficient knowledge of what these limits are."

THE GERMAN ANNIVERSARIES.

It was lucky that Kiel came two months before Sedan—the glorification of peace before the celebration of war. Even French politeness would have been too severely strained if invited to the opening of the canal after the opening of the wounds of 1870. That was what some of the fervid French patriots wanted M. Hanotaux to say to Emperor William at the time: "After Kiel, will your Majesty also ask us to the fêtes at Woerth and Metz?" Yet, curiously enough, we find sensible German newspapers, like the Berlin *Nation*, gravely arguing that the whole series of commemorations running through the month of August, from Weissenburg up to Sedan, with their inevitable renewal of French rage, and their equally inevitable revival of the war-spirit in Germany, will make powerfully for international good feeling and peace. The argument, stripped of its philosophical elegances, comes down to about this: "We whipped you once and we can do it again, if necessary." This is the true way to make your neighbor love you and beat his spears into pruning-hooks.

Of course, it was inevitable that the anniversaries should be commemorated. Even the French admit as much. They think there has been too much exultation shown by the Germans, too defiant an attitude struck towards the France of 1895, and they say that French taste would have been sure to display in the same situation more considerate regard for the feelings of the vanquished, and would have made the tribute merely one to the memory of the heroic dead. But the non-French world will feel bound to acquit the Germans of anything unduly offensive in these celebrations. If there has been too marked a tendency to take the German army for the German nation, that has been largely the work of the harum-scarum young officer who now waves his good sword over the most learned heads of Europe. Even so essentially peaceful and civic a ceremony as the dedication of the national memorial to William I., big-booted William II. had to turn into a military display. The Reichstag voted the money for this memorial just as it did for the Kiel Canal; but whereas, at the opening of the latter, the President and Vice-Presidents of the Reichstag had a prominent part in the ceremonies, they had to give way to the Knights of the Black Eagle and army and navy officers when the corner-stone of the national monument to William I. was laid. And it was this occasion that the valiant grandson chose, to affirm that he was going to make the German army strong enough not only "to guarantee, but to dictate, the peace of Europe."

The Germans of 1895 might easily be pardoned for appearing more vainglorious than they do over the achievements of the Germans of 1870. It is not in human nature, even in Exeter Hall, to refuse admiration to that swift and terrible march to victory. But thoughtful Germans may also be pardoned if a certain melancholy and foreboding intrude upon them in these days of national festivity. The events of 1870 did not solve all of Germany's difficulties; they created new ones even harder to solve. A sober comparison of 1895 with 1870 is not wholly to the disadvantage of the latter. There were giants in those days. William I. could scarcely be called a great man, but he was one beside his megalomaniac grandson. From Bismarck to Hohenlohe is a terrible fall. And as for the unification of Germany, the phrase seems almost a mockery in view of the furious wrangling, and bitter factions, and legislative impotence of the German Parliament of to-day. The strongest party in the Empire at present is the one which the Emperor calls upon the Chancellor and the Reichstag to put down as revolutionary—the party that has filed its

protest against the very fêtes in celebration of German unity. Thoughtful Germans, we say, might be excused for feeling somewhat depressed, as there are signs that many of them do, when they consider these things.

But such matters are, after all, it may be said, of the nature of accidents. There is no law of nature which prevents great men from having fools for their successors. Party development takes strange and unforeseen turns. Yet there are two great national perils now confronting Germany which may be said to have grown directly out of the war of 1870, and which are really more serious than any danger arising from the side of France under Napoleon III. One of these is the mania for war. This grows by what it feeds upon, and it has been grossly fed in Germany for twenty-five years. More regiments, has been the cry, bigger ships and guns, more elaborate equipment, swifter and completer mobilization, vaster annual manœuvres. It is not in flesh and blood to stand this tension for a long period of years without deteriorating or utterly breaking down. A nation that, in the midst of this industrial world, gives so much of its best talent and strength and treasure to perfecting instruments of destruction is not in a state of health. Preparing for all possible wars in order to make all wars impossible, is one of the shallowest sophistries that pass for statesmanship. What you really make impossible is a sound and stable national sentiment. The German nation, great in intellectual leadership, great in industrial expansion, cannot afford to pose before the world like a cowboy with his finger all the while on the trigger, lest somebody get the "drop" on him.

The other characteristic German peril is the mania for organization. It was organization, drill, method, bureaucratic supervision that conquered France; therefore let us organize everything. Take over the railroads and make state officials out of every porter and switchman. Fill the mines and forests with state operatives and inspectors. Seize on workingmen of all sorts and insure them against accidents, against old age, against death, against everything but the fussy interference and petty exactions of an over-organized government. It was in that spirit that Moltke conquered France, and it is in that spirit that we shall conquer social discontent. But this is very much as if the gastric juice should set about digesting the coats of the stomach. Organization run mad destroys a government. The German Socialists are the true logicians. "Certainly," they say, "organize everything, put all industry under state control, organize capital and interest and rent off the earth, and throne and altar along with them." But this logical extension of his own doctrines young Wilhelm calls rank *Umsturz*, and sets about putting it down by more organization, more uniforms and inspectors and bureaus; and what will the end be? We should hope, driving into the German mind the conviction that states cannot live by organization alone, and that it is time for the old German assertion of the rights of the individual to make itself heard again.

THE AUTHORSHIP OF GILES'S RESOLUTIONS.

BROOKLYN, August 17, 1895.

ON February 27, 1793, William Branch Giles, a member of Congress from Virginia, moved in the House of Representatives a series of resolutions, directed against Hamilton's conduct as Secretary of the Treasury, well known to the students of that period. For those resolutions, which constitute their mover's chief claim for mention in our national history, Giles has been more often abused than praised, but neither critics nor apologists have ever questioned if he had the ability to frame what he moved, or have searched for a more likely author for them. A rough draft of the resolutions, in the handwriting of Thomas Jefferson, furnishes a suggestion too strong to be disregarded, and a comparison of this series with those moved by Giles is interesting as showing how far they had been softened before they were laid before Congress:

JEFFERSON'S DRAFT.	RESOLUTIONS AS MOVED.
(1.) Resolved, That it is essential to the due administration of the Government of the United States that laws making specific appropriations of money should be strictly observed by the *Secretary of the Treasury* thereof.	(1.) Resolved, That it is essential to the due administration of the Government of the United States that laws making specific appropriations of money should be strictly observed by the *administrator of the finances* thereof.

The slight change in this first resolution was merely one which made the charge against Hamilton a shade less specific. The second resolution was identical with that of the draft. The third shows a marked departure:

JEFFERSON'S DRAFT.	RESOLUTION AS MOVED.
(3.) Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury, in drawing to this country and lodging in the bank the funds raised in Europe, which ought to have been applied to the paiments of our debts there in order to stop interest, has violated the instructions of the President of the United States, for the benefit of speculators, and to increase the profits of that institution.	(3.) Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury has violated the law passed the 4th of August, 1790, making appropriations of certain moneys authorized to be borrowed by the same law, in the following particulars, viz.: First, by applying a certain portion of the principal borrowed to the payment of interest falling due upon that principal, which was not authorized by that or any other law. Secondly, by drawing part of the same moneys into the United States, without the instructions of the President of the United States

This particular charge—that Hamilton had violated the instructions of the President in order to aid the Bank and speculators—was a favorite one of Jefferson's, as is shown by other papers. Thus, in a manuscript the purpose of which is not evident, but which I infer was drawn up as a guide for Madison in the series of attacks on the Treasury policy made or inspired by him in the session of 1793, the following paragraph occurs:

"The most prominent suspicion excited by the Report of the S. of the T. of Jan. 3, 1793, is that the funds raised in Europe & which ought to have been applied to the paiment of our debts there in order to stop interest, have been drawn over to this country & lodged in the bank, to extend the speculations and increase the profits of that institution."

Even more explicit was a second paper, submitted to Washington, in which Jefferson wrote, as a reason for disapproving of a new loan:

"The apprehension that the head of the department means to provide idle money to be lodged in the banks ready for the corruption of the next legislature, as it is believed the late ones were corrupted, by gratifying particular members with vast discounts for objects of speculation."

Why the resolution moved was changed in its character so as to omit all charge of corruption, and tone down the Secretary's act from "a violation" of the instructions of the President to an act done "without the instructions of the President," is obvious. At the moment when this whisper was most rife, it became known to a few of both parties that the Secretary had in his possession a written sanction for the acts so criticised, and that while Hamilton did not wish to involve Washington in the imbroglio, too direct an attack would force him to give publicity to his authorization, thus transferring the criticism from his own to his superior's shoulders. This was the last wish of Hamilton's enemies, and the clause was at once moderated so as to make the charge one of omission, not commission; and though Hamilton showed the letter to a few of his own adherents, he spared Washington the abuse that would have inevitably fallen upon him had the paper then been made public.

There were no differences between the draft and the completed resolutions 4-8, but what followed differed radically:

JEFFERSON'S DRAFT.	RESOLUTIONS AS MOVED.
(9.) Resolved, That at the next meeting of Congress, the act of Sep. 2d, 1789, establishing a Department of Treasury, should be so amended as to constitute the office of the Treasurer of the United States a separate department, independent of the Secretary of the Treasury.	(9.) Resolved, That a copy of the foregoing resolutions be transmitted to the President of the United States.
(10.) Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury has been guilty of maladministration in the duties of his office, and should in the opinion of Congress, be removed from his office by the President of the United States.	

In the Jefferson MSS. in the Department of State is a small, undated memorandum which was undoubtedly made at this period, and which, read in connection with this draft, is most illuminative. It is apparently an outline of the reforms in the Government desired by Jefferson, and, in the absence of a definite platform of the newly formed Democratic party, is therefore of considerable importance as showing its leader's plans to break up the "Treasury Junto," by dividing the Treasury and by excluding from Congress all holders of Bank stock. The report referred to is probably Hamilton's report on foreign loans, of January 3, 1793, which was specially obnoxious to Jefferson.

"Agenda.
Divide the Treasury Department.

Abolish the bank.
Repeal the Excise law & let states raise the money.
Lower impost.
Treasurer to pay and receive cash, not bills.
Repeal irredeemable quality and borrow at 4 per cent.
Exclude paper holders.
Condemn report of."

It is interesting in this connection to read Jefferson's own history of these resolutions, written to his son-in-law, T. M. Randolph, on March 3, 1793, or the day after the last had been negatived in the House of Representatives:

"You have for some time past seen a number of reports from the Secretary of the Treasury on inquiries instituted by the H. of Representatives. When these were all come in, a number of resolns were prepared by Mr. Giles, expressing the truths resulting from the reports. These resolns you will see in Fenno's paper. Mr. Giles and one or two others were sanguine enough to believe, that the palpableness of the truths rendered a negative of them impossible, & therefore forced them on. Others contemplating the character of the present House, one third of which is understood to be made up of bank directors & stock jobbers, who would be voting on the case of their chief: and another third of persons blindly devoted to that party, of persons not comprehending the papers, or persons comprehending them but too indulgent to pass a vote of censure, foresaw that the resolutions would be negatived by a majority of two to one. Still they thought that the negative of palpable truth would be of service, as it would let the public see how desperate & abandoned were the hands in which their interests were placed. The vote turned out to be what was expected, not more than 3. or 4. varying from what had been conceived of them. The public will see from this the extent of their danger, and a full representation at the ensuing session will doubtless find occasion to revise the decision, and take measures for insuring the authority of the laws over the corrupt manœuvers of the heads of departments under the pretext of exercising discretion in opposition to law."

In the sting of this defeat, Jefferson recorded in his Ana a list of the "paper holders" and "bank-stock holders" who had voted down these resolutions, practically including the whole majority, for he names 28, and the resolutions were defeated by votes ranging between 38 and 40. A similar list was printed in a party pamphlet of the day relating to this matter, entitled: 'An Examination of the Late Proceedings in Congress respecting the Official Conduct of the Secretary of the Treasury,' which includes 34 names, agreeing most closely with Jefferson's set. In my 'Bibliotheca Hamiltoniana,' I hazarded the suggestion that this pamphlet was written by John Taylor of Virginia, but I have since found that it was published on March 8, or only a week after the voting down of the resolutions, and it must therefore have been written in Philadelphia. Jefferson himself mentioned the piece in a letter to Monroe (May 5), writing: "The fiscal party having tricked the House of Representatives out of the negative vote they obtained, seem determined not to lose the ground they gained by entering the lists again on matters of fact & reason. They therefore preserve a triumphant silence notwithstanding the attacks of the pamphlet entitled 'an examination, etc.,' and of Timon. They shew their wisdom in this, if not their honesty." From this list of corrupt Congressmen, as well as from certain other ear-marks, I infer that the same hand which drew Giles's resolutions had at least an overlooking eye upon the preparation of the pamphlet.

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

ACROSS SIBERIA.—I.

OMSK, July 24, 1895.

THE great Siberian railway, properly speaking, begins at Cheliabinsk, nearly 1,400 miles beyond Moscow. This preliminary journey can be made in three days and four nights, on the whole not uncomfortably, at the exceedingly cheap rate of about thirty-seven and a half rubles, or some twenty dollars, for a first-class ticket. The fare all the way from St. Petersburg is proportionately even cheaper, as the Russian Government a few months ago introduced the system of a rapidly decreasing rate of mileage for long distances. The trip is only moderately interesting. The country passed through is flat and seems fertile and prosperous. The crowds at the stations are the usual picturesque, red-shirted muzhiks, with a sprinkling of the original native inhabitants as one gets to the eastward. The Volga is crossed on an iron bridge 1,484 metres long a few hours before the train reaches Samara. What one sees of the passage through the Urals is decidedly pretty, but to a foreigner hardly more, though the Russian, accustomed to level or rolling plains, is moved to much enthusiasm by mountains and valleys less striking than one can find, for instance, in New Hampshire.

Cheliabinsk is beyond the mountains, and already in Asia, but not in Siberia, as it lies in the government of Orenburg. The population, which is somewhere between fifteen and twenty-five thousand, is rapidly increasing, thanks to the railway, and is likely to continue to do so, as from here a branch line is being built to the Perm-Tiumén road, which crosses the Urals further north. The station, in true Russian fashion, is a good mile and a half from the city, and about it a suburb is quickly growing up. The place itself is in some ways not unlike some of our own Western ones of the same size, with its unfinished buildings and general air of untidy newness; but there is less bustle, and the color is different, for, instead of our prevailing white, most of the houses are unpainted and weather-stained, giving a generally dark effect. Very different, too, is the population, with its soldiers and officials in uniform, its peasants (for the lower classes in the Russian towns still are peasants, long-bearded, red-shirted), its Tatars and Kirghiz, the latter of whom are apt to live in the surrounding country, from which they come in to market. The streets are broad and shadeless, with the low houses, often of logs, straggling along loosely on either side; and carriages for hire abound, as the distances are considerable and the Russians are not fond of walking. Besides the churches, most of the chief buildings are public ones, such as official residences, schools, the offices of the railway, etc. The shops are small, but apparently not ill-supplied. Here and there one may see the omnipresent bicycle.

The Trans-Siberian itself is at present finished and open from Cheliabinsk to Omsk, a distance of 741 versts, or about 500 miles. It takes nearly forty-eight hours to traverse this, not so much on account of the easy slowness of the train as because at only one station does it stop for less than twenty minutes, while an hour or more is not infrequent. Our train was a fairly long one and packed, many of the upper-class passengers being on Government service; among them half-a-dozen engineers who were going two or three thousand miles further to work on another section of the road. Besides several baggage-cars, etc., there were three classes for travellers. There were no first-class cars, and the two seconds were borrowed from elsewhere, and so old, bad, and overcrowded were they that, like many of the other unfortunates with second-class tickets, I preferred to ride third. These thirds were the best I have ever seen, new-built expressly for this line, and capable at night of being turned into sleepers with three tiers of beds, thus insuring each of us a whole one, even if it was only a board. The five fourth-class cars were like freight cars plus a few windows, and were provided with benches filled with men, women, and children, a sturdy, cheerful crowd, not at all miserable in appearance, bound for the broad vacant lands to the east. Emigration to Siberia has increased very fast in the last few years. For a long time it was unwisely discouraged by the Government, which made futile efforts to check or limit it. This policy has now been abandoned, and last year well over a hundred thousand colonists crossed the Urals, the majority of them by the north to Tiumén and thence by steamer to Tomsk. There are various causes for this movement, such as exhaustion of the soil or growth of population till the lands of the Mir or commune are overcrowded; but perhaps the chief one is the restless, wandering spirit so characteristic of the Russian peasant. The extension of railways must stimulate this emigration, which will soon assume dimensions equalled only, if at all, by that of Europeans to the United States.

Such of the stations as were finished were satisfactory brick buildings, with granite water-towers near by, and each with its embryo garden. At each the sight was the same. Knowing that the wait would be a long one, the passengers streamed out for air, exercise, and refreshments. Three times a day we came to a buffet with very tolerable food, and more than ample leisure was allowed for a meal, while at every stopping-place there was a great samovar filled with boiling water from which any one could fill his precious tea-kettle gratis. A little way off, kept at this respectful distance by the orders of the gendarme who paced the platform, stood a crowd of peasants with wild strawberries or fish or vegetables or kumiss for sale, and from them the emigrants seemed to get most of their food, which they eked out with much tea. The town or village that the station represented was frequently not in sight, and in no case very close. Instead, there stood nondescript vehicles to carry any possible visitor to it. Among the loafers about were good-natured-looking Kirghiz, men of a marked Mongolian type and clad in sheepskins with the wool inside. They are largely still in a pastoral state, and own much of the land in this region, to the discontent of the more pushing Western intruder.

There are but two towns of any importance along the route, Kurgan and Petropavlovsk, each with some ten to fifteen thousand inhabitants. The whole way lies through a prairie broken by continual patches of woods or now and then a salt lake. The soil seemed to be a layer of black earth over sand, the degree of fertility varying with the thickness of the layer and its intermixture with sand. It can be fearfully cold here in winter, and must often be equally hot and dusty in summer; but, thanks to cloudy weather and occasional showers, we, at least, had nothing to complain of in this respect. Thus for two days and nights we jogged along until, on the third morning, we saw before us rolling northward the great river Irtysh, partly spanned by a fine half-finished railway bridge. By us were some wooden barracks for a temporary station, and in the distance, four or five miles off, the roofs and

domes of the capital of this region, the city of Omsk. ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

A UNIONIST'S VIEW OF THE GENERAL ELECTION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, August 17, 1895.

FROM the result of the general election in England a thoughtful Unionist may draw with some confidence the following conclusions:

First. The people of the United Kingdom, or, to use ordinary language, the English people, have pronounced decisively against the policy of home rule for Ireland.

The validity of the conclusion, is, I am aware, disputed by Home-Rulers. It rests, however, not on any subtleties of political calculation, but on broad, indisputable facts, of which every man, whatever be his political leanings, can and ought to take notice. Up to the end of 1885 all English politicians of influence had, without exception, opposed the policy of home rule. Mr. Gladstone's conversion induced the mass of Liberals to overcome their natural repugnance for every scheme which repealed or invalidated the Act of Union with Ireland. In 1886 Mr. Gladstone brought forward his first Home-Rule bill. It was unhesitatingly rejected by the House of Commons, and, on an appeal to the people, was even more decisively rejected by the electorate. And the measure of 1886, be it noted in passing, offered great advantages to the people of Great Britain. It practically removed the Irish representatives from the Parliament at Westminster, and left to the Parliament at Westminster the control not only of all British but of all Imperial concerns. The current of events and the personal influence of Mr. Gladstone produced in 1892 a change of sentiment. The Liberals returned to office; they were supported, however, only by an uncertain majority of about forty—a number, by the way, which is almost equivalent to the excess, on democratic principles, in the Parliamentary representation of Ireland. They were authorized, or, to use the political slang of the day, "had received a mandate," to produce a measure of home rule. The bill of 1893 was produced. It offered to the people of Great Britain no one of the advantages presented by the bill of 1886; it was passed through the House of Commons by means of the closure and the gag. Many of its chief provisions were not so much as discussed; it was summarily rejected by the House of Lords; its authors dared not dissolve Parliament.

Unionists had, therefore, even before the general election a right to presume, as they did presume, that the bill of 1893 did not command the assent of the people. To suppose that Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues could, if Parliament had been dissolved in 1893, have obtained a majority in favor of home rule, is to accuse them, without the slightest cause, of blindness to their own interests and of treachery to their allies. If they could have commanded success in 1893, it was arrant folly to throw away their chance of victory and wait for the defeat of 1895. If they knew in 1893 that they could obtain a verdict of the nation in favor of home rule, they sacrificed the interests of the Irish Nationalists by refusing to appeal to the nation. Every one knows that Mr. Gladstone's cabinet were guilty neither of stupidity nor of treachery; they did not dissolve Parliament because they conjectured, rightly enough, that on the question of home rule the electors would support the House of Lords. This well-founded belief explains their whole subsequent course of action. The proposed crusade against the House of Lords, the refusal to accept any modification in the Employers' Liability bill, the scheme for Welsh Disestablishment, the advocacy of local prohibition—the whole policy, to put the matter shortly, of "filling up the cup"—was nothing less than an attempt, almost an avowed attempt, to carry some scheme of home rule not on its own merits, but as part of a general democratic policy. Of the morality of this mode of action I say nothing; this is a point on which the opponents and the advocates of home rule cannot be expected—human nature being what it is—to agree. What I do assert is that the course of action, which was by no means without its political recommendations, was an admission that the electorate of the United Kingdom was unfavorable to the policy of home rule. No one bribes a person to perform an act which he deems to be beneficial to himself and is ready to perform of his own accord.

A conclusion, however, which was rendered probable by the conduct of the Gladstonians from 1893 to the moment when Lord Rosebery resigned office, is made certain by the result of the general election. I doubt whether, in any foreign country, it is possible for men fairly to estimate the effect of this election. It comes more near to a plébiscite than any other demonstration of the national will which is possible under the English Constitution. It amounts to a general condemnation of the policy pursued by the Liberal party since 1885. Members of the Opposition, indeed, who think anything more possible than that politicians who deemed themselves the special and indeed the only friends of the people should be unpopular, find in the generality of their condemnation a reason for attenuating its effect. Because a verdict went against them on any definite number of issues, they argue that they were not found guilty on any one issue in particular, and, above all, that the people of the United Kingdom have not pronounced against home rule. The fallaciousness of this assertion is demonstrated by two considerations. Not a single supporter of Lord Salisbury's Government would have been returned to Parliament if he had avowed himself a Home-Ruler. If the election had resulted in a majority (I do not say of 152, but of 50) in favor of the Opposition, they would undoubtedly have asserted, and not without reason, that the nation had approved the policy of home rule.

Secondly. The Home-Rulers have suffered not only a repulse but a permanent defeat.

It has now become impossible that, during any time for which politicians need take forethought, an act should be carried establishing an Irish Parliament with a parliamentary executive. To assert this is a very different thing from saying that the home-rule conflict is over. How far and with what vigor the Irish Nationalists, or, what is a different matter, their English allies, will carry on the contest, no man can foretell; this is not a subject on which a Unionist will venture to prophesy. It is again probable that the swing of the pendulum will have its effect; it is possible, though not, I think, probable, that, at the next general election, say in 1900, the Opposition may obtain a decisive majority and return to office. Assume, for the sake of argument, that they in their turn will obtain a majority of (say) 100 to 150. Under said circumstances they will, of course, be able to carry a measure of home rule through the House of Commons; but, after all that has happened, it is idle to suppose that the House of Lords would allow such a measure to pass into law. The Peers must, under some form or other, insist on the specific measure being submitted to the arbitrament of the electors, and, as Unionists hold, it is now established that a law establishing an Irish Parliament will never receive the assent of the nation.

Thirdly. The salient political fact of the time is the increasing strength of English Conservatism.

The Opposition contend, and not without reason, that the unpopularity of Lord Rosebery's Government was due far less to its advocacy of home rule than to the other parts of its policy; but since Lord Rosebery and his colleagues were the avowed champions of every popular or democratic reform or nostrum, the assertion that their unpopularity was due, not to their being Home-Rulers, but, in effect, to their support of the Newcastle programme, is at bottom nothing but an admission that so-called democratic reforms are not really popular, and that in England modern Conservatism is a stronger force than modern Liberalism. Nor does the truth of this conclusion rest upon the result of the recent election, nor, indeed, upon any one recent event. Men past middle life who can carry back their memories over a period of more than forty years, say to 1852, when the Conservatives first began to rally from the crushing blow of 1845, will see that, on the whole, decade by decade, the Conservative forces of the country have, under modern forms and in new shapes, gained strength. It is, of course, true that the Conservatism of to-day is a very different thing from the Conservatism of forty years ago. Lord Eldon would have considered Mr. Balfour a Jacobin, Peel would have hardly held him a Conservative, and Lord Palmerston, who in all but in name was a Conservative, would, we may suspect, not have offered him a place in any of Palmerston's cabinets. But if the Conservatism of to-day is unlike the Toryism of 1880 or the Conservatism of fifty years ago, it is equally clear that the Liberals of 1895 are unlike the Whigs of 1830 or the Liberals of 1860. It was no accident or mere freak of fortune which compelled John Bright to end his political career as the honored supporter of a Conservative ministry. Of the differences between modern Conservatism and the Toryism or Conservatism of former times I may, with your permission, say something in a future letter. All my present contention is, that modern Conservatism is in England, at the present moment, a stronger force than modern Liberalism. Gladstonians, at any rate, who delight in calling their opponents Tories, are precluded from maintaining that the victory of their opponents is not a triumph of Conservatism.

These are some of the conclusions suggested to a Unionist by the result of the general elections; they are conclusions to which I know neither English Liberals nor the *Nation* will assent. Their importance, however, lies not in their truth, but in their being believed to be true by members of a party who for the moment control the destinies of England. I do not profess to write with impartiality. One of the great evils of party contests is, that they render the impartial judgment of public affairs by men interested in the result of a conflict all but impossible. He who undertakes to comment upon the current course of events ought to do his best to write with fairness. This duty I trust I have performed, but a critic who knows himself to be subject to a bias ought to let the existence of that bias be

known. I write as a strong Unionist; my sole object is to let the readers of the *Nation* know the effect which the general election has upon the minds of Unionists. AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

SECRETARY MORTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Anent the third-term discussion, the *Nation* of August 22 says of the President : "The people turn to him for further service because they are unable to find as a successor any one who gives assurance that, if elected to the Presidency, he would guard the public interests in the same fearless and effective manner as Mr. Cleveland has done." The successor to Mr. Cleveland is not far to seek. J. Sterling Morton possesses in an equal degree every quality which has made the President strong in the public confidence.

There has been no more staunch upholder of the public credit than Mr. Morton. He was among the very first of our public men to stem the "16 to 1" free-silver tide in language so clear and incisive as to leave no doubt about its meaning. With him, "sound money" is that in which the civilized world does business —gold or its equivalent. He has shown administrative ability of the highest order in the conduct of the Agricultural Department. While, with a wise economy, saving to the Treasury over $1,000,000 returned to it from the appropriations, the value and efficiency of the department have been greatly increased. No branch of the Government has, in the interests of the people, been more carefully guarded or more intelligently directed. This is recognized by men of all parties. The toiling millions, whether in the workshop or on the farm, have in him a faithful and fearless friend, too honest to deceive them with false hopes. Labor and capital, each needing the aid of the other, friends, not foes, have in him a defender and ally. A graduate of Union College, he is a man of broad and generous culture, and at the same time he is, like Lincoln, a plain man of the people, easily accessible and of gracious manner. Indeed, he possesses many of Lincoln's characteristics which so endeared him to his fellow-countrymen. The author of Arbor Day, now so generally observed, of which he is justly proud, he is widely and honorably known. In the purity of his public and private life he is above reproach.

A representative Democrat, Mr. Morton stands for a wise economy in administration, for commercial freedom in a tariff for revenue only, graduated by the actual needs of the Government; for honest money as opposed to any scheme for tampering with the standard of value; for a pure civil service depending upon merit. Should the Democratic masses, as in the case of Mr. Cleveland, summon him to the leadership of the party, his candidacy would inspire confidence in business men everywhere, draw to its support the most intelligent and thoughtful of our people—in the majority it is believed—East, West, North, and South; and should he be elected to the Presidency, it is safe to say that in high purpose and patriotic devotion his administration would be equal to that of any of his predecessors. G. M.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., August 27, 1895.

POST-OFFICE RECEIPTS AT CLEVELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the issue of the *Nation* of August 29, I find an interesting article evidencing the improved condition of business throughout the country. You say that the increase in receipts for the month of July over the same month last year in the Chicago post-office is 20 per cent., Boston 15 per cent., St. Louis 18 per cent., Brooklyn, Buffalo, and San Francisco 20 per cent. It might interest you to know that the increase in this office for the same month was 26.86 per cent., which is, I believe, the largest increase shown in any office in the country.—Yours very truly,

JOHN C. HUTCHINS, Postmaster.

CLEVELAND, OHIO, August 31, 1895.

THE MIDDLE AGES AND THE RENAISSANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : The principle of intellectual and literary continuity, to which reference is made in the review of Courthope's 'History of English Poetry' in your issue of August 29, will constitute the leading thought of the forthcoming work by Prof. Stein of Bern on 'Die Philosophie im Zeitalter der Renaissance.' From the introductory considerations published by him in the *Rundschau* for June, it is evident that Prof. Stein rejects the idea of the Middle Ages as an intellectual vacuum, as a cessation of the progress of civilization, and consequently of the Renaissance as a sudden reawakening of the spirit of antiquity from a lethargy of many centuries. His purpose is to show that continuous development is the fundamental principle of the history of the human intellect.

Yours truly, A. L.

YPSILANTI, MICH., August 31, 1895.

MISINFORMATION ABOUT RUSSIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In view of the fact that the name of "Prof. E. Borges" has come before the public again in the daily press, it may not seem out of place or too late to make a few comments on his peculiar article, printed in the June number of *Harper's Magazine*. It was evident throughout that article that the writer was entirely ignorant of his subject. But I must confine myself to a few specific points.

Having been given to understand that "Prof. Borges" was connected with the St. Petersburg Lyceum, I made inquiries. I am informed from the capital that no such person is known there. Had he ever been in Russia even, he would hardly have asserted that Count L. N. Tolstoy, the author, holds, or ever has held, the post of "Secretary of Public Education." Count Dmitri Tolstoy was Minister of Public Education for a time, but was dropped in 1881, about Easter tide. Hence the jesting Easter greeting that year ran: "Khristos voskrese, Tolstoy iskrese!" (Christ is arisen, Tolstoy has disappeared), in place of the customary: "Khristos voskrese," and the reply: "Vo istinny voskrese" (He is risen indeed.) When Count Dmitry Tolstoy died, in the spring of 1889, he was Minister of the Interior. I described his funeral, at the time, in your columns. I saw it.

"Prof. Borges" asserts the "intimate friendship of the Czar [Alexander III.] and the famous painter Verestchagin." Of this, also, nothing is known in Russia.

More important than either of these errors is the gross misinformation contained in the paragraph which relates to the marriage and coronation of the Emperor Nicholas II. I quote only the conclusion of that paragraph: "Even the Emperor may be single, but he cannot be crowned as a bachelor. Simultaneously with his coronation the Czar receives his consecration as the supreme head of the Greek Church, and as such he must be a married man, according to the dogmatic law, 'A priest shall be the mate of a woman.'" If "Prof. Borges's" statements were founded on fact, the Emperor need not have been married until next spring, just before the coronation. The wedding took place immediately after the death of the late Alexander III., at his express request. It was also advisable for the peace and prosperity of the country, which, as in other monarchical lands, depends greatly on the existence of a direct heir to the throne. Moreover, as an editorial in the leading newspaper of St. Petersburg expressed it, at the time:

"For more than a century past the Russian nation has been accustomed to see the new Emperor a married man when he ascended the throne. An unmarried man is considered as an incomplete man, in the life of the common people. This very sound and profound view, which has been held by the populace from time immemorial, applies even more forcibly, if we may be permitted so to express ourselves, to the Emperor, as the leading Russian man, the representative of his people, the independent head of so great a country. Truly does the wisdom of the common people assert that the man is the head, the woman the soul. . . . The marriage of the Emperor is a matter-of-fact necessity for his fatherland, etc."

The Emperor is anointed at his coronation in token of his consecration to his lofty office and duties. But he is not a priest, any more than is the layman or the woman who receives anointment on the eve of one or all the twelve great annual festivals of the Russian Church. Therefore St. Paul's words, which enjoin that a minister of God shall be "the husband of one wife," and which are so construed in the Russian Church that priests must be married before they can be ordained, and can never have a second wife, in no sense apply to the Emperor. It is not imperatively necessary that he should be married before he is crowned. My authority for this statement is an educated clever arch-priest, connected with a Government institute, who assuredly not only knows the exact truth, but would be apt to claim all that is truthfully possible for the person on whom his position depends.

The Emperor is not "the supreme head of the Greek Church." Jesus Christ is the head of "the Holy Catholic Church of the East," which is the official title of that Church. The falsehood that the Emperor is its head is being so constantly repeated that I quote in full my authority for contradicting it. I have before me a copy of the Office for the Reception into the Russian Church of all converts from other Christian churches. The form is invariable, for a future Empress or for the humblest of her subjects. It is printed in Church Slavic, which bears about the same relation to modern Russian as Chaucer's English and black-letter script bear to modern English. Evidently, it is even more inaccessible to "Prof. Borges" than modern Russian! One of the questions put by the bishop or priest to the candidate for admission, in case that candidate has been a member of the Roman Catholic Church, is as follows: "Dost thou renounce the false belief that it is wrong to acknowledge Our Lord

Jesus Christ as the head of the universal Church; and that the head of the body of Christ, that is to say, of the universal church, can be a man, to wit, the Bishop of Rome?" The candidate replies: "I renounce it." And again: "Dost thou believe and confess that the foundation, head, highpriest, and chief pastor of the Holy, *Pravoslávnaya* [right-glorious] Catholic Church is Our Lord Jesus Christ, and that all bishops, pastors, and instructors for the government of the Church are appointed by Him? . . ." Answer: "I believe and confess."

Many other interesting things—among them, the true use of images—are plainly set forth in this Office of Reception, which is, practically, a confession of faith and rule of life.—Very truly yours, ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

BELMAR, NEW JERSEY, August 30, 1895.

Notes.

GEORGE BELL & SONS, London, will publish by subscription 'Richard Cosway, R.A., and his Companions: English Miniaturists of the Eighteenth Century,' by George C. Williamson, D. Lit., with a number of illustrations, a list of pictures exhibited by these artists, etc. The ordinary edition will consist of 350 copies. Dr. Williamson desires to make the list of Cosway's works known to exist as full and accurate as possible, and would gladly acquire descriptions and photographs of them, either by gift or by purchase. His address is The Mount, Guildford, Surrey, England.

Another subscription work is 'Picturesque Worcester (Mass.),' announced for publication in the fall by W. F. Adams & Co., Springfield, in three volumes. The half-tone scenic illustrations have been made under the supervision of the well known wood-engraver Elbridge Kingsley, and of Frederick Knab, and will number nearly 2,500, all original.

Fully illustrated, too, will be 'Beautiful Houses,' by Louis H. Gibson, which T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready.

D. Appleton & Co.'s fall announcements embrace 'The Beginnings of Writing,' by Walter James Hoffman, D.D., of the Bureau of American Ethnology; White's 'Natural History of Selborne,' in two volumes, with an introduction by John Burroughs and many illustrations; an *édition de luxe* of 'Uncle Remus, his Songs and his Sayings,' with 112 illustrations by A. B. Frost; Hall Caine's 'The Manxman,' in two volumes, with forty gelatine plates of the Isle of Man; 'Westminster Abbey,' by Miss Bradley, daughter of Dean Bradley, elaborately illustrated; an illustrated work on 'The Music of the Modern World,' edited by Anton Seidl, with the aid of specialists; a work on 'Oriental Porcelains,' by Dr. S. W. Bushell, the illustrations being in colors from the collection of the late W. T. Walters of Baltimore; 'Genius and Degeneration,' by Dr. William Hirsch; 'Our Juvenile Offenders,' by Douglas Morrison; 'General Sherman,' by Gen. M. F. Force; 'The Story of the Indian,' by George Bird Grinnell; 'The Intellectual Rise of Electricity,' by Park Benjamin; and a new revised and rewritten edition of Prof. C. A. Young's 'The Sun.'

Macmillan & Co. have in preparation 'The Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century,' by Philip A. Bruce, corresponding secretary of the Virginia Historical Society. "Servants and Slaves" will form the subject of one of the chapters.

'From Far Formosa: The Island, Its People and Missions,' by George Leslie Mackay, D.D., will be published in November by Fleming H. Revell Co., with maps and illustrations.

George H. Richmond & Co., No. 12 East Fifteenth Street, promise for next month a theatrical story, 'Dolly Dillenbeck,' by James L. Ford, author of the pungent 'Literary Shop.'

Mr. J. G. Bourinot, whose work as an expounder of the Constitution of the Dominion of Canada is well known, has prepared a manual entitled 'How Canada Is Governed' (Toronto: The Copp, Clark Co.). The book contains accounts of the political institutions of the provinces and municipalities, as well as of the Dominion, with an historical outline of their origin and development, and has a map and illustrations of some of the public buildings. It will be found convenient as a book of reference, but appears to be better adapted to the requirements of the average Canadian citizen than to those of students of politics.

The great work on 'Taxation in England' by Dowell was almost wholly confined to the national and imperial system, and the history of local taxation and finance has not received much attention. An essay on this subject by Mr. Inglis Palgrave appeared in 1871, but since that time nothing of importance in this direction has been attempted. The Local Government Board, however, has been for many years collecting and arranging materials, and this matter has now been utilized by Mr. G. H. Blunden in the preparation of an essay entitled 'Local Taxation and Finance' (Charles Scribner's Sons). The facts dealt with are of a sufficiently dry and repellent character; but, from the point of view of the economist, the investigation may be said to be enlivened by discussions of the incidence of rates, the taxation of ground values, and the theory of betterments.

'Stock Exchange Values' (London: Effingham Wilson) is a compilation of the prices of innumerable securities in the London market for the decade 1885-'95, prepared by the firm of F. C. Mathieson & Sons. Mr. S. F. Van Oss, the author of 'American Railroads as Investments,' contributes an introduction with statistics and diagrams. This introduction consists of a review of the general history of British business for the last ten years, including such financial events in foreign countries as have had important effects. Mr. Van Oss is a writer of ability, and he handles a difficult subject with skill as well as vivacity.

Under the title 'The Wealth of Labor' (Baker & Taylor Co.), Mr. Frank Loomis Palmer develops the beauties of protection from an unusual standpoint. He maintains—with very great obscurity of expression, it must be said—that in the exchange of goods the profit to the different parties may be very unequal, and that the party whose goods are most cheaply produced gains the least by the transaction. This is especially the case where natural advantages, or what Mr. Palmer calls gratuities, are involved, and hence the true protective principle is concerned only with exported products. A nation should devote itself, therefore, to keeping up the price of its exports, or at least of those in the production of which it has a clear advantage over foreign countries. It follows from this that restrictions should be imposed on the most productive industries, and labor be compelled to resort to those which are less so. The best way of accomplishing this appears to be by putting duties on exports. It will keep foreigners from getting our good things away from us, and compel them to stop trading or to accept commodities in the production of which we have no advantage over them. There is much force in Mr. Palmer's argument; but we fear that he will need to labor a long time before he induces our protected interests to consent to replace duties on foreign goods by duties on our own.

The University of Chicago Press issues a translation of Prof. Gustav Cohn's 'System der Finanzwissenschaft' made by Dr. T. B. Veblen, under the title 'The Science of Finance.' Prof. Cohn certifies, on reading the proof-sheets, that the translation is excellent, so that any complaint that we might feel disposed to make of the crabbedness of the style would apply only to the German of the original. The third book, which deals with the German tax legislation of the present time, has been omitted, inasmuch as, during the six years that have elapsed since its publication, so many changes in the law have taken place as to have made it useless except as history.

'Statistik und Gesellschaftslehre' (Statistics and Sociology) is the title of a work by G. von Mayr, the first volume of which, treating of "Theoretical Statistics" (Freiburg and Leipzig: Mohr), has just appeared. This volume is divided into five sections, beginning with a general introduction, followed by a discussion of the basis of statistical science, the methods, technics, administration, and history of statistics. To each section is added an excellent bibliography of the special subject considered, and reference to the entire contents is facilitated by a full index. The author maintains that sociological studies, unless founded upon statistical observations, are apt to lead to uncertain and illusory results, which are of no practical or scientific value and often give rise to vague speculations and false generalizations. This is a point, however, which he reserves for more thorough examination in a second and concluding volume under the head of "Practical Statistics, or Exact Sociology."

A valuable and very readable contribution to the recent history of ethics is Dr. Alexander Tille's volume, 'Von Darwin bis Nietzsche' (Leipzig: Naumann), in which an attempt is made to determine the influence of evolution in natural science upon the development of moral conceptions and their application to the social life of the individual and the race. Evolutional ethics, our author thinks, finds its clearest and most complete expression in Friedrich Nietzsche's 'Also sprach Zarathustra,' and he has therefore set this work as the limit of his present investigations. Full justice is done to the labors of Huxley, Spencer, and other English scholars in this province of research. The book needs an index. In Germany, at least, this lack is usually due to false economy on the part of the publisher, and is often as keenly regretted by the author as by the reader.

The same Leipzig publisher has just issued the first volume of 'Das Leben Friedrich Nietzsches,' by his sister Elizabeth Förster-Nietzsche. Although somewhat hobby-horsical, as men of intense convictions are apt to be, Nietzsche was a brilliant thinker and an exceedingly original character. His outward career was uneventful, but his intellectual life was peculiarly rich and rare. The fact that Dr. Max Nordau selected him as one of the most prominent of modern "degenerates," rivalling Richard Wagner and Henrik Ibsen as specimens of neurological deterioration and decay, ought to invest his biography, at least, with a psycho-pathological interest. In this record of his early life the reader will look in vain for symptoms of incipient imbecility.

A number of reprints and new editions have

accumulated on our table. Prof. Hinsdale has revised to date and extensively recast his 'American Government, State and National' (Chicago: The Werner Co.), but it seems strange that Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' should not have been singled out for recommendation, and should not appear among the references to works in which the American and the English systems are contrasted. From Macmillan we have the second volume of the translation of Adolf Holm's 'History of Greece,' concerning which work we have already expressed our judgment; and two more volumes in Dent's charming edition of Defoe, viz., 'Journal of the Plague Year' and 'Captain Singleton.' The editor, Mr. G. A. Aitken, examines, in his introduction to the Journal, the sources of Defoe's information about the visitation, which he could have remembered only as a boy of six, and adds an appendix of extracts from contemporary narratives about the Plague. In the introduction to 'Captain Singleton,' he follows Prof. Minto's discussion of Defoe's alleged anticipation of recent discoveries in Central Africa. Copeland & Day, Boston, have made a pretty brochure of Walter Pater's 'The Child in the House,' and have limited the output to 350 copies. D. Appleton & Co. send us the current issues of their well-known 'General Guide to the United States and Canada,' 'Canadian Guide-Book' (now compacted into a single volume), and 'Dictionary of New York and its Vicinity' (the "vicinity" has not always been carefully attended to in the revision).

Paul Langhans's 'Kleiner Handelsatlas' (Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann) is designed for use in schools and for self-culture, and will work efficiently to both ends. It shows the distribution of the world's raw products, the routes of commerce, etc., in a great variety of ways, with especial reference to European and to German trade. The little side-map in sheet Nos. 2 and 3 errs in coloring the United States as having the double standard of value; and Chili, too, should now be colored yellow to please the gold-bugs and to square with the facts. The same New York firm brings us the fourth part of the Spruner-Sieglin 'Atlas Antiquus,' and Parts 5 and 6 of the second volume of Ritter's 'Geographisch-Statisches Lexikon' in the eighth edition. The letter O is here entered upon.

The highly esteemed popular 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' of Hatzfeld, Darmesteter & Thomas (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) reaches *hystérotomie* in the 16th fascicule.

We make tardy mention of M. Salomon Reinach's review of M. P. Foucart's "Recherches sur l'origine et la nature des Mystères d'Éleusis," which appeared in the *Revue Critique* of July 15. M. Foucart holds that the worship of Isis and Osiris, as well as the art of agriculture, was introduced into Greece by Egyptian colonists about the seventeenth century B. C., and he insists on the likeness between Isis and Demeter. A thousand years later the Greeks borrowed from Egypt the eschatology contained in the 'Book of the Dead,' and developed it into the Eleusinian mysteries. M. Reinach seems willing to admit this later Egyptian influence, though, as an archæologist, he protests against the assertion that the earliest civilization of Greece was derived from Egypt. He believes it to have sprung from European sources, although its development was, no doubt, modified by Oriental influence. The earliest civilization of Greece has been revealed by the archæology which goes by the name of "prehistoric," and which to-day, M. Reinach says, lends a hand to history. He adds, a little ruefully: "Je devrais peut-être dire qu'elle la lui tend, et que l'histoire n'est pas bien empressée de la prendre; je crains que M. Foucart ne me contredise pas là-dessus."

The 'Bibliographie de l'année 1894,' published by the *Annales de Geographie*, is a catalogue of nearly sixteen hundred geographical works and articles in scientific journals, each entry accompanied in most instances by a short but useful descriptive note. No attempt has been made to record all the geographical literature of the year—mere books of travel are rarely included—but only works of importance either from their subject or their manner of treatment. It is larger by nearly a hundred pages than the similar publication of last year, the chief increase being in works on Africa and America.

Americans on their travels have had good reason to know the name of Baedeker. These will hear, not without interest, that, in a case lately tried before Lord Russell, the Chief Justice of England, and a jury, a verdict for £50 damages was given against Baedeker. The suit was brought by an hotel-keeper at Jaffa named Howard, alias Award; or, perhaps, more correctly, Award, alias Howard. The plaintiff does not seem to have had "all the blood of all the Howards" in him, for he was born at Beirut, in Syria, of a Maltese father and a mother from Mount Lebanon. Baedeker had stated of him that he was an Arab; that his hotel was a second-class one; and that he was a man with whom his guests should make a bargain. The jury were of opinion that, although the statements were honestly made, they were "not substantially correct."

The authorities of the Public Record Office, London, have made arrangements for the continuance of the preparation of the calendars of Colonial Papers, hitherto so admirably carried on by the late Mr. Noel Sainsbury of the Public Record Office. The Hon. John William Fortescue, a younger son of Earl Fortescue, will henceforth be charged with this undertaking. Mr. Fortescue has for some time past been interesting himself in colonial history, and, within the last two years, has published, in *Macmillan's Magazine*, papers upon the Expedition of Penn and Venables to Jamaica in 1655, and upon other West Indian subjects. He cannot, of course, bring to the task the vast amount of information his predecessor had accumulated in the course of a long lifetime, but, from what we have heard of Mr. Fortescue, there is reason to believe that his heart will be very much in his work. Being now only thirty-six, he has the prospect of long usefulness before him. Mr. Fortescue was at one time Private Secretary at Barbados to Gov. Sir William Robinson of the then Windward Islands, in the West Indies.

Mr. Arthur Prestwood Lucas, B.A., of the Colonial Office, London, who has for some years past been bringing out a series of historical-geographical works upon the British colonies, through the Clarendon Press, Oxford, is now engaged upon a volume dealing with South Africa.

Thanks to the practical efforts of some American educators (the "International Institute for Girls in Spain," incorporated by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and placed at San Sebastian, on the Bay of Biscay), the University of Madrid has fallen into line with the general movement for the higher education of women. Two graduates of this Spanish-American School for Girls having taken their B.A. degree (1894) at the Government Institute for Boys at San Sebastian, continued their studies in the Madrid University course of philosophy and fine arts, for their M.A. degree, taken this summer at the regular term of the University in Madrid. The grades given at the examinations, which extend over a week, are three—*aprobado*, *bueno*, *sobresaliente*. In every examination the young women received "sobresaliente" and passed "gloriosamente." A detail of this latest episode in current educational history shows that the spirit of chivalry is not extinct in modern Spain: the University has 1,000 male students, some of whose number have testified their approbation of their new fellows by making a pathway of their caps before the girls, and chanting in line on the staircase of the University library the Royal March, as the pair walked by.

The Vienna Society for Providing Academic Lectures for Women has just issued a circular containing the syllabus for 1895-96, which embraces the whole range of science and art, including the literary study of modern languages. While most of the lecturers are young *Universitäts-Docenten*, a prominent painter will lecture on the history of art, and two members of the Hoftheater are to give instruction in elocution and recitation. We are also informed that the University of Prague has granted to women permission to attend its lectures as *ausserordentliche Zuhörer* (or what certain of our colleges call "hearers"), and although this privilege carries with it no academic status, it is an entering wedge of opportunity which time may be trusted to drive home.

—Among the documents of interest now being shown to American visitors to the Public Record Office, London, is a hitherto unpublished letter from Benjamin Franklin to the Earl of Shelburne. It was recently discovered among papers in the Record Office connected with the Department of Foreign Affairs. It runs thus:

PASSY, March 22, 1782.

Lord Cholmondeley having kindly offered to take a Letter from me to Your Lordship I embrace the Opportunity of assuring the continuance of my ancient Respect for your Talents and Virtues, and of congratulating you upon the returning good Disposition of your Country in favour of America, which appears in the late Resolution of the Commons. I am persuaded it will have good effects. I hope it will tend to produce a general Peace, which I am persuaded Your Lordship, with all good Men, desires, which I wish to see before I die, and to which I shall with infinite Pleasure, contribute everything in my Power. Your friends the Abbé Morellet and Madam Helvetius are well. You have made the latter very happy by your kind present of Gooseberry Bushes which arriv'd in five days, and in excellent order. With great and sincere Esteem, I have the honour to be,

My Lord,

Your Lordship's Most Obedient and most humble servant,

B. FRANKLIN.

LORD SHELBURNE.

—In 1848, the Hakluyt Society, London, published a reprint of 'The Discoverie of the Large, Rich, and Bewtiful Empire of Guiana, . . . Performed in the yeare 1595 by Sir W. Ralegh, Knight, Captain of Her Maiesties Guard, &c., &c.' The Hakluyt edition of this work was admirably edited by that distinguished traveller the late Sir Robert Schomburgk, who, in 1841, as the Queen of England's Commissioner to survey the boundaries of British Guiana, explored the Delta of the Orinoco. In his Introduction to the work Sir Robert says (p. lxv): "The general belief that during Ralegh's lifetime only one edition of his Voyage was separately published is erroneous, as,

on a recent comparison of two copies bearing the date of 1596, we have observed some trifling typographical differences." This statement has been confirmed by the recent acquisition by the British Museum of a copy of the second edition. Both editions appeared in 1596, "imprinted at London by Robert Robinson." The edition published by the Hakluyt Society is that which, at the Museum, bears the press number C. 32, g. 25. The reference to the new acquisition is C. 32, c. 10. A correspondent of the *Nation*, at present in London, says that he has compared the two editions now in the Museum, and finds that they are two distinct publications. At the same time, he thinks that there must have been three, rather than only two, editions of the 'Discoverie,' for the differences between the two copies in the Museum are not identical with those which Schomburgk gives in his note (1) on p. lxv. of his Introduction. It is worth mentioning that, a year or two after the Hakluyt edition appeared, the Museum authorities acquired a manuscript map of Guiana, which is attributed by Mr. Cooke, an expert in such matters, to 1595, and is now classed as Sir Walter Raleigh's map of Guiana. The press number of this chart is 17.940a of the "Additional" classification. Schomburgk appears to have been unaware of the existence of this map; at all events, he does not mention it. It is among those treasures of the Museum that have lately been put out in glass cases, in a locked room, for the edification of the savants attending the Geographical Congress in London. In 1892 a Hamburg firm published a reproduction of this map of Guiana in connection with the celebration of the discovery of America.

—The Selden Society's edition of 'The Mirror of Justices' has already received mention in these columns. It remains only to say that Prof. Maitland's Introduction is a new proof of his comprehensive learning and acute suggestiveness; and that his unwillingness to propose a positive solution leaves the question of this book's authorship and motive likely to become the permanent riddle of English legal history. As relevant circumstances, hardly brought out, however, by Prof. Maitland, it may, perhaps, be noted (1) that to "deliberately state as law what he knew was not law" (p. xxxvii.) is not, especially in that age, as significant as it seems; for that is exactly what the judge Bracton himself did, even on points where in other places he recounts the actual practice; (2) that, as indicated in Liebermann's 'Consiliatio Cnuti' (pp. xiii., 1), the local customs of England were for a long time very varied (as in Germany), and both the "law" and the "abuses" of the 'Mirror's' author may often represent his experience, though not the practice of some or all of the king's judges, who themselves could hardly have been entirely uniform in rulings at that time. The Selden Society's 'Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty' (edited by Reginald D. Marsden), mainly covering the earliest period of extant regular records, 1527-1545, has a special interest in the facilities which it begins to supply for the study of the history of our commercial law. It is much to be regretted that Goldschmidt's masterly 'Handelsrechtsgeschichte' has not been done into English to reveal to our lawyers the complicated and fascinating past of our commercial legal ideas. The bills of debt on pp. 55, 72, 93, serve as apt illustrations of Goldschmidt's theory that the bill of exchange is historically an outgrowth in part of the old bottomry bond; we here in the 1500s see the process going on before our eyes. Another interesting thing is the form of the old bill of lading, which often, as in older Asiatic commerce, is written by the consignor in the first person, "I have delivered, etc." (pp. 61, 126).

—We must not fail to call attention to the rich treat offered in the next few years by the Selden Society. Besides the 'Bracton and Azo' and 'Coroners' Rolls, H. III. to H. V.,' they now announce: Earliest Records of the Equitable Jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery (nearly ready); Select Admiralty Pleas, vol. ii. (nearly ready); Select Pleas from the Court of Requests, vol. i., H. VII., and H. VIII. (in preparation); Forest Plea Rolls; Memoranda of the Court of Exchequer; Plea Rolls of the Jewish Exchequer; Pleas of the Star Chamber; Pleas of Manorial Courts, vol. ii.; Civil Pleas, vol. ii.; Conveyancing Precedents of the 1200s; a book of precedents of pleading of the same time; and the History of the Register of Original Writs.

—A toothsome dish has, within a few weeks, been served up for the refection of faddomaniacs. M. Louis Martin, encouraged by the success of his 'Angleterre et la Franc-Maçonnerie,' has aimed to astonish the nations by answering in the affirmative the question which forms the title of a book he has lately issued, 'L'Anglais est-il un Juif?' Before grappling with his new theme, however, he once more relieves himself on the subject of his former effusion. According to his reading of history, Freemasonry had its origin, at least in its modern form, in London, about 1717, was imported to the Continent, and bore its first fruits, as regarded his own countrymen, in the loss, by France, of possessions in India and Canada. Its subsequent effects, he maintains, are seen in the French Revolution, the emancipation of the Jews, the *cordiale entente*, the reign of Napoleon III., 'the present anglolatrous Republic,' and what not; English Protestants and French Huguenots utilizing and exploiting it for their own ends. France, he estimates, furnishes only 26,500 Freemasons, while England has 287,100, and the United States, 569,600. But not only thus is heirship to perdition established for the Anglo-Saxon race. Another proof that we are speeding to the pit is discovered in the fact that we are Hebrews. To what the Anglo-Israelite Society has made out, to its satisfaction, on this point, M. Martin seems to attach no particular value. He takes his stand on the infallible ground of psychology. Jews and Anglo-Saxons, as, but for the conceit of invincible obtuseness, we should not hesitate to acknowledge, exhibit, unmistakably, a family likeness, in being equally distinguished by want of conscience and sense of responsibility, perfidy, deceitfulness of bearing, avarice, stupidity, cowardice, pride, ferocity, and so on. Except in popular nomenclature and other non-essentials, the two races are, consequently, identical. Q. E. D.

—The diggings at Delphi have brought to light a fourth sacred hymn, some account of which was given to the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, at its session of August 9, by M. Henri Weil. The hymn is in honor of Dionysos, and dates from the last third of the fourth century before our era. This makes it of an earlier date than the pieces already discovered, which it surpasses also in historical interest, although it is not accompanied by musical notation. The first strophes turn on the legend of the god; the rest bear upon historical events then going on. Other epigraphic documents recently discovered show that the work of rebuilding the temple of Delphi proceeded throughout the whole of the fourth century. The present discovery shows that these works received a lively impulse after the close of the sacred war against the Phocians, who had pillaged the treasuries of the temple. The poet looks forward to the day when there shall rise on the desecrated site a new temple, resplendent with gold, which shall be thenceforth safe from profanation, and he felicitates the generation that shall accomplish this pious work. Speaking as the mouthpiece of the priests of Delphi and of the Amphictyonic Council, which was directed at that time by the Macedonian princes, he extols the panhellenic idea and the policy of the new chiefs of Greece. The *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* will publish the text of the pæan with notes and supplements by M. Weil.

—At the session of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres of July 5, M. Bréal read a paper of more than ordinary interest on the different divinities of ancient Italy. It has been commonly held that the Romans, when they were brought into contact with the Greeks, identified their own divinities with the Hellenic gods. Mars, for instance, was regarded as identical with Ares, Minerva with Athene, and so on. M. Bréal, however, believes that this identification was of much earlier date, and that it was made by the Etruscans. The names of Mars and Minerva are not Latin, but Etruscan. This is also true of Neptune, whose name, under the form "Nephtil," is found on a mirror. The Latin language is an Indo-European tongue—there can be no doubt about that; but because the language is Aryan it does not follow that the religion was also Aryan—at any rate, the whole of it. One only needs to glance at the religions of Europe to see that this is so. The Etruscan religion has, besides, left other traces among the Romans, and, through them, among the French. For example, the name of the gens Aurelia, to which belonged the Emperor Marcus Aurelius, is derived from the word "usil"=the sun. This name has been naturalized in France in the name of the city of Orléans, and from France it has crossed the Atlantic "pour baptiser l'un des États de la république américaine." The closer one looks into the question, the more one perceives that civilization is the work of many collaborators. The language of these old peoples, though apparently extinct, is not wholly dead; it reappears at intervals in some mythological allusion, or in some name of a place or of a man. In the discussion which followed M. Bréal's reading, M. d'Arbois de Jubainville said that he believed that the general principles laid down by M. Bréal could hardly be contested. The religious doctrines of the Romans contained elements, borrowed from the Etruscans, which are not Indo-European; such as the doctrine that, in the art of augury, the left and not the right is of good omen. But there are still details which be thought might be disputed. The word "usil," for instance, and the name of the Aurelii, primitively Auselii, seem to come from the same root as the Latin *aurora*, the origin of which appears to be Indo-European.

A RUSSIAN WOMAN.

Sónia Kovalévsky: Her Recollections of Childhood. Translated from the Russian by Isabel F. Hapgood, with a Biography by Anna Carlotta, Duchess of Cajanello, translated from the Swedish by A. M. Clive Bayley, and a Biographical Note by Lily Wolff-

sohn. New York: The Century Co. 8vo, pp. 318. 1895.

Sonia Kovalevsky: Biography and Autobiography. I. Memoir. By A. C. Leffler (Edgren), Duchessa di Cajanello. II. Reminiscences of Childhood, written by herself. Translated into English by Louise von Cassell. With portraits. Macmillan. 12mo, pp. 317. 1895.

MR. GLADSTONE is right in saying that the biography of Sonia Kovalevsky is a book of extraordinary interest. (How wrong he is in his further comment upon it, we shall point out further on.) There is nothing in the world more interesting than to obtain fresh insight into the real nature of a human soul; and when a biography is of an intimate nature and is written with masterly strokes, it is a human document which one must be very thankful for. In this case there is the additional feature that the character described is that of a woman of extraordinary intellectual powers and of extraordinary richness and force of character.

All criticism, whether of persons or of books, is, as Jules Lemaître has pointed out, necessarily subjective in its character, whatever may be the critical principles which its author professes to abide by. It is always essential that we should be able to make allowance for the writer's point of view, and hence it would not be a bad plan if every important biography were preceded by the biography of its author. This volume has that advantage; the life of the Duchess of Cajanello, although it comes at the end of the book, the wise reader will turn to first. She, too, was a remarkable woman and led a life full of interest. Anna Carlotta Leffler was the sister of the distinguished Swedish mathematician, Mittag-Leffler, and the only daughter of a Swedish rector. She inherited from her mother literary tendencies which showed themselves at an early age; when she was six years old she dictated a tale to her older brother which he wrote down, and she was only twenty-three when her play, "The Actress," a precursor of "The Doll's House," was given for an entire season at the Stockholm theatre. No one suspected her to be the author of it; she had, in fact, never been in a theatre more than two or three times in her life, for her parents during her early youth considered theatre-going a luxury, and her own religious convictions forbade her to indulge in such a pleasure often. A few years later a collection of tales entitled 'From Life,' the first book she had published under her own name, obtained an immense success, and from this time she was an admired and a prolific writer. Her home was the meeting-place for the best and the most distinguished literary spirits of the day, and she was herself the gracious and inspiring hostess, who nevertheless gave to the conversation the impress of her own personality. In 1888 she accompanied her brother to the mathematical congress held in Algiers, and upon returning through Italy she met for the first time the Duke of Cajanello, with whom her brother had long been in correspondence—a man who had broken with the prejudices of his class sufficiently to become professor of mathematics at the University of Naples. Her marriage with him was an extremely happy one, and she became again, in Naples, the centre of a brilliant literary circle.

Upon the death of Sonia Kovalevsky, with whom she had lived upon terms of the most intimate friendship, she devoted herself to the writing of her biography, and she had just finished correcting the proof-sheets of this work when she succumbed to a sudden attack of peritonitis. She had lately returned from a summer spent in the island of Capri, she had set her house in order for the winter, and had commenced a new novel which she felt would be her greatest work.

"With the cradle of her child close beside her, she wrote with ever-increasing delight, interrupting herself every now and then to attend to her infant, and again resuming her work without the least impatience. There also stood one who awaited the result of her work with intense sympathy, ready to hear her read the freshly written pages, which she communicated with the calmness induced by the certainty of being comprehended. She trembled at all this happiness, and she was snatched away just as she had tasted its full sweetness."

It is not inappropriate to bear in mind that the biography before us was written by a woman intoxicated with the joys of early married life (her first marriage had not been a happy one), and that allowance may need to be made for an unconscious tendency to exaggerate the indispensableness of such sources of contentment.

The life of Sonia Kovalevsky is depicted for us in two parts. We have already called attention in the *Nation* to the dramatic quality, the keen psychological analysis, and the absorbing interest of her own recollections of her childhood, which were first published in Russian under the title of 'The Raevsky Sisters,' and which appeared a year ago in French in the *Revue de Paris*. The most interesting figure in this tale is not Sonia, but her sister Aniuta, a young girl of brilliant endowments and of charming personality. The life of the two sisters on a remote estate in Russia, Aniuta's first attempts at literary composition, her delight when her tales were accepted by Dostoievsky for his journal, the *Epoch*, at a time when neither of the sisters had ever seen a human being who had written a single line for publication, the meeting with Dostoievsky later in St. Petersburg, and finally the escape of the two sisters from family restrictions which were no longer to be endured—all this must be read in the book itself if one would obtain its true flavor. They were not the only girls who were drawn into the vortex of the new ideas (we quote from the biography):

"The inhabitants of Palibino lived on peacefully and quietly; they grew up and waxed old; they quarrelled and became reconciled to each other; by way of passing the time they bickered about this or that magazine article, about this or that scientific discovery, being all the while thoroughly convinced, nevertheless, that all these questions pertained to another world, wholly distinct from theirs, and that they would never have any direct contact with every-day life. And all of a sudden, no one could say how, signs were revealed close beside them of some strange fermentation which was indisputably drawing nearer and nearer. . . . In the period of time included between the years 1860 and 1870 all the educated classes of Russia were occupied exclusively with one question—the family discord between the old and the young. Ask about whatever noble family you would at that time, you always heard one and the same thing—the parents had quarrelled with the children. And the quarrels had not arisen from any substantial material causes, but simply upon questions of a purely theoretical, abstract character. 'They could not agree about their convictions!' It was only that, but this 'only' sufficed to make children abandon their parents and parents disown their children. . . . An epidemic seemed to seize upon the children, especially the girls—an epidemic of fleeing from the parental roof; the daughter, now of this, now of that, landed proprietor had run away; this one abroad, the other to Petersburg to the 'Nihilists.'"

A common means of escape was to go through the form of marriage with young men devoted to the same ideas which they held sacred; in this manner, as married women, they became free from parental authority, and were enabled to pursue their studies at foreign universities. To Sonia and to her friends at this time this seemed a far higher conception of the marriage state than the commonplace idea of a union for purely selfish happiness. "The sacrifice of self for unselfish purposes was their noble intention, and the development of intellect was the means by which these young people hoped to infuse new vigor into the fatherland they loved so dearly, and to assist its struggle from darkness and oppression into light and freedom." We seem to be living again in the exciting atmosphere of 'Fathers and Sons.' In Sonia's case, however, her father, an irascible and charming old gentleman, immediately forgave her, when there was nothing else to do, and she continued on most affectionate terms with both her parents as long as they lived.

The newly married couple remained for six months in St. Petersburg, where Sonia was introduced by her husband to circles interested in political events, and thus one of her great desires was fulfilled. She was at this time just eighteen, but looked much younger. A friend who made her acquaintance then describes her as having very mobile features; "her eyes especially were exceedingly expressive, sometimes bright and dancing, sometimes dreamy and full of melancholy. She attracted every one by her unconscious charm; old and young, men and women, all were fascinated by her." In the spring of 1869 Sonia and her husband left for Heidelberg, she to study mathematics and he to study geology. After matriculating there, they went to England, where they met the most celebrated persons of the day—George Eliot, Darwin, Spencer, Huxley, and others. In George Eliot's diary occurs this entry:

"Last Sunday we had a visit from an interesting Russian couple, M. and Mme. Kovalévsky. She a sweet, taking creature, with a shy voice and manner. . . . He, amiable and intelligent, studying the natural sciences."

Sonia remained for two years at Heidelberg, and she was then for four years the beloved pupil of the great Weierstrass at Berlin. At the end of this time she took the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Göttingen, having handed in three important papers instead of the one thesis required, and being excused from the oral examination. Upon returning to Russia, there followed some years of happy family life and of social and literary activity. She felt at this time a certain temporary distaste for mathematics—a not uncommon phenomenon after years of too exclusive devotion to it. Her only child, a daughter, was born soon afterwards, and she had now every prospect of a happy life. But financial difficulties, her husband's absorption in unwise speculations, and especially his falling completely under the influence of an unscrupulous adventurer, broke up this happy home. After heroic efforts to restore her husband to his right mind and to preserve a *modus vivendi*, she decided to make a future for herself and her little daughter entirely by her own endeavor, and she left Russia for Paris. There had before this time been some correspondence with reference to her becoming a lecturer in the University of Stockholm. Prof. Mittag-Leffler, who was greatly interested in the University lately established in his native town, and who also took a warm interest in the woman question, was eager to secure for his University the

glory of attracting to it the first great woman mathematician. But it was not until after the death of her husband that she finally went to Stockholm, towards the end of the year 1883. Here, also, in the eight years that remained to her of life, her mathematical activity was much broken in upon by her absorption in literary work. In a very interesting letter, she says:

"I understand your surprise at my being able to busy myself simultaneously with literature and mathematics. Many who have never had an opportunity of knowing any more about mathematics confound it with arithmetic, and consider it an arid science. In reality, however, it is a science which requires a great amount of imagination, and one of the leading mathematicians of our century states the case quite correctly when he says that it is impossible to be a mathematician without being a poet in soul. . . . As for myself, all my life I have been unable to decide for which I had the greater inclination, mathematics or literature. As soon as my brain grows wearied of purely abstract speculations, it immediately begins to incline to observations on life, to narrative; and, *vice versa*, everything in life begins to appear insignificant and uninteresting, and only the eternal, immutable laws of science attract me. It is very possible that I might have accomplished more in either of these lines if I had devoted myself exclusively to it; nevertheless I cannot give up either of them completely."

Her interest in a play which she was engaged in writing in collaboration with Anna Carlotta Leffler, with whom she had come to live on terms of the most intimate friendship, was so great that she neglected until the last moment the mathematical paper with which she was to compete for the Prix Bordin of the French Academy of Sciences, and was finally obliged to work night and day in the effort to get it finished in time. The paper was entitled, "On a Particular Case of the Problem of the Rotation of a Heavy Body Around a Fixed Point," and it involved the first application that had been made of the theta functions to the solution of a physical problem. It received the prize, the award being doubled by the Academy (to five thousand francs) on account of the "quite extraordinary service rendered to mathematical physics by this work." She received the prize in person, and she became the heroine of the hour. Speeches were made in her honor, which she was obliged to acknowledge in like manner; she was interviewed, and received visits all day long. A more brilliant recognition of more brilliant scientific achievement in the most difficult field of intellectual endeavor it has seldom fallen to the lot of any one to receive.

But in the midst of these days of public triumph, the real Sonia Kovalevsky was very miserable. An unfortunate love affair was reaching its climax at the same moment that the brilliant world of Paris lay at her feet, and she cannot give herself up completely to either the joy or the misery of the extraordinary occasion. She is far removed from the shrinking girl of eighteen whom George Eliot knew; she is also far from having had the springs of strong emotion dried up by her scientific pursuits, as happened to Charles Darwin. She is the Russian woman, of stormy passions, of constantly varying moods, of tyrannical nature in friendship as well as in love, making vast demands upon life and contented with nothing that this world can give. Anna Carlotta writes: "Her friendship, though in one way so precious to me and fecund in delight, now began to oppress me by its exactions." "She was continually in want of stimulus. She desired dramatic interests in life, and was ever hungering for high-wrought mental delights." But if at times she thought passionate devotion to some human being the one thing worth living for, at other times she was equally enraptured with the joy of creation in the region of pure mathematics:

"She had been in Paris with Poincaré and other mathematicians. . . . It now seemed to her that nothing was worth living for but science. Everything else—personal happiness, love, love of nature—all was vain. The search for scientific truth was now to her the highest and most desirable of things. Interchange of ideas with her intellectual peers, apart from any personal tie, was the loftiest of all intercourse. The joy of creation was upon her, and now she entered upon one of those brilliant periods of hers, when she was handsome, full of genius, sparkling with wit and humor."

At other times she was again, as she had been during seven years of married life in Russia, the simple, affectionate woman. She writes from near Moscow, where she was staying with a friend, and where she was "always introduced to new acquaintances as Fouzi's mamma": "You cannot imagine what an effect this has. It calls forth in me a perfect crop of genuine virtues, which spring up like mushrooms, and of which you would never suppose me capable." Again she had periods of absolute laziness, when it was an effort to rise from the chair into which she had sunk—when the most trivial novel, the most mechanical fancywork, a few cigarettes, and some tea were all that was necessary to give her for months more happiness, she said, than anything else in life. She had the ways of a charming woman in her graceful acceptance of the aid of men in removing the annoyances of railway travel, but, "notwithstanding all this, there was never a woman who, in the deepest sense of the word, could be more independent of others than she."

Two years after the awarding of the Prix Bordin, she died. Exposure during a journey from Italy to Stockholm in the month of February, 1891, brought on an attack of pleurisy from which she had not courage to rally. She was at this time in a period of great depression, but she had the schemes of several new novels already worked out in her head, and she had just communicated to Mittag-Leffler the idea of a mathematical work which he thought would be the greatest that she had yet written.

What moral are we to draw from the life history of this extraordinary nature—stormy, tempestuous, unregulated, and full of genius? The book has been noticed at much length by the French and the English reviews, and the moral has seemed to the reviewers a very easy one to draw; it is that the highest possible success as a mathematician cannot give happiness to a woman, that she can find that only, and always, in the gratification of her affections. Mr. Gladstone, in his letter to Mr. Fisher Unwin, says: "The two works [in the English edition the biography and the autobiography are in separate volumes] present a great deal of salutary warning." The writer of the biography takes a similar view, saying: "This is one of the strongest objections that can be made to intellectual talent in woman: the exercise of it prevents her from throwing herself entirely into matters of affection." For those who are already in the possession of this belief, this may furnish another occasion for reiterating it; as a deduction from the life of Sonia Kovalevsky nothing could well be more wide of the mark. A calm and simple absorption in the joys of a well-ordered family life is what the critics have in view as the natural antithesis to a mathematical career, but this is by no means the antithesis that Sonia had in mind when she declared her life to be an unhappy one. The man who made her later years so stormy wished to marry her at the beginning of their acquaintance, and she might have had as happy and simple a life from this time on as any woman, and carried on her mathematical researches as well. It was not her mathematics which stood in the way of this, but her own high-strung and passionate temperament, which made her dissatisfied with the kind of love he offered her, and insisted upon such an utter absorption and self-abnegation as would be possible for hardly any mortal. The story of her life is intensely interesting and intensely sad; as a source from which to draw a norm for other women, it has no significance whatever. Do many normal women find it necessary to lead a life of high-wrought passion at the age of thirty-eight? The lesson, if there is a lesson for ordinary natures, is that the well-regulated Anglo-Saxon temperament is more likely to be productive of happiness, in the long run, than the erratic Russian one; extraordinary natures make laws unto themselves, and will not be guided by the experience of other mortals.

The Defence of Plevna, 1877. By William V. Herbert. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

PLEVNA, the latest of the world's greater battles, and the decisive battle of a mighty war, is of especial value to the military student as the best example, perhaps, of the attack and defence of intrenchments under comparatively recent conditions. The account of the Turco-Russian war of 1877-8 with which American readers are most familiar is that of F. V. Greene, formerly of the Engineer Corps of the United States Army, who was selected by our Government to witness the war from the Russian side, being officially accredited to Russia as military attaché. He entered on his mission free from prejudice, he had as a foundation the training of our military academy and several years of service in the army; during the campaign he had access to the official plans and orders, and heard them discussed in his presence; he was now at headquarters, now on the skirmish line; and all parts of the field, wherever the most interesting events happened to be occurring, were open to him. He was therefore enabled to take a broad view of the situation at any time, as well as to familiarize himself with the details of every-day events. The work before us, on the other hand, is written by a man of no previous military instruction or training, possessing the strong prejudices of the English against the Russians, almost a mere boy at the breaking out of the war, and occupying a subordinate position in the Turkish army during the battle of Plevna, who accordingly had no means of comprehending at the time the significance of any movement in his immediate vicinity, or its bearing on the general plan of campaign. In spite of these disadvantages, he has given us a stirring account of the various battles for the possession of Plevna and its final investment and surrender, all the more interesting as presenting the Turkish side of the contest.

Mr. Herbert appeared in Constantinople in 1877, at the age of eighteen, with his application to serve in the Turkish army, and, after a short sojourn at a war school, was commissioned second lieutenant, and was soon afterwards ordered to join his company at Widdin,

where he remained for two or three months, or until the army was concentrated in Plevna. There he remained throughout the four desperate battles for the possession of the city, during the period of investment and until the final surrender. The story of the daily life of the Turkish soldier within the lines of Plevna, of his occupations, amusements, and characteristics, of his privations and sufferings in camp, on the battle-field, and in the hospitals, of the manner in which the intrenchments grew (as they did in our civil war) by the individual need and initiative of the private soldier, and of the skirmishes and battles, is replete with interest. The military operations are sketched in outline only, but with clearness sufficient to render intelligent the particular movements described. The value of the work as a whole rests not on its military science, but on its portrayal of the personal experiences of the author.

After these general remarks we must content ourselves with a few extracts. They show the quality of the description, and are a timely reminder of the horrors of war. The first relates to the second battle of Plevna:

"As to my personal experience, I remember nothing. The actual contact, the psychological moment of such a charge, lasts but a minute or so; and such a lifetime of experience is crowded into it that memory is hopelessly at fault. All I know is that I discharged the six chambers of my revolver, but at whom I have no notion; that my sabre was stained with blood, but with whose I cannot tell; and that suddenly we looked at one another in blank surprise—for the Russians had gone, save those on the ground, and we were among friends, all frantic, breathless, perspiring; many bleeding, the lines broken, the tactical units dissolved; most of us jabbering, shouting, laughing, cursing, dancing about like maniacs. . . . Fifteen or twenty minutes after the first charge the Russians returned. . . . A giant on a horse to match—a colonel, I think—galloped up to me and dealt me a terrific blow from above. . . . It seemed to me as if I had been insensible for weeks, whereas it can only have been an hour, or less. It was still daylight when I awoke. The firing in the neighborhood had ceased, but from afar came the angry growl of the cannonade. . . .

"The sight that met my opening eyes was one so ghastly that I do not care to recall it. . . . Imagine the interior of a low, long, roughly built shed (I do not know whether it had been erected by our troops, or had originally served as a storehouse or barn). Imagine a thick, hot, reeking atmosphere, filled with indescribable odors, enough to sicken you by the very recollection. Imagine some hundreds of men—yourself among them, with a raging thirst devouring you, a burning pain in the face, every particle of strength and vitality gone—lying on the bare boards, with bundles of rags or filthy straw for pillows, many in sensible, many dead or dying, many in convulsions, some horribly mutilated, all bleeding, most of them groaning, others screaming, or pitifully whining for a drop of water, in half-a dozen languages. Oh, that cry for '*Su!*'—how often have I heard it! . . . Imagine surgeons, with tucked-up shirt-sleeves and bloody hands, giving the first aid; for this was a temporary ambulance in rear of the lines."

In the third battle a little sketch:

"Wednesday, September 12, opened with a hideous, iron-gray, lustreless dawn. A cold wind, like the chill of death, swept over the fields, with their silent or faintly moaning victims of yesterday's slaughter. The rain had ceased, but the uniform gray sky gave promise of another wet day, a promise which it fulfilled faithfully, for after an hour's interruption the rain recommenced and continued till late at night. The ground was a morass. The men shivered in their wet clothes. Biscuits were nibbled for breakfast; those who were lucky enough to possess water shared it with famishing comrades. Notwithstanding orders, many lay down on their stomachs and lapped up the pool-slush, whilst near them corpses were lying in a compound of blood and mud."

Finally, a glimpse at the hospitals during the investment:

"There was a deficiency of drugs: quinine was almost entirely absent. Lint was wanting; garments had to be cut up for bandages, however much clothing of every description was in demand. Linen rags were treasured as priceless. During the last few days of the investment, wounds could not be bound up afresh for want of material. Convalescents had no strengthening food, and numbers succumbed to weakness."

As will have been seen, Mr. Herbert's style is crude at times as if of the camp-fire, but on the whole the interest of his narrative is well sustained. The maps accompanying the text are good and adequate. There is no map of the seat of war in the East, in the Caucasus, but as the events there are merely referred to it was hardly called for. As a military history the book will be useful in supplementing and rounding off its predecessors, but its main attractiveness for the general reader lies in the author's personal experiences in the camp of Plevna.

Off the Mill. By G. F. Browne, B.D., D.C.L., Bishop of Stepney. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

It is probable that since the galleys became obsolete no class of men has been more hard-worked than Anglican bishops of the present day. *Nolo episcopari* used to be considered an insincere phrase, but a new and real meaning has been lent it by the vast increase of routine administrative duties which growth of population has entailed. Neither Philip II. nor Frederick the Great kept at his task more diligently than a conscientious bishop, in a densely peopled diocese, now keeps at his. No wonder that the memory of days "off the mill" is grateful.

The Bishop of Stepney has brought together in book form a number of vacation pieces which have already seen the light in periodicals. There are eleven of them, ranging in time over the last thirty-two years, and all except one, "The Château in the Ardennes," worth reprinting. Seven of the eleven relate to Switzerland and Savoy, three to climbing, two to the exploration of ice-caves, one to topography, and one to local history. They are written with wit and vigor, and ring true to their stimulating subjects. The ascents described are not out of the ordinary—are such, in fact, as many people make without setting pen to paper. But, while the history of adventure gains nothing from Dr Browne's expeditions, his account of them is above the average of Alpine writing. Like most high-souled men, he can be eloquent when on the summit of a mountain. His reflections on the summit of the Oldenhorn are those of a churchman, just as Prof. Tyndall's reflections on the summit of the Matterhorn are those of a scientist. It is interesting to compare the difference of thought and the resemblance of mood. Neither changed his views in crossing the glaciers, but both felt the same thrill. Both were filled by the same rapture, the same spirit of exaltation.

The articles on Pontresina and the Engadine—perhaps intended as ballast to the purely sportive articles—deserve notice both for themselves and for the author's motive in writing them. These papers, he says in the preface, "will not be without result if they induce any one to take more than a surface interest in the beautiful district to which so many of us in London owe such strength as we have." Davos and St. Moritz must boast each year more than one *Kurgast* who is competent not only to read Ulric Chiampel, but to make original researches in the history of the Grisons. Why does not some one, in the intervals of skating and tobogganing, take up Georg Jenatsch? It is well known that Symonds intended to bring this wonderfully able and energetic man to the notice of English readers. Meyer's novel has aroused a certain amount of curiosity about him, and a sound historical study of his part in the Thirty Years' War would receive a wide welcome. And then the constitutional history of the Grisons is another important theme for some grateful person who has been cured by its air.

A delightful paper on "Collecting Ancestors" is the best of Dr. Browne's remaining essays, but "A Night with a Salmon" describes the most unusual experience which is recorded in his book. In 1868 he hooked a fish in the Tay which fought ten hours and a half and then escaped. He has reason to believe that it was the same monster which was soon after captured in the nets at Newburgh, and proved to be the largest salmon on record. It weighed seventy-four pounds, and is honored by a cast at South Kensington. A photograph of the fish is reproduced at p. 138.

An account of "Archæological Frauds in Palestine," based on M. Clermont Ganneau, seems hardly in keeping with the rest of 'Off the Mill,' but sounds a needed warning to the ignorant collector of "Mosaic" antiquities. However, it is certain that the same people who *construct* ruins in their grounds will, in spite of all revelations, continue to buy Jerusalem relics for their museums.

Progressive Morality: An Essay in Ethics. By Thomas Fowler, D.D., LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

One may admire such studies of the fundamental principles of morality as those of Sidgwick and Martineau and Stephen, and find them a good gymnastic for the mind, and yet wonder whether they have much or any influence on the conduct of life, so impossible it seems to infer the concrete of action from any theory of ethics. During our civil war the Transcendentalists who were enamoured of the intuitional morality of Carlyle and Martineau, must have been not a little grieved, if not confounded, to find these high-stepping ones totally unable to appreciate the moral values of our situation, while such dealers in utilitarian "pig's-wash" as Spencer and Mill and Darwin had no difficulty in determining the merits of the conflict between the opposing parties. Because these things are so, it is encouraging to be assured at the outset that Dr. Fowler means to treat his subject with direct reference to practical moral questions; and, when we have read to the last page, we find that his promise has been at least tolerably kept. Something less of introductory matter and a wider range of practical illustration would have improved his book, especially as, with a certain prurient prudishness, he has avoided the relations of the sexes altogether, notwithstanding the fact that exactly here the transition from a traditional and authoritative to a rational morality seems to be attended with more danger than at any other point.

In an introductory chapter we have a discrimination between the physical, legal, social, and religious sanctions of conduct on the one hand, and a purely moral sanction on the other. In the next we have some thrashing of old straw in the argument to prove that conscience is not an infallible guide; and something better in the development of the idea

that not only are the dictates of conscience variable, but the duties of mankind from generation to generation. Seeking for a test of the validity of the moral sanction, Dr. Fowler finds it in the tendency of actions to produce the welfare or well-being of society. If this doctrine is utilitarian, it is interpreted in a manner that takes from it all the grossness commonly attributed to the type of ethical theory which it represents. It is refreshing to find the writer allowing that doing right will not invariably insure individual happiness. Dr. Fowler concedes that his test is vague, but when he comes to examples of its practical application in his closing chapter, with much that is obvious and even trite, he has a series of reflections which, if seriously conned and heeded, might be productive of much benefit. His examples, among others, are smuggling, the evasion of taxes, the piracy of books, partisan patronage, bribery, the refusal of able men to accept office, the slackness of Government officials. The treatment of suicide is unsatisfactory, and also the treatment of sports; fox-hunting, for example, being justified on the ground that "the additional suffering caused to the fox is far more than counterbalanced by the beneficial effects in health and enjoyment to the hunter." The borrowing and lending of money, the rearing of children as if they were playthings or pet animals, and many other matters of great importance, are touched upon less carefully than we could wish; but, taken altogether, the book is a more helpful one than many others of its kind. The frequent references to the author's other books smack too much of the "reading advertisement."

Biography of James G. Blaine. By Gail Hamilton. Norwich, Conn.: The Henry Bill Publishing Co.; New York: Charles Barmore. 1895. 8vo, pp. iv, 722.

The Conkling and Blaine-Fry Controversy, 1866. By James B. Fry. (For private distribution.) 8vo, pp. 341.

Carter Henry Harrison. A Memoir. By Willis John Abbot. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 254.

GAIL HAMILTON'S Life of Blaine is a performance that will shed renown neither on its author nor on its subject. Its outward garb is that of the usual subscription book. The paper and print are good, save that the former is glossy; but there are no headlines, except the title of the book, no marginal dates or other aids to the reader, no index, no list of the illustrations. The tale of the latter is made up by including plates of the Capitol at Washington, an interior of the House of Representatives, etc. As for literary qualities, it can only be said that the work offends against the canons of good taste in every conceivable way. It is written in a turgid and bombastic style that breaks out even in its title, it abounds in phrases and sentences that are evidently intended to have a Scriptural twang, and it is full of an ambitious species of fustian that often degenerates into sheer nonsense. Perhaps two or three specimens will best serve to indicate its peculiar qualities. Of some Scotch Presbyterians among Blaine's ancestors we are told that "they died under contract with God, in full expectation that he would, and moral demand that he should, grant them immortal life in Jesus Christ our Lord." After mentioning that Mr. Blaine's voice was not heard in prayer-meeting, his biographer adds: "The lamp of his faith glowed with a steady, cheerful, and far-reaching light, but that particular burner he never used." Elsewhere we learn that "thus along the general principles which shaped themselves in the great seething mass of facts, he trod a clear path to logical positions which often seemed to the desultory mind segregated and sometimes inconsistent." And it seems that among the brilliant features of his eulogy of Garfield was "the insight which lifted Garfield's pedigree from the zone of demagogism to the dignity of self-respecting independence."

Infelicity of diction, however, and newspaper rhetoric might be tolerated in these tolerant times if the book otherwise furnished what its readers would naturally expect to find in it. But here also it fails, for it gives no information on various matters that a Life of Blaine should not ignore. For instance, although considerable space is devoted to high-flown descriptions of his ancestors and their matrimonial alliances, there is not a word about his own marriage, not a word about his wife's family or connections or circumstances; not even her name is once mentioned; and when letters written by or to her are printed, there is no indication except in the context that she was the writer or the recipient, although in the case of other letters this information is properly given. Another serious omission is the absence of any particulars concerning the contents of the celebrated Mulligan letters, so that the reader who has no knowledge of them except what can be derived from this book will be quite unable to understand the most important incident in the life of Blaine. In fact, the whole arrangement of the biographic material and the chaotic manner in which the correspondence is injected must tend to bewilder and confuse, instead of furnishing a vivid portrait of a man who was certainly a conspicuous and picturesque figure of his time.

The late Gen. Fry's account of the breaking out of the fateful quarrel between Blaine and Conkling, *par nobile fratrum*, may be of service to the future historian in that it embalms the choice flowers of rhetoric which these two distinguished party leaders were accustomed to fling about them in their debates in Congress. It also throws some interesting sidelights on the business of bounty-jumping during the war, and on the peculiar methods pursued by various towns and counties to procure substitutes for citizens drafted into the military service.

Mr. Abbot's memoir of Carter Harrison is a piece of journalism put up in handsome book form. It is an absurdly high-flown eulogy of a typical American politician, instead of supplying, as it could have done, a truthful picture of a remarkable career. Here, as in the 'Life of Blaine,' it will be utterly impossible for the otherwise uninstructed reader to understand how it could happen that so pure a patriot should have aroused such bitter opposition. A biographer can have but little esteem for his subject if he considers it necessary to suppress or ignore conspicuous and familiar facts and circumstances.

The Constitutional Antiquities of Sparta and Athens. By Gustav Gilbert. Translated by E. J. Brooks and T. Nicklin. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

DR. SANDYS, well known for his many and considerable contributions to classical studies, all remarkable for good taste, sound judgment, and non-insular command of the literature of the matter in hand, has, of late, done good service in promoting translations from the German, as recently in the English edition of Seyffert's 'Dictionary of Classical Antiquities' and now in the English version of Gilbert's standard work 'Handbuch der griechischen Staatsalterthümer.' The demand for the translation of German works into English is apparently not so great in America as in England, because American scholars are, as a rule, far better acquainted with German than are English scholars of the same grade, and German works are often in familiar use here years and years before our English kinsmen wake up to the importance of them, and sometimes the translation is absurdly unnecessary. Why, for instance, should anybody have translated Kluge's 'Etymological Dictionary of German' from the fourth edition when the fifth edition of the original was out, and what conceivable use could anybody make of an Etymological Dictionary of German who could not read German? Some years ago an English scholar translated Paul's 'Principien' into English and retained all the German illustrations. To be sure, Paul's own German is much more crabbed than the German of his illustrations, but even this is no justification for so absurd a proceeding. And there are other enterprises not necessary to specify that are scarcely less unreasonable. On the other hand, American journals have been attacked by their English contemporaries for admitting articles written in German on German themes, or themes of comparative grammar, which cannot be understood without a good knowledge of German.

At the same time, there are German textbooks enough that demand translation, and among these we may class Gilbert's work, which was recognized immediately upon its appearance as a production of uncommon merit, and which, in a comparatively short time, passed into a second edition—although it may be noted that a second edition in Germany has not so much significance as a second edition here. It is a valuable work, and the original need not be discussed in this place, as the value of it has not been enhanced by the translation except in the Introduction, which deals with the Aristotelian Constitution of Athens, and which has naturally elicited a number of notes from Prof. Sandys. The translation itself, by Messrs. Brooks and Nicklin, appears to have been made with unusual regard to the requirements of English idiom, and does not translate itself back into German with the fatal facility characteristic of so many mechanical renderings. The long sentences are broken up, and the intercalated relative clauses are smoothed out. Fine turns on which a German would pride himself are sacrificed to English directness, and the translation has a decidedly business air. In short, a more immediate feeling of German might have given us a worse rendering.

The degree of accuracy seems to be above the average, but no one can vouch for absolute fidelity without a line-for-line comparison throughout, which can hardly be expected of the midsummer reviewer. But the specimens selected for examination have not revealed any vital errors. The troublesome question of the transliteration of Greek names has been solved, if it may be called a solution, by following the Lesbian rule, according to which familiar words take the Latin, unfamiliar words the Greek form. Of course, on this "system," we must expect inconsistencies. He who writes *Eubulos* ought not to write *Bouleutai;* and on p. 99, l. 18, we have Acropolis, and l. 21, Akropolis.

The Great Frozen Land (Bolshaia Zemelskiia Tundra): Narrative of a winter journey across the Tundras, and a sojourn among the Samoyads. By Frederick George Jackson. With illustrations and maps. Edited from his journals by Arthur Montefiore. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xviii, 297.

THE author of this book left England more than a year ago, with eight companions, to explore Franz Josef Land; but as the ship in which they sailed has not returned, it is uncertain whether he was able to reach his destination. The intention was to establish a permanent camp from which to make sledge journeys as far north as possible. It was in order to prepare himself for this work, to acclimatize himself, and to submit various foods, clothing, sledges, and other apparatus to the rigorous test of an arctic winter, that the adventurous journey was made of which this interesting volume is the record.

In August, 1893, Mr. Jackson landed at Habarova, a little summer settlement of the Samoyads, on the straits which separate Waigatz Island from the mainland of European Russia. This island is regarded by the natives as holy ground, and in a sledge-journey around its coast Mr. Jackson discovered a burial-place and a sacrificial pile, consisting of a "few posts stuck in the ground, around which a pile of reindeer horns and driftwood had been made. On the top of one of the posts a bear's skull was placed, and several were rudely cut into something resembling the features of the human face. We wanted wood badly, but Vasili would not touch any of that on the pile, for reasons religious of course. Yet, like the rest of the Samoyads, he was nominally a Christian." Early in October the winter came with surprising suddenness, and by the middle of the month the whole settlement had begun its annual migration across the Great Tundra to the Pechora River, a distance of about seven hundred miles. Of this vast swamp, which is practically impassable during the summer season, Mr. Jackson says: "Nothing that I know in nature can equal the dreariness and solitude of the Tundra. . . . Track there is none, and you may wander east, west, north, and south without landmark to set you right. Day after day and week after week your deer will gallop along their frozen way, and your compass, or, if the gray clouds will lift for a while, the stars in the heaven above, will be your only guide." Even the frequent gales that drive furiously across it, accompanied by a cold so intense "that even to breathe is painful," bring an almost welcome relief to its monotony. The only incidents of the journey, which Mr. Jackson was the first Englishman to make, were an occasional upset; and once he lost his way owing to a thick fog, and was compelled to sleep in the open with the thermometer thirteen degrees below zero. In order to test the capacity of the Russian horses for arctic work he continued his winter drive across the Pechora valley and the Little Tundra to Archangel, and from thence around the coast of the White Sea to Kirkeness in Lapland, in all a distance of twenty-five hundred miles. Here he took steamer for Vadsö, where he arrived on January 18, just in time to join in "a sort of annual fête—the first sight of the returning sun." The people climbed the hills behind the town and greeted the appearance of its golden upper rim "with loud and prolonged cheers." The remainder of the journey was by sea, round the North Cape and down the Norwegian coast, in the small steamers that make the dangerous mid-winter passage at irregular intervals.

The Samoyad, as pictured by Mr. Jackson, notwithstanding his good qualities, his peacefulness, honesty, and hospitality, is an uninteresting and in some respects a very disagreeable companion. It is evident, however, that in his dress, his dwelling, and his food, into which blood largely enters, he has wisely adapted himself to his circumstances. His most unpleasant characteristic is his uncleanliness, and the discomforts of our traveller, who spent months in a choom or wigwam nine feet by ten, which often held nine people swarming with vermin, and sometimes drunk, can be better imagined than described. In fact, Mr. Jackson's pluck and enthusiasm for his chosen task in voluntarily subjecting himself to suffering, privation, and peril for the sake merely of the training which they gave him, are perhaps the strongest impressions which we have received from his book. His winter's experience taught him much about the relative strength of the different kinds of sledges used in the regions traversed, and also proved to him the value of the Samoyad's deer-skin clothing and tent for protection from the cold. At the same time it compelled him reluctantly to abandon the intention of using the reindeer on his Polar expedition, on account of the impossibility of supplying him with the moss or lichen which is his only food. Accordingly, ponies and dogs were substituted for him.

The author's friend and editor, Mr. Arthur Montefiore, has added many useful notes to Mr. Jackson's narrative, besides giving an interesting chapter on the Samoyad language and three of their folk-tales. In an appendix he has also given a lucid account of the Jackson-Harmsworth expedition, its objects and equipment. There are some interesting illustrations, several maps, and an excellent index.

Memoirs of the Prince de Joinville. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE 'Vieux Souvenirs' of the Prince de Joinville do not cover the whole of his life, but only the most active and interesting part of it, the period before 1848. As he was born in 1818, he was but thirty at the time of the February Revolution, which banished him from France. Still, thanks to his career as a sailor and to his birth, which enabled him to rise through the ranks more quickly than ordinary mortals, he had already seen much by the time his career was put an end to. He had even commanded the fleet which, in 1844, bombarded Tangiers and Mogador to punish the Sultan of Morocco for aid given to Abd-el-Kader.

The Prince tells of his experiences in a light, genial way. He takes us to many countries, brings us into the best society—kings, princes, and distinguished men of all sorts. He tells many anecdotes, some of them pretty good ones, and reports many curious sights—for instance, an old Circassian on his way to Mecca with "the twelve best-looking girls in his family" to sell on the way in order "to pay the expenses of his journey." In short, he has given us a volume any part of which is pleasant reading in whatever order we read it.

The least interesting part is the lamentations about the evils of these later days. These jeremiads, are, of course, entirely natural on the part of the son of a deposed king, but they are not very convincing. No doubt France, like the world in general, was a pleasanter place for the highest classes before the "revolutionary spirit" got abroad; but, whatever the evils of the rise of European democracy, they are not entirely due to the jealous ambition of a few self-seeking demagogues and the blind delusion of the masses, as the Prince thinks. On the other hand, he has much sympathy for America, but we fear it is for the America of fifty years ago rather than that of to-day. His description of a trip to the West is interesting, even if we get no new light from it. In Washington, on his different visits, he met several Presidents and other notable men. Here is a comment on Congress:

"In the United States the Senate is the body which has the real power and which actually governs. This assembly, very few in numbers, especially at the time of which I speak, chosen by the Chamber [*sic*], and of which the members were almost invariably reëlected, had leisure to learn the necessities of administrative government and to become a permanent body, whose action was both lasting and intelligent, like the Council of Ten at Venice, or the Committee of the Comédie-Française. But the Representative Chamber, full as it was of journalists who had never studied anything beyond the art of attracting subscriptions to their papers, knew nothing whatever. Luckily it only formed a second wheel in the Constitution, but, in spite of that fact, anything likely to add to its enlightenment was useful."

In Philadelphia on one occasion he had taken tickets for the theatre, but, when he arrived, "saw a huge poster over the door, 'Prince de Joinville at 8:30,' and beat an instant and hasty retreat." At another time he had "to go to Boston for a great ball in the old town hall, called Faneuil Hall, the cradle of American Independence. I made my entry at that ball preceded and surrounded by an army of solemn stewards wearing huge wigs, and with rather a good-looking woman whom no one knew on my arm. She called herself America Vespucia, and she began to swear like any heathen when somebody spilt a glass of lemonade over her fine velvet gown."

The translation is better than the average, the binding neither pretty nor appropriate; the numerous illustrations by the author show that he was more of a soldier than an artist.

Essai de Bibliographie Canadienne. Par Philéas Gagnon. Imprimé pour l'Auteur. Quebec. 1895.

THIS "Essai" is not a systematic account of the sources of Canadian history. It is the catalogue of a private library, with the owner's comments on his rare and remarkable books. But Canadian bibliography is in such a primitive condition that the catalogue of a good library deserves notice. M. Gagnon has been an active collector for twenty years, and his spoils are disclosed in 5,018 titles. They are of every species known to the library, and of every degree of value. Books and newspapers furnish 3,747 titles, and the list also includes autographs, manuscripts, maps, plans, portraits, and book plates. An enumeration of the whole, with occasional notes, fills 711 pages.

M. Gagnon has treasures of the utmost rarity. For instance, his set of the Quebec *Herald*, 1788–90, is unique. The Historical Society of Quebec owned a set at one time, but a few years ago it disappeared. Until this comes to light, M. Gagnon is the sole possessor of a much-coveted file of newspapers. On the other hand, he has brought together many things which, to those who are not of the microscopic school, will seem mere junk. A reprint of Stanley's 'Through the Dark Continent,' Montreal, 1878, is out of place here, nor would Richard de Bury's

'Philobiblon,' "traduit par H. Cocheris, Paris, 1856," be of much service to the student of Canadian history. The greatest disparity of merit occurs among the pamphlets. Canada is not famous for the production of extensive works, but its literature has always abounded in *brochures*. M. Gagnon sweeps in every pamphlet he can find. "C'est dans ces plaquettes de cinq, dix, ou trente pages, si faciles à perdre, que les historiens puisent quelquefois un renseignement cherché vainement ailleurs, et qui leur est d'un grand secours. C'est pour cela que nous gardons avec un soin jaloux toutes nos brochures." And so we have M. Laramée's "Lecture sur l'alcoolisme, Montréal, 1878," and an essay of M. Barré, "On Mr. W. Lynch's pamphlet entitled Scientific Buttermaking, Montreal, 1884." Should these treatises survive a general cataclysm, some future age may cherish them as we cherish Athenæus. At present they can claim no place in a distinctively national library.

But while M. Gagnon's catalogue would be the better for a little pruning, he has erred on the safe side. Most of his books are, in their field, of permanent importance. He is especially strong in whatever relates to the Province of Quebec, though here a *lacuna* in the bibliography of the Eastern Townships remains to be filled. His copious list of French Canadian books comes to the aid of Morgan's 'Bibliotheca Canadensis,' which is weak on that side. Canadian incunabula are fully represented. Indeed, M. Gagnon has unearthed certain episcopal charges of Pontbriand, issued in 1759, which seem to have been printed on a press presented to the Bishop of Quebec by Louis XV. This puts back the introduction of printing to the year of the Conquest. The date hitherto accepted is June 21, 1764, the day when the first number of the *Gazette de Québec* was published. Anything printed in Canada before 1800 may be called rare.

One vital question is always before the Province of Quebec—the relation, namely, of French and English, of Roman Catholic and Protestant. A large number of books in M. Gagnon's library relate to the contest of religious parties. No attempt of Protestants to win over Roman Catholic proselytes has escaped his notice. His comment on Chiniquy's 'Le Prêtre, la Femme et le Confessional' is as follows: "Ce livre est probablement le plus méchant qu'on ait publié au Canada. À raison de notre qualité de bibliophile canadien, on nous pardonnera de le laisser figurer ici dans notre collection. L'histoire aura besoin de connaître ces ouvrages pour les flétrir." Not every bibliography can show so spirited a note as this.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An Infatuation. By Gyp. R. F. Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
Anstey, F. Lyre and Lancet: A Story in Scenes. Macmillan. $1.25.
Beaman, A. H. M. Stambuloff. [Public Men of To-day.] F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Beaumont, Mary. A Ringby Lass, and Other Stories. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Billings, Dr. J. S. Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. Army. Vol. XVI. W—Zythus.
Bliss, H. L. Coin's Financial Fraud. Chicago: Donohue, Henneberry & Co. 25 cents.
Breton, Frederic. God-Forsaken: A Novel. Putnams. 50 cents.
Carleton, Will. Rhymes of Our Planet. Harpers. $1.25.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Irving's Tales of a Traveller. [English Classics.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Cartwright, Julia. Raphael in Rome. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] Macmillan.
Cooper, O. H., Estill, H. F., and Lemmon, Leonard. History of Our Country: A Text-Book for Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.15.
Crawford. F. M. Mr. Isaacs. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Crosby, Prof. W. O. Tables for the Determination of Common Minerals. 3d ed. Boston: The Author. $1.25.
Curry, S. S. Lessons in Vocal Expression. Course I. Boston: School of Expression.
Darmesteter, James. The Zend-Avesta. Part I. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Davis, R. H. About Paris. Harpers. $1.25.
Defoe, Daniel. A Journal of the Plague Year. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Denison, T. S. Lively Plays for Live People. Chicago: T. S. Denison.
Greenough, Prof. J. B., and Kittredge, Prof. G. L. First Six Books of the Æneid. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hardy, Thomas. Two on a Tower. Harpers. $1.50.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel. Twice-told Tales. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.
Hill, Prof. A. S. The Principles of Rhetoric. New ed., revised and enlarged. Harpers $1.20.
Holm, Adolf. The History of Greece. Vol. II. The Fifth Century B. C. Macmillan $2.50.
Hunt, W. H. The Obligations of the Universities towards Art. [Romanes Lectures, 1895.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York Macmillan.
Kinealy, Prof. J. H. An Elementary Text-Book on Steam Engines and Boilers. Spon & Chamberlain. $2.
King Richard III. King Henry V. [Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Kingsley, Henry. Leighton Court. Scribners. $1.
Langhans, Paul. Kleiner Handelsatlas. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann.
Laughlin versus Coin: Facts about Money. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. 50 cents.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLIII. Owens—Passelewe. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lubbock, Sir John. The Pleasures of Life. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Masterpieces of British Literature. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. A Soldier of Fortune. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Mommsen, Prof. Theodor. The History of Rome. 5 vols. Scribners. $10.
New, C. H. Franc Elliott. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Not Counting the Cost. Appletons. $1.
Pater, Walter. The Child in the House: An Imaginary Portrait. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Peacock, T. L. Maid Marian and Crochet Castle. Macmillan. $1.25.
Roberts, Dr. J. B. Modern Medicine and Homœopathy. Philadelphia: Edwards & Docker Co. 75 cents.
Robert Louis Stevenson: A Study. Boston: Copeland & Day. $2.50.
Rothwell, R. P. The Mineral Industry: Its Statistics, Technology and Trade. 1894. Scientific Publishing Co. $5.
Southworth, Mrs. The Three Beauties. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Swain, Dr. Rachel. Swain Cookery, with Health Hints. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.50.
Swift, F. D. Demosthenes against Conon and Callicles. London: Methuen & Co.
Tucker, Dr. J. C. To the Golden Goal, and Other Sketches. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Wallace, Lew. Ben-Hur: Eine Geschichte aus der Zeit des Herrn Jesu. Harpers. $1.50.
Woolson, Constance F. The Front Yard, and Other Italian Stories. Harpers. $1.25.

READY.

THOMAS'S PRACTICAL GERMAN GRAMMAR.

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THOMPSON (FRANCIS). Sister Songs. Cloth, small quarto, $1.50. Published Sept. 1, 1895.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 12, 1895.

The Week.

A SIGNIFICANT indication of the growth of business appears in the Treasury report for August. For a long time the circulation of the national banks has shown little increase, but last month it appears to have been enlarged by nearly $1,500,000. This indicates an increased demand for currency, and it is also worth notice that the new notes are secured by the deposit of new 4 per cent. bonds. At the price paid for these bonds, the profit of issuing banknotes is so small that very few will be issued except in response to the actual demands of trade. The continued large receipts of revenue point in the same direction. The present month opens with receipts at the rate of nearly $1,000,000 a day, which has been about the average since the 1st of July. If we were to adopt the methods of some protectionist journals, and compare the month of August, 1895, with August, 1894, the last month in which the McKinley tariff was in force, we might demonstrate that the present tariff was very productive of revenue, for the receipts from customs this August were $3,800,000 more than last. Upon examination, however, it appears that this increase was almost wholly due to the duty on sugar, which produced last month about $3,000,000. This will be a much larger item of revenue the present year than the year before, and will go far of itself to extinguish the deficit. On the other hand, the continued small receipts from the excise on distilled liquors properly arouse grave apprehensions. These receipts are much below what was obtained when the tax was ninety cents a gallon, and by this time the extra supply forced on the market last summer in order to escape the increased tax should have been absorbed. But the price of spirits has fallen, and now stands at a figure which suggests the existence of illicit production.

The very great advance in the price of cotton, which has already amounted to 50 per cent. on last year's figures, and may go considerably further, ought to suggest to the Southern farmers that free-silver coinage may not be the only means of raising prices. Without very profound reflection they can now see that as the high prices of this year are explained by a partial failure of the cotton crop, so the low prices of last year admit of other explanation than the machinations of capitalists. The cotton-worm appears to be considerably more potent than the gold-bug, and the Southern farmers will accomplish much more for themselves by fighting the former than the latter. Nor can the reduction in the amount of cotton be regarded as altogether disastrous. The demand was outrun by the enormous supply of last year, and the present short crop will be supplemented by the stock carried over.

It is an encouraging sign that, in more than one Southern State, Democratic candidates for the United States Senate are announcing that they will make their canvass on a sound-money platform, and that the indications favor their success. One recent illustration of this was the excellent open letter in which Gov. O'Ferrall of Virginia made a clear and cogent argument against free coinage as the basis of his appeal for popular support in his ambition to succeed Senator Daniel. The term of Senator Pugh of Alabama is approaching its end, and Congressman Clarke of the Mobile district, who has been denounced by the silverites as "the worst gold-bug in the State," has declared himself a candidate for the succession, and is receiving warm support from a large part of the party press. Alabama is suffering sadly from old-fogyism in her senatorial representation, and it is greatly to be hoped that she will not make the mistake in Pugh's case that was committed in Morgan's, of giving a fourth term to a man who has outlived his capacity for usefulness.

New possibilities in the way of export trade are constantly presenting themselves, making prominent a side of the tariff question which protectionists generally ignore. The latest step reported in this direction is the exportation of Lake Champlain iron ore to Germany. A furnace in that country which had been using a native ore made the experiment of substituting ore from Lake Champlain, and found that, in spite of the higher cost of the American ore, it could be used with so much economy of coke as to decrease the cost of pig iron. It is said that the furnaces on the Rhine can show even better results, owing to cheaper freights. This example demonstrates the folly of the import duties on iron ore which the protectionist Senators forced into the tariff bill. There are many varieties of iron ore, some of which it is evident we can export and some of which we need to import. The manufacture of iron can be prosecuted to the greatest advantage by taking advantage of these diversities, and nowhere is the policy of relieving raw materials of taxation more beneficial.

The Philadelphia *Manufacturer* is suffering acute mental distress over the course that is likely to be taken by the Republican party concerning protection and bimetallism. In the first place it fears that the platform recently adopted by the Pennsylvania Republicans was the "perpetration of a premeditated fraud." Instead of saying "we demand the use of both gold and silver as *standard* money," this platform said "we demand the use of both gold and silver money." This change in language was made at the instance of the gold-bugs, and was "in harmony with the other methods employed to bolster up a cause which is based upon delusion, quackery, and lies; which fears free discussion in the press; which procured the demonetization of silver by means which no man at this day can explain," and so on. As there is a disposition among some Republicans to suppress the silver issue, so there is a desire to keep quiet about the tariff. This the *Manufacturer* fiercely declares will not be tolerated. If the tariff is not going to be the issue next year, it wants to know what will be the issue. If both parties agree to drop both the tariff and silver, we should have "a love-feast, instead of campaign." Nothing of the kind shall take place if the *Manufacturer* has anything to say about it. Instead of that it promises "a tremendous row of a most complicated character." The Eastern Republicans want higher duties and do not care about silver. The Western Republicans want silver and do not care for higher duties. If the Eastern Republicans will not consent to favor silver, then the Western Republicans will join the free-silver Democrats. In that case the Eastern Republicans "will have the pleasure of joining hands with the worst enemies of protection in the East, or of going alone." That is the alternative that confronts the protectionists of this part of the country.

It must be said that there is a great deal of truth in these observations. The situation which they indicate is doubtless depressing from a party point of view, but it is on many other accounts extremely hopeful. It suggests the possibility of the breaking up and the rearranging of parties. If it is true, as the *Manufacturer* asserts, that the gold monometallists of the Republican party are already in full fellowship with the Reform Club of New York, "the most venomous nest of free-traders in the country," why is it not better that they should be allowed to stay there? If it is true that "British free trade" and the "British gold system" are both hostile to American interests, the believers in the latter system ought not to be allowed in the protectionist camp. If it is true that the fate of the protective-tariff system is "bound up with that of bimetallism," it is time for Republicans to make up their minds which issue is more important. Conservative Republicans were driven to support the Sherman bill to placate the bimetallists,

and they are now warned that they must do the same thing again. With the consequences of their former concession fresh in the memory of the country, it is not very probable that the experiment will be repeated, and if the ultra-protection and silver element demand it, there may indeed be a "tremendous row"; and the more violent it is, the better it will be for the cause of good government.

Conventions of Republican League clubs continue to lend a spice of humor to our politics. The national gathering at Cleveland a few weeks ago amused the country by devising an original method for "dodging" the burning issue of silver, by the sudden discovery that it had no right to make any platform, and never had possessed any right to do so during all the years that conventions had been adopting resolutions, because the constitution had always provided that the League "shall not in any manner endeavor to influence the action of any national, State, county or municipal convention"! The League clubs of New York State met at Binghamton last week, and the delegates, according to the *Tribune's* report, talked about the Sunday-saloon question, "to the exclusion of almost every topic"; but when it came to taking a position on this issue, they contented themselves with commending the action of the police authorities in enforcing the law in this city, declaring that "the question of open saloons on Sunday is not a political question, but is one the determination of which will, to a large extent, measure the moral tone of the Empire State," and gravely making this announcement: "We believe in the American Sunday, and that the traditions of the Republican party favor the preservation of all those conditions and principles calculated to bring peace, prosperity, and happiness to the masses of the people."

Ingalls has announced his candidacy for the United States senatorship which is to be filled by the next Kansas Legislature, and comes out in favor of the election of President and Vice-President, as well as of Senators, by the people. The idea of popular election of Senators is supposed by aspiring politicians to be popular with the masses, particularly in the West and South; and Ingalls probably reasons that the further he pushes the principle, the stronger will his candidacy be. But there is one objection to the direct choice of the executive which must be conclusive with thoughtful people, all other considerations, pro or con, left out of the account. This is the fact that with such a system the nation might be kept for weeks in uncertainty as to who had been elected President. In 1884, for example, the popular vote was divided almost evenly between Cleveland and Blaine; the Democratic candidate receiving 4,874,986 and the Republican 4,851,981. But it was not until the official vote of Texas was canvassed, nearly a month after the election, that anybody knew which candidate would finally come out ahead. In 1880 the margin was still narrower, Garfield's plurality over Hancock being only 9,464; and in that year also the question which candidate was ahead on the popular vote remained open for weeks while the returns from the immense and in large parts thinly settled State of Texas were being gathered and compiled. For the whole country to wait perhaps a month in order to find out which nominee got a few more ballots than the other, is not to be thought of.

The Democrats of more than one State will probably have to go through the clarifying process which the party is undergoing in Nebraska. Where the remedy is needed it is a most excellent one to apply. In 1893, Nebraska Democrats adopted a thoroughly sound-money platform. Last year, led away by an offer of Populist support, they swung themselves clear over into the Populist ranks and demanded silver and paper *ad libitum*. As a result, the free-silver wing of the party has deemed itself strong enough to go alone this year, and has adopted a platform of the Populist model. The sound-money Democrats have taken up the gage of battle, and their separate convention, held on Thursday, cannot fail to result in practical good to the sound-money cause, even beyond the boundaries of the State. Its platform not only declares against free coinage of silver, but speaks out boldly in favor of the gold standard, saying:

> "We declare ourselves unequivocally and unreservedly for that metallic money as the standard unit the bullion and mint value of which are approximately the same, the purchasing power of which, regardless of Government mintage, is the least fluctuating in all the markets of the civilized world."

Conventions, even when dominated by anti-silver men, are so apt to think it necessary to say something about the use of silver-through-international-agreement, etc., etc., that it is encouraging to find these Western men avowing plainly what is an evident financial truth. The educating effect of such a convention and platform can hardly be overestimated.

The results of the examination of Tammany candidates for election inspectors are calculated to make every true Boy in the old hall say with one of the victims who was caught cheating in the preparation of his papers, "T'ell with reform and reformers!" Out of 2,397 persons examined, 460, or nearly one-fifth, were found to be unfit. No less than 358 others failed to appear for examination, and 12 others resigned, making 370 more who were undoubtedly unfit and realized that they would be found to be so on investigation. As the whole number notified to appear was 2,782, it has thus been shown that 830 of them were unfit, or more than a fourth of the whole. The city has thus been spared the services of these men, and will get in their places men who are competent for the performance of their duties. This is the result of the examination of the candidates of only one party. A like number of Republican candidates have since undergone the same examination, with a like result. Nothing more valuable in the way of securing honest elections has happened in the city for a long time, and for this we have to thank the Police Board.

The first of this year's international yacht races (the second was vitiated by a foul) seems to have convinced nearly everybody that Valkyrie III. has little more chance of taking the America's cup away from us than her predecessors had. Undoubtedly the widespread and uproarious enthusiasm over Defender's first victory, exceeding anything of the kind over former victories, is due to the fact that more anxiety was felt about the result this year than in any previous match. It seems to be demonstrated that the Herreshoffs are able to build a faster boat every year, no matter what the requirements may be. How long they can continue to do this no man can say, but there is cause for congratulation in the quite general agreement that whatever advance is made in future will be along different lines. Both English and American authorities are agreed in thinking that the present type of racing-machine has reached its limit, and that the racers of the future should be smaller, and constructed on models which will fit them for some other use than racing. It cannot be said that the present competition is of any value in scientific yacht construction, for the boats are practically worthless for anything except racing. If we can get construction upon more practical lines, it will be a decided gain.

There has been some complaint in this country about the slowness of the Chinese authorities in making reparation for the outrages committed upon Americans by mobs in that country. But Mr. John W. Foster points out that the Oriental Government has been most prompt in comparison with the action of our own Government under similar circumstances. Although only a few weeks have elapsed since the Kucheng massacre, nearly a score of participants have already been condemned to death, more than a hundred others are in prison awaiting trial, and the Government is arranging to compensate the missions for all their losses. On the other hand, no punishment whatever was ever inflicted upon the white men guilty of the atrocious outrages upon the Chinese committed at Rock Springs, Wyoming, a few years ago, and compensation was delayed for three years, and then accompanied by legislation against the Chinese, which was pronounced by our Supreme Court in violation of treaty, although without remedy. No wonder Mr. Foster thinks that, in view of such facts,

"we in America should be chary of our condemnation."

The English Parliament was prorogued on Thursday after having been held strictly to the programme of doing nothing in this session but voting supply. On no other question has the Government committed itself, and Mr. Balfour the other day refused to commit it to any policy whatever, even for the next session. This *non-possumus* attitude has been pretty hard for some of the Cabinet to maintain—for none, perhaps, harder than for the new Secretary for India, Lord George Hamilton. Only last February, when in Opposition, he spoke and voted for the immediate repeal of the Indian cotton duties, which had caused such an outcry in Lancashire, on the ground that they were protective. It is alleged, and probably with truth, that the Unionists elected several Lancashire members on the promise to repeal these duties. But Lord George has now discovered, as Indian Secretary, that nothing must be done "hastily," that there is "great difficulty" in doing anything, and that, anyhow, the Indian Government unquestionably have the power to do what they please about it. It will not appease the wrath of Lancashire to be told that Lord George remains of the opinion he held last February. An opinion which a Government retains as a pious and private article of belief, without attempting to act upon it, might as well be an opinion to the contrary, so far as the angry cotton-spinners are concerned.

Mr. Balfour's explanation of his reasons for putting a knife into international bimetallism succeeds only in giving the knife another twist. He is pained that any of his old bimetallic friends should think he had recanted—the true bimetallic faith has no stancher adherent than he. But it must remain an ideal faith, something hanging in the clouds, never to be realized on this earth. International bimetallism is utterly impossible, but Mr. Balfour is a devout believer in it. It is a new application of the old saying, *Credo quia impossibile est.* As to a conference in order to an agreement, he pours philosophic scorn upon the proposition. First agree, then confer, is the true order, he says. The faithful old bimetallists who have borne the heat and burden of the day will shake their heads over this. They have always maintained that the way to agree is to confer. All you have to do is to get together delegates of radically different views, under stringent and radically different instructions from their respective governments, have some banquets, give Jones the floor, and wind up with a grand agreement, like the witches in "Macbeth"—"Fair is foul and foul is fair"—in other words, 16 is 30 and 30 is 16. Experience is against this, it must be confessed, and now that Mr. Balfour arrays his philosophy against it too, it looks as if the international bimetallists would have to do their conferring in their private capacity. Their obvious duty now is to say that they are glad Mr. Balfour has shown himself in his true colors, and that they are well rid of him; that the situation is now cleared up; they have got the gold-bugs just where they want 'em, and now they will go ahead and have free silver without waiting for anybody on earth.

"Josephus Africanus" is the name, half grandiloquent and half sarcastic, with which Mr. Chamberlain was dubbed by the London papers when he announced his ambitious policy for the colonial development of West Africa. In his speech in the Commons on the vote of supply for the Colonial Office, and more specifically the next day, August 23, when he received a deputation on the subject of African railroads, he outlined what he called his "new policy," his "great policy." It is, in effect, that the time has come for Great Britain vigorously to take hold of her "great estate" and develop it. The people of England must put into the colonies "some of their superfluous wealth," or there is "no future for those countries." It is ridiculous to wait longer for private initiative and capital to build railroads and open up trade in Africa. The hour has struck for imperial grants in aid of African railroads, and, in general, for "imperial assistance" in developing the colonies. Mr. Chamberlain eloquently assured the Commons that nothing was more "extraordinary to his mind than the extraordinary growth of trade in those West African colonies." But the *Economist* cruelly produces figures which show that there has been "no appreciable growth" at all, and, moreover, that "the trade is confined to a comparatively small range of products." Beginning with such a cold dash of facts, this expert rather contemptuously defers criticism of Mr. Chamberlain's general policy to a more convenient season.

The Trade-Union Congress in England opened with a substantial victory for the conservative element. For a number of years a set of socialistic agitators have been trying to induce the trade-unions to endorse their theories, and last year they succeeded in getting the congress to pass a resolution in favor of the "nationalization" of land and capital. This resolution was very far from expressing the real convictions of the members of the unions, and the oldest and best-managed of these organizations determined to rid themselves of the control of the radicals. This they appear now to have accomplished, by securing the adoption of two new rules. One of these simply provides that no person who does not follow a trade shall be admitted as a delegate to the congress as a representative of the union of that trade. The effect of this is to exclude a number of agitators whose labors are oral rather than manual. Mr. John Burns and other representatives of "labor" in Parliament will hereafter be unable to appear as so accredited by the trade-unions, and their congresses will now be directed by business men and not by half-crazy theorists. The second rule is directed against the "trade-councils," which are not properly trade-unions, but are composed of members elected by the unions. These bodies have gone actively into politics and are responsible for many of the schemes of "municipal socialism" which have been attempted in England. It appears that the socialistic element was defeated by a vote of two to one, and the result is extremely creditable to the good sense of English workingmen. Their trade-unions have for many years been increasing in wisdom and in favor, discouraging strikes and devoting themselves to improving the condition of their numbers. The action of the congress last year was therefore highly discouraging to those who have the true interests of workingmen at heart, and the course now adopted is correspondingly cheering.

A very notable illustration of what is possible in the way of improved relations between workmen and their masters has been afforded recently in the iron trade in England. Owing to a number of causes, the prices obtained for the manufactures of iron of late have been very low, and at the same time the demand has fallen off. Hence, it became necessary to reduce wages, and instead of engaging in a ruinous strike the men faced the situation with intelligence and good feeling. Since it was believed that foreign establishments were making gains at the expense of the English, it was decided to appoint a committee, made up of employers and men, to visit these establishments and study their methods and processes, with a view to obtaining suggestions of possible improvements. This plan was carried out, and a number of the principal establishments of Belgium and Germany were inspected. What is equally remarkable as showing the improved relations between competing employers, the foreign managers, who were informed of the purpose of the visit, received the committee with the greatest courtesy, and gave them every facility in their tour of inspection. It was reserved for some of the German newspapers to distinguish themselves by attacking the English visitors as spies, and denouncing them as having procured admission to the foreign establishments by false representations. There is little doubt that a large part of the hatred and jealousy that exist between nations is due to the lies of journalists, and this incident is a proof of it. Whether the committee obtained any ideas of practical use or not cannot yet be told, but their expedition suggests how much may be accomplished by patience and forbearance in settling trade disputes.

THE EMPLOYMENT OF PRISONERS.

When the people of New York were called on last year to ratify or reject the amendments framed by the Constitutional Convention, they were confronted with a disagreeable alternative. On the one hand, the amendments were in the main desirable, and in some cases extremely important. On the other hand, there were some that were very objectionable. But as nearly all the amendments were submitted to be voted on in a body, it was necessary either to vote against them all, thereby opposing all reform, or to take the evil with the good. The amendment prohibiting the employment of prisoners at productive labor was a bitter dose for most people to swallow, but it seemed best to accept it, trusting to the future to bring about some remedy for the evil condition of affairs which it was sure to create. Fortunately it was provided that the amendment should not go into effect until 1897, so that this optimism was not unjustifiable.

It is not improbable that many people were deceived as to the real nature of this amendment by some rather specious features. It contained a proviso that convicts might be employed in producing articles which they could use, or which could be utilized in any of the public institutions of the State, or any of its political divisions. Here, it was doubtless argued by many, was ample opportunity for the employment of convicts without bringing them into competition with private industries. Mr. Eugene Smith, in a paper read last week before the Social Science Association at Saratoga, exposes the utter fallacy of this argument. He shows that there is no public work for the State of any importance except that which is farmed out to contractors. The Constitution requires that all contracts for work or materials on the canals shall be made with the lowest bidder therefor, and the same requirement exists by statute in the case of repairs to armories and arsenals, in the purchase of arms, uniforms, and equipment for the national guard, in the printing and binding of public documents, and practically in all the departments of public work. The system of having such work done by competitive contract is generally regarded as necessary for the repression of jobbery, and it is highly improbable that any support could be obtained for a measure which should replace this system with one of convict labor. It is enough to suggest what would happen if the State printing, for example, were taken out of the hands of the Printers' Union and carried on in the penitentiaries. The eleemosynary institutions of the State now manufacture their own supplies to a large extent, and do not require the assistance of convicts. Mr. Smith does not hesitate to say that the total amount of public work which is practically available under this section of the Constitution will not be sufficient to give employment to one per cent. of the prisoners. The superintendent of State prisons estimates that fifty convicts could do it all.

If any one supposes that these estimates are merely conjectural, he need only refer to some of our previous experience to convince himself of their accuracy. It so happens that only six years ago what was known as the Yates law was enacted—a statute which was practically identical with the present constitutional provision. Under that law the prison workshops were closed, and the prisoners had to be shut up in their cells in idleness. Almost immediately the most piteous appeals for employment began to be heard. Prisoners begged for work of any kind, no matter how hard or how menial, and declared that confinement in idleness was slow death. In fact, while this law was in force, the death-rate in the prisons rose to the highest figure ever known, and there was a marked increase of insanity. In its financial results the law was equally disastrous. For six years prior to 1887 the State prisons had more than paid their expenses. The Yates law produced a deficit of $150,000 in 1888, although it did not go into effect until August, and in the following year the deficit was $370,000, although the law was repealed in June. Thus, in about ten months this piece of "labor" legislation wasted about half a million of the money produced by the labor of the people, and there is no reason to suppose that higher wages were obtained in a single trade through the suppression of prison competition.

It is hardly necessary to add that such a system of dealing with prisoners as this is utterly opposed to the conclusions of all those who have devoted themselves to prison science. These conclusions are no longer theoretical, but have been confirmed by experience. It is established positively that it is merciful and wise and just for the State to subject criminals to reformatory influences, and that when so subjected nearly four-fifths of them can be reformed. But in this reformatory process an essential agency is useful labor. The prisoner must be taught to work, and to work at industries which will afford him support when he is discharged. The constitutional amendment just adopted, therefore, sounds the knell of prison reform in this State. It means financial loss to the people, disease and demoralization to the prisoners, and discouragement to the benevolent.

The situation, however, is more hopeful than is commonly known. The last Legislature was not a body that deserved much gratitude from the public; but it must be reckoned to its credit that it passed a resolution providing that another prison amendment shall be offered to the people. The amendment now proposed, which was prepared by the Prison Association, prohibits contract labor, and directs that prisoners shall be employed, so far as practicable, in public work, but does not prohibit the sale of the products of their labor. Under this amendment the prisoners can be instructed and employed, and the prisons be made self-supporting. No one doubts what the verdict of the people on this amendment will be, if they get a chance to vote on it. The trade-union vote, although a dreadful bogy to politicians, never amounts to much in the election returns. The important point is to induce the next Legislature to allow the people to have a chance to vote on the question; and those who wish to do what they can to lessen crime and to reform criminals may properly direct their efforts to this end.

THE CANAL MANIA.

The success of the Suez Canal has had an extraordinary number of unexpected consequences. Before the passage to India around the Cape of Good Hope was discovered, all Oriental trade, as Bagehot has said, centred in the Mediterranean region, and was thence diffused through Europe. After that discovery the Mediterranean ports lost their commerce, and the trade between India and Europe fell into the hands of the Dutch and the English. Every one predicted that the digging of a canal through the Isthmus of Suez would be a very bad thing, so far as the English monopoly was concerned, for the East-Indian traffic. It was expected that it would restore prosperity to the ports of Southern Europe at the expense of London and Liverpool. So astute an observer as Tocqueville was deceived, and declared to Senior that it would be the Greeks, the Styrians, the Dalmatians, the Italians, and the Sicilians who would use the Canal, if anybody used it. Hence the English would have nothing to do with the enterprise, and would have prevented it if they could. But they could not, and they presently found to their astonishment not only that the Canal was a success, but also that they were almost the only people using it. The merchandise of India once more came to the Mediterranean Sea, but not to the Mediterranean ports. Instead of going to Venice and Genoa for European distribution, it went to England as it did before, and her enemies had the mortification of seeing a scheme which it was thought would end her commercial supremacy inure almost to her sole benefit.

This unexpected success had the result of making it impossible to consider seriously the schemes for other canals which were at once brought forward by enthusiastic projectors. Whoever attempted to criticise these schemes was silenced by the argument that financial prophecy was proved worthless by the example of Suez. Every one said that that would be a failure, and gave good reasons why it should be. As a matter of fact it proved a success, and so it might turn out with the Isthmus of Panama. Hence De Lesseps found little difficulty in raising enormous sums of money for this enterprise by vo-

luntary subscription. His appalling failure ought to be a warning to sober-minded people that the mistaken predictions in regard to the Suez Canal did not dispense with the necessity of foresight and calculation in such enterprises. Probably it will for a long time be difficult to enlist private capital in these vast and uncertain schemes, but it is different with governments. Legislators are invariably lavish of the money of their constituents, in spite of the fact that their lavishness is almost invariably unproductive. Nothing but the embarrassment of the Treasury of this country will prevent Congress from listening to suggestions for donating a hundred millions, more or less, to the projectors of the Nicaragua Canal, on the chance of its being repaid out of future profits. And within a few days it has actually been proposed by one of our metropolitan journals that $200,000,000 be expended in digging a channel which will enable ocean steamers to carry their cargoes past this city to the lakes without breaking bulk.

This is certainly an extraordinary proposal to emanate from the city of New York. It may recommend itself to the people of Chicago and Duluth, but it would be carrying altruism to an extreme for the inhabitants of this city to expend large sums to enable the craft that now swarm in their docks to sail by without touching. The ship canal that connects Manchester with the sea was not suggested by Liverpool, and the merchants of Liverpool would probably have questioned the sanity of one of their number who should have suggested that they ought to contribute to the expense of its construction. Such a proposal, however, is only an illustration of the entrancing speculations that are constantly dangled before the eyes of legislators. These are always influenced by national jealousy, and when they are told that if we do not spend our money in digging a canal through Nicaragua other people will, the appeal is irresistible. The very vastness of these schemes makes them attractive: the bigger they are, the more suitable for a great people. What Yankee could calmly behold a petty state like Canada constructing at its own expense a system of ship canals that should furnish cheap transportation for our commerce? Such a spectacle would drive a high-spirited Congressman wild, and, rather than witness it, he would vote to turn all the waters of the St. Lawrence into the Hudson and the Mississippi.

But if we inquire concerning the success of canal enterprises, we shall find much reason for caution. It is hard to name any considerable canal except that of Suez that is profitable. It is unnecessary to refer to the awful loss of life and property at Panama. The folly displayed there was too stupendous to be repeated. But the Manchester Canal is in its way equally portentous. That city should be governed by sagacious men, but it is probable that they have saddled it with a permanent incubus. It has been found that the Canal has benefited Liverpool, because that city has secured lower rates by rail; but Manchester has so far only secured higher rates of taxation. The Canal has cost $75,000,000, and the net receipts last year were possibly $125,000. They may perhaps exceed this hereafter, but the enterprise is hopelessly bankrupt, and the city of Manchester is obliged to raise the interest on the money it has sunk by a severe increase in taxation. The North Sea Canal, which has just been completed, may be justified as a naval necessity, but it is hardly probable that it can be a commercial success. The Corinth Canal, it is reported, does not earn enough to pay for its dredging. Our own Erie Canal, although indirectly profitable, has, owing to our corrupt Legislature, been a steady drain on the resources of the State. All these examples should teach caution; but we apprehend that they will be appealed to in vain. There is now fresh talk of a ship canal from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, of a great canal from the Mediterranean into the interior of Africa, of a canal at the mouth of the Rhone, of a canal to connect Berlin with the North Sea, and of we know not what others. We have on hand the deepening of the Erie Canal, and the Hennepin Canal, with several others in prospect. The most formidable of these is doubtless the Nicaragua Canal, and it is significant of what is to come that the cost of this, which was first put at $50,000,000, then at $65,000,000, and afterwards at $70,000,000 to $90,000,000, is by the latest estimates to be $110,000,000. But estimates in such matters are notoriously delusive.

THE LEADER OF A DEMOCRACY.

Discussion among the English Liberals of the question who is to lead their party in the future has already begun, and will doubtless grow sharper in the parliamentary vacation. The National Liberal Federation, which is perhaps the nearest thing to our nominating and platform-making conventions that the English parties have, will meet before Parliament reassembles in November, and the question of party leadership cannot be kept out of the debates. There is no denying that Lord Rosebery has failed as a Liberal leader. It is not that he was disastrously beaten in the elections. It was clear that he was a failure before he was beaten. Had he won, his unfitness permanently to be the head of a great democratic and reforming party would have remained conspicuous. It is not that he is a peer. It is not that he is a horse-racer. Both those facts have been and would be a handicap to him, to borrow a metaphor from his favorite sport, but he might have carried the extra weight had he possessed the prime qualities requisite in the leader of a democracy.

One of these qualities is seriousness. No great democratic leader was ever an habitual jester. If seriousness can rise, on occasion, to solemnity, to high moral earnestness and enthusiasm, so much the better. But a character without a solid basis of seriousness is not a character which a democracy will ever make an ideal of, or accept as satisfactory in its chosen leader. Now, Lord Rosebery is not serious, or, if he is, he does not make men believe that he is, which is practically the same thing. One need not go for proof beyond his House of Lords speech on August 15. It was a clever speech, as almost everything that Rosebery does is clever, but it was essentially a flippant speech. He made a lot of jokes, and some of them were very good ones. He praised the House of Lords as "a sort of political Thebaïs—a region of holy hermits, separated from all the vain tumults of the world, absorbed in our own silent and solitary meditations." Of Lord Ampthill's father, he said that he explained his assiduous attendance upon the House of Lords, though never speaking, on the ground that he found it "a pleasing opportunity for repose." "Laughter" followed these sallies, and "much laughter" followed Lord Rosebery's dismissal of the Duke of Argyll's charge that the conduct of the late Government was "infamous," by saying that this was "very strong language, even for a honeymoon"—the noble Duke having lately married for the third time.

All this excellent fooling set the Lords in a roar, but what did they do, one wonders, when Rosebery pulled a long face and began to speak solemnly of the late massacres in China and the Armenian "atrocities which have horrified the conscience of Europe"? They yawned, we should suppose, or went to sleep, or, if they had themselves any appreciable share of the conscience of Europe, were disgusted at this introduction of atrocities between jests. Under the circumstances, the jests were themselves the greatest atrocity. Imagine Mr. Gladstone speaking on the same subject! But we do not need to leave it to the imagination; turn to Mr. Gladstone's Chester speech on Armenia, and note the moral elevation, the hot indignation, the high note of personal intensity and authority, and you get some idea of why one orator is fitted to be a great popular leader, and why the other is fatally disqualified by levity. Mr. Gladstone is not without wit, but his wit usually takes the form of cutting sarcasm, and thus but adds to the total impression of immense earnestness which all his oratory and his public utterances are designed to produce and do produce; his enemies themselves being witnesses.

Wit and literary skill are no drawback in a democratic leader if he uses them discreetly, but seriousness without them is better than they are without seriousness. Even if the earnestness becomes ponderous and awkward in expression, a democracy will put up with it with better grace than with the absence of it. A

witty man said of President Cleveland, "He is the greatest master of platitude since Washington." There was truth as well as wit in the observation. Practised writers who find Mr. Cleveland's style heavy and dull, and who could never bring themselves to utter so many commonplaces so solemnly, are continually amazed and at fault in regard to his great popular influence. "The man writes like a schoolboy," they say, "yet the masses like him and believe in him." If they do, it is because they find him dead in earnest. They do not make nice distinctions about style. For their part they rather like platitudes—certainly like them better in their leaders than they do too clever a wit. A joker is all very well on the stump, but for the actual business of government give them a serious man every time. How could it be otherwise? Democracy takes itself most seriously, and will have serious men to represent it and transact its affairs. An absolute monarch would not put up for a day with a smirking Prime Minister; and we may be sure that democracy is fully as exigent, and will insist upon its leaders taking it as seriously as it takes itself.

The only other quality requisite in a democratic leader which we will now mention, and in which Lord Rosebery is notably deficient, is the quality of courage, or authority. Demagogues blunder sadly at this point. They think a democracy must be fooled to the top of its bent, never bluntly told what it ought to do. They watch anxiously for indications of the popular will, never dare try to shape that will. But democracy, taken in the large sense, is not built that way. It likes a man who will stand boldly up with clear and firm convictions; not one who lies with his ear to the ground. Democracy is not, as so many rashly say, intolerant of personal distinction, of strength, of authority. It worships them, worships them devoutly, even when it has set up idols of its own in place of the real thing. Mr. Cleveland's blunt courage has done as much for him as his obvious earnestness. Mr. Gladstone has always had the note of command about him. Even the Tories now admit that it was nothing but his magical personal influence which made the last House of Commons a home-rule House.

But Rosebery has little of this bold outspokenness. He tentatively puts out a phrase, like his famous one about the "predominant partner," and then scuttles away from it. He cries out "Down with the Lords!" but, if they won't down, says it is just as well. He turns again and again to his party and the country and beseechingly exclaims, "Do tell me, in heaven's name, what you want me to do." A man thus feebly looking about for a popular mandate is not the man to be a popular leader. The true popular leader gives his mandates, does not take them. He has to do it at the right time, with some tact, with a certain political instinct which is almost prophetic in its nature, but he does it. Lord Farrer, in his recent speech before the Cobden Club, quoted an unpublished remark of John Bright's which is very much in point, and which may aptly enough sum up the whole discussion about the nature of democracy and the stuff of which democratic leaders are made. It was this:

"The people are, on the whole, a very good people. They have now got the power in their own hands, and if those whose business it is to lead and advise them will speak the truth to them, all will go well, and if they do not, God help them both."

THE BOOMING OF BOOKS.

THE London *Times* is publishing a series of articles on "Literature in America" from a contributor the veil of whose anonymity we will not impertinently lift. He has evidently been in this country, and has as evidently "got up" his subject under experienced tutors. It would be easy to point out here and there a mistake in fact, and oftener in judgment, but on the whole he is accurate and sane. Discussing the chances of English authors in the American book-market, he observes:

"Curiosity may be felt as to what constitutes the foundation of an English author's success in America. The reply is that he must be 'boomed'—that is to say, his books must have become the rage in London, and the press must be unanimous in his praise. Nothing but a boom here will induce the American publisher to take the trouble of booming him there. 'Get the English papers to rave about an author and he will surely make way here,' said an eminent New York publisher. There are very few literary journals in the United States, so that ours have remarkable influence, and their verdict on a new work is eagerly scanned and, as a rule, accepted."

Objections to this statement will instantly occur to every reader. Indeed, the writer himself is dimly aware that something is wrong with it, as he has immediately to confess that the 'Trilby' boom was spontaneous and indigenous in this country, and he also innocently wonders why it is that popular English authors like Mr. Frankfort Moore, Miss Cholmondeley, and Mrs. F. A. Steele, have "failed to capture the American public." We fear, also, that his American tutors ought to be rapped over the knuckles for allowing him to suppose that the verdicts of English literary journals are "eagerly scanned" in the United States for the purpose of saying ditto to Mr. Burke. But in his main contention he has undoubtedly hit upon a great truth. The great book successes among us go not always by merit, not by favor necessarily, but in all cases, with or without merit or favor, in large part by booming. Not all boomed books are successful, but all successful books are boomed. Into the philosophy and the methods of this booming, however, the *Times* writer has not seen, or, at any rate gone, very deeply.

There remains a great deal that is mysterious about it, when all is said. The most artful booming often refuses to work, and, on the other hand, a publisher who has in vain squandered money on preliminary puffing has many times the mortification of seeing a rival's book suddenly begin to sell by the thousand without any foregoing dark hints at all. Hence comes the frequent confession of those who have given a life to the business, that a great literary success is of the nature of a lottery. Go to the shelves blindfold, and the book you pick out by chance is as likely to be in huge demand as the one you exercise your best judgment upon. But this really puts us upon the track of the true solution of the problem. If the booming of books were purely a literary phenomenon, then the literary judgment would not so often be at fault about it. But it is not primarily or chiefly a literary phenomenon. It is a social phenomenon. The literary element is secondary, often disappears altogether. A book may boom as furiously as a fashion in dress may ravage, without there being, in the one case, a sound literary reason, any more than there is, in the other, a sound æsthetic or hygienic reason. There is something essentially unreasoning, if not irrational, about it, as there is about many other social phenomena. A panic sweeps through a nation, laughter ripples through a theatre, or wailing surges through a camp-meeting, and why the feeling leaps from mind to mind in the way it does it is almost impossible to say. We cannot do much more than accept the ultimate fact; neither can we in the case of a book which wins a great social, often falsely called a great literary, success.

It is to be said for the shrewder and less scrupulous publishers and critics that they begin to have a glimmering of this important truth. We see evidence of this in the kind of puffs preliminary that the first now desire and the second furnish. "I predict that this book will be much talked about." "This volume is destined to make a great sensation." That is the kind of profound criticism which certain advertisers most eagerly employ. What matters it if the predicter is a person who delights in parading her own silliness, and the prediction is printed in a paper that you would not let your daughter touch with a pair of tongs? The thing is, to give the impression that the book is certain to be chattered over at afternoon teas and buzzed about at evening receptions. That impression once firmly established, the boom is on. The great principle involved, the great principle for critics to seize, is that books are not meant to be read, enjoyed, meditated over, but to be *talked about*. In other words, the thing to aim at is a social success—to make a book as much *de règle* as evening dress, and ignorance of it as horrible a thing as appearing in public without balloon sleeves.

We hope this will not seem a low view of literature to take. Did not Macaulay hope to see his 'History of England' upon every lady's dressing-table? A plain novelist, we should think, might

well be content to fill up the blanks in conversation between sips of sherbet. For our part, it is not the authors that we pity, but the unfortunate slaves of fashion who are compelled to read them so as to keep up a decent appearance in society. Terrible sufferings on this score have been brought to our notice—worse than anything tight lacing or high-heeled slippers ever caused. Young ladies whose natural allowance of books would be about two *per* existence, are often compelled to read as many as three or four novels in a single summer, merely as a result of social tyranny. Gloomy men have been observed to shut themselves up for a whole evening with books over which they pish and pshaw incessantly, and, when asked why they read what they find so inane or repellent, have sternly replied: "I've got to. Everybody's talking about the thing. My wife made me promise to read it." Such burdens does Fashion lay upon her votaries. Time was when a skilful man could parry the question, "Have you read 'The Unseen Woman'?" He could say he had heard of it, but had not yet had time to read it; that he had read an able review of it; that he had read last year's dead favorite; that he had read other things, and would like to talk about them. But the fair questioner cannot any longer be put off in that manner. You have to be able to tell her that you have read it, that you think chapter xxiii. particularly fine, and consider the situation on p. 193 a little morbid, or else you are a lost man socially. Clearly, book notices must soon be exiled from the literary columns and find their true home under "Society Events."

ALASKA REVISITED—V.

COOK'S INLET.

AUGUST, 1895.

THE magnificent sheet of water which preserves the name of Cook was, not unnaturally, supposed by him at first to be the long sought-for Northwest Passage, and his disappointment was marked by the name he gave to its shallow northeastern extreme, the Turnagain Arm of the charts. Two hundred miles in length and more than fifty miles wide at its entrance, it is one of the most interesting regions in Alaska, and yet is hardly mentioned in the literature outside of Coast Pilots and marine directories. Of late, attention has been drawn to it by an influx of placer miners and prospectors in search of the gold of which Doroshin, a Russian mining engineer, indicated the existence half a century ago. Some account of its natural features will have a certain interest, and a report on its mineral resources will probably be issued before long by the United States Geological Survey.

The western shore of the Inlet is formed by that projection of the mainland known as Aliaska Peninsula, while on the east it is bounded by the peninsula of Kenai, which separates it from the intricate system of fiords compre hended under the name of Prince William Sound. In the entrance is the desolate group of rocky islets known as the Barren Islands, the favorite resort of the persecuted sea-otter and myriads of sea-fowl. The peninsular shore is more or less mountainous, while Kenai rises in low bluffs to a low and level table land, backed by large glacial lakes fed from the watershed between the Inlet and the Sound. This watershed is formed by a range of snowy mountains, but so distant as to be barely visible from the Inlet. The table-land is geologically younger than the mountains, and has long been noted for the continuous beds of Tertiary coal, sometimes passing into lignite, by which it is everywhere underlaid. The bluffs it presents are broken only by a few small rivers, the site of an important salmon-canning industry, and the water adjacent to them is shoal. Only at the southern end of the table land is the coast broken by harbors, Kachekmak Bay being one of the finest on the whole northwest coast. The peninsular shore begins at Cape Douglas, and the mountains are disposed in groups with lower areas between the groups, affording a certain number of anchorages. These groups offer some of the finest mountain scenery on the continent after the St. Elias Alps. Back of Cape Douglas rises a mass of mountains, parent of four or five glaciers, one of which is admirably proportioned, larger than the Davidson, and much more attractive from its snowy whiteness and particularly graceful curves. It reaches close to the sea, the others on the southwestern side of the *massif* being less extended and smaller. The structure of the rocks is accentuated by the disappearance of the snow, except from the ravines and hollows, while on the northeastern slope the dazzling whiteness of the snowy covering is hardly disturbed in any part. The mountains are of the Fairweather type, and the whole group gives a profound impression of stern repose.

Northward the land subsides to plains behind Kamishak Bay, noted for its shoals and the many caribou which range over the grasslands near it. Off this depression the volcano island of St. Augustine rises in symmetrical grandeur. A few years ago this island possessed an excellent harbor for small craft and was the resort of native hunters. A violent eruption closed the entrance to the harbor, which is now a placid lagoon dotted with enormous volcanic blocks; ashes were carried by the wind for more than one hundred miles, the fish in the sea adjacent were cooked alive, and the inhabitants of the whole inlet were terror-stricken by tidal waves. At present, slender clouds of steam serve as a barometer for the otter-hunter, who, when they ascend undisturbed by the upper currents, mushroom-like, puts out to sea in his frail kayak, confident of two or three days of calm.

Proceeding northward along the western shore, the next group of mountains is that clustered around the volcano Iliamna. This is less concentrated than that near Cape Douglas, and, on a near view, is much more extended, broken, and confused. It is only at a distance of thirty or forty miles that the majestic cone of the volcano disengages itself from its accessories and stands revealed in all its beauty. It sends out five or six parallel columns of steam, and seems peaceful enough, but a few years ago it was active and sent out such a profusion of hot ashes that hundreds of square miles on the Kenai table-land are covered with dead spruce-trees killed by their excessive load of powdered pumice. Still further to the north a similar mass of mountains groups itself around the Redoubt Volcano, so named because opposite the ancient Russian redoubt at Kenai River. A fourth group, apparently without a volcanic nucleus, rises inland from the cape named by Cook the North Foreland, and far to the north the series is completed by Sushitna Mountain, a single low but massive peak near the river of the same name, draining from the continent. The North Foreland *massif* is especially remarkable for its fine and severe outlines.

The middle of the Inlet is marked by a series of low islands and extensive rocky shoals, a hundred miles in length, and its northern extreme turns to the eastward towards the head of Prince William Sound between high mountains. This is Turnagain Arm, into which discharge a number of small creeks and the larger Fire River from the northward, the southern shore being partly formed by the low edge of the Kenai table-land. The water is shoal and the bottom sandy. The tides throughout the Inlet are remarkable for their range and strength. Vessels usually anchor for a favorable flood or ebb, finding it impracticable to make way against a head tide, but in the Arm they are phenomenal. The range of extreme tides is about fifty feet, and nowhere less than thirty-six feet. The ebb, carefully measured, runs from five and a half to six and a half miles an hour, slack water lasts only a few minutes, and the flood tide comes back over the sands with an angry roar, in a wave three or four feet high, running more than seven miles an hour. In ten minutes the water is six feet deep over the sands where all was dry; the least rate of current in the channel during the whole flood tide was six and a half miles. I have seen a 240-pound anchor of good Swedish iron twisted like a hank of yarn in vain efforts to hold a little tug of twenty-four tons against the tide. The magazine writers who lately went to the Bay of Fundy and vainly searched for the "bore," can be abundantly satisfied in Turnagain Arm.

The industries of the Inlet are comprised, apart from mining and prospecting, in hunting and fishing. There are a number of small, widely separated villages, each with its trader's "store," and half a dozen canneries and fisheries where salmon are salted. The United States is unrepresented by any official in the whole expanse of the Inlet. The climate is much finer than in most parts of Alaska, but the winters are colder and the winter gales severe. The mosquito is painfully evident in many places, moose and caribou abound, and the great king salmon reach enormous proportions, authentic records being accessible of single fish weighing 135 pounds. Altogether the Inlet is a place to remember, and with its volcanoes, glaciers, coal-beds, and game, is a promising locality for a summer school of geology.

W. H. D.

THE TOURIST SEASON IN SWITZERLAND.

LUGANO, August 22, 1895.

TWENTY thousand more Americans than last year have crossed the ocean to Europe this summer; so I was told by a steamship agent. I have also read somewhere that the hotel-keepers in American resorts are not all pleased with their receipts. Swiss hotels, on the other hand, have perhaps never been so crowded as this summer. At all the favorite resorts it has been quite impossible to secure rooms unless they were ordered days or even weeks in advance. This has been true not only of fashionable resorts like Interlaken, Lucerne, and St. Moritz, but of the Alpine-summit hotels as well. At Interlaken, which is simply a town of hotels strung out in two rows, I had to spend an hour before I could find quarters.

At Lucerne we had to put up with private lodgings, and heard of a large party that had to spend the night in the railway station. At Pontresina not a room in hotel or private house could be found for love or money. At Mürren, which has two of the largest hotels in the mountains, besides several smaller ones, one of our party of three had to sleep in a little room in the shanty which serves as a post-office. A new hotel, with forty workmen still engaged on it, was already offering shelter and beds, and at one of the large hotels I was told that not a few families engage their rooms for July in May, just as we engage berths on favorite steamers three months ahead.

It would be well if American hotel-keepers were to learn a lesson from this state of affairs. If you can get comfortable rooms, excellent meals, and cheap, good wines in a Swiss mountain-top hotel to which everything has to be brought on horseback, for $2 to $3 a day, there is no reason why American hotel-keepers, who have all their supplies brought near their doors by railways, should charge twice that sum, while serving meals infinitely less satisfactory than the Swiss hotels, which, in point of cuisine, are the best in the world. My experience has been that it costs just half as much to spend a summer travelling in Europe as it does in America. This saving more than pays for the return trip on the steamer; and that is one reason, and perhaps the main one, why Americans prefer to travel abroad, and so often surprise the Europeans by their ignorance of the attractions of their own country. Our hotels are suicidally expensive. The regular rate of $4 a day, or $8 for a double room, is absurdly high; and as long as it remains so high, Americans will continue to crowd the Atlantic steamers and the European summer resorts. Will our hotel-keepers take the hint? It is true, we have plenty of cheap (and bad) hotels, but the comparison here made is between first-class hotels in the two countries. Of course, there is a difference in the cost of supplies and service, but the cost is far from being double in America.

There are, however, other reasons, besides the influx of Americans, why the Swiss hotels are so crowded this summer. Ten years ago, and even four years ago, when I visited Switzerland for the last time, there were certain attractive resorts, like the Riffel Alp at Zermatt, the Hôtel des Alpes at Mürren, the hotel on the Eggishorn, and the whole of Pontresina, that were almost monopolized by the English. This year I found all these places invaded by hosts of Germans and French, so that I not only failed to get my favorite rooms, but sometimes was glad to get any at all. The British tourists are quite disgusted at this German and French invasion, and will doubtless soon emigrate to more remote and inaccessible Alpine view-points, taking their indispensable mountain chapels and chaplains with them. The Germans have also driven from St. Moritz most of the French, who still feel so sore at having been beaten a quarter of a century ago that they refuse to live with Teutons under the same roof. What accounts for the presence of so many Germans in these (comparatively) expensive hotels, I cannot say, for the Germans have hitherto had a rather bad name among the hotel-keepers on account of their economic propensities. The only explanation I can think of is that the wonderful growth of all the large German cities during the last decade has largely increased the number of wealthy families who are able to spend a few weeks in the Alps without economizing. There is also at present a mild sort of Anglomania among the Germans and the French, which causes them to flock to places formerly monopolized by the British. Some of the young Parisian Anglomaniacs that one sees in Swiss hotels are amusing specimens of humanity.

In some of the places referred to—especially Zermatt and Mürren—the new mountain railways are largely responsible for the present overcrowding. Four years ago, in writing about these new mountain railways, I was inclined to take quite a favorable view of them, as I did not then realize that they would spoil some of my favorite spots by bringing such mobs of tourists to overcrowd the hotels. Even now, when I look at the matter unselfishly, I cannot treat these cog-wheel roads with the scorn of the veteran climbers. I find that in all cases a walk of fifteen or twenty minutes from the station restores the coveted Alpine solitude and silence, while, on the other hand, I feel that hundreds of tourists who cannot climb to these heights—especially ladies—benefit by the new means of locomotion, which, besides, does away with the former daily cruelty to burden-bearing porters and horses. It is useless to declaim against the mountain railways. They have come to stay and to multiply. At present, of all parts of Switzerland, the Bernese Oberland is best supplied with them. After the Rigi and Pilatus roads, the most popular is the one which enables you to leave Interlaken, go up to Lauterbrunnen and Mürren, down again to Lauterbrunnen, up the Wengern Alp to the Kleine Scheidegg, down to Grindelwald, and back to Interlaken—all in about eight hours—a tour which, a few years ago, would have taken two days. It is the grandest railway in the world, but it will, of course, be far surpassed in sublimity by the projected Jungfrau railway, which will raise tourists to an elevation of 13,670 feet, whereas the highest point of the Scheidegg road is only 6,788 feet. The Jungfrau railway, which, a decade ago, would have seemed a Jules-Vernean chimera, is now a certain thing and merely a question of time. The federal authorities have granted a concession for it, and its general course has already been mapped out. There will be stations on the Eiger (10,567 feet) and Mönch (11,886), while the highest point on the Jungfrau will be reached by an elevator 216 feet high. For the most part the road will traverse tunnels, and those who fear that the railway will anywhere spoil the aspect of the most beautiful mountain in Switzerland, may feel reassured on being told that, at such a height and distance, it will take a good telescope even to see the road from any accessible view-point below. Before the construction begins, however, various problems have to be solved. On July 29 and 30 there was a special session at the Scheidegg, at which it was decided to offer prizes amounting to 21,000 francs for the solution of certain electric and tunnelling problems, and a number of expert guides were sent up to the summit to investigate certain snow-problems. The engineer Imfeld (noted for his Alpine panoramas), M. Guyer-Zeller, and Prof. Koppe appear to be at the head of this stupendous undertaking.

Of other projected railways the one that will be most welcomed by tourists will connect Coire with Thusis (Via Mala), thus shortening the long, dusty, and expensive trip to the Engadine. This road, which is to be finished by next June, can hardly be called a mountain railway, as it will make a rise of only 500 feet. On the other hand, the Gorner Grat railway from Zermatt will in about an hour haul up passengers to what is in some respects the grandest tourist view-point in Switzerland, 10,290 feet above the ocean and 4,975 above Zermatt. Here you are surrounded by a complete circle of snow-peaks, including the Monte Rosa, Lyskamm, Castor and Pollux, Breithorn, Matterhorn, Weisshorn, etc.—a simply overwhelming panorama of Alpine sublimity. To my horror and indignation, I found, on reaching the top of the Gorner Grat this year, that a wretched stone hotel had been built on its very summit, utterly ruining the place and making it impossible to see more than half of the glorious view at a time. It is an almost incredible bit of vandalism, which makes one wonder what the Alpine clubs, with their thousands of members, exist for. Surely they ought not to have permitted this outrage, and surely it is their duty to see to it that, when the railway is built, the station shall not obstruct the view, and that the offensive hotel be demolished. Altogether, I do not think such a railway is at all desirable, except as far as the Riffel Hotel, for the Gorner Grat is very easily ascended even by ladies. It is different with the combined cog-wheel and ordinary railway to Zermatt from Visp. This not only shortens a long and expensive road, but makes it more fascinating than it ever was even to pedestrians, because it usually runs so closely along or over the Visp as to give one the most delightful views of that savagely turbulent stream, which suggests the lower Merced in the Yosemite. These two instances show that it is as irrational to condemn the *Zahnradbahn* unreservedly as to approve it in all cases.

I have often wondered why the Chamonix region has so far escaped the attention of the mountain-railway builders, since Chamonix continues to be the favorite resort of Americans and many others, especially the "Cookies" and other "personally conducted" parties, addicted to ease and hurry. I have often wondered, too, why Americans persist in making this their favorite resort in Switzerland. Mont Blanc is indeed the biggest and the highest of all Swiss mountains, but to me it seems the least interesting of all the giants, because it lacks individuality and distinction of form. It is a huge mass of snow and rocks without either the stern, terrific grandeur of the masculine Matterhorn, or the immaculate snowy beauty of the feminine Jungfrau. And what is most strange of all is, that the finest point of view—the Brévant—is so neglected by tourists. So few of them take the trouble to climb up this mountain, whence the rosy sunset on the snow-fields of Mont Blanc can be best observed, that no place of refuge has yet been built for their accommodation, except a small restaurant with one room and two wretched hard beds. What the tourists all do go to see is the so-called Mer de Glace, on which in reality it is foolish to waste a moment of time if one has a chance to visit the Aletsch, Gorner, or Rhone glaciers. It must be admitted, however, that none of the Swiss glaciers equal in size, beauty of color, and grandeur our own glaciers in Alaska and British Columbia.

In going from the Valaisian Alps to the Berner Oberland, tourists have hitherto had to decide between the rival claims of the Gemmi and Grimsel passes. Both are grandly desolate, and as long as both had to be traversed partly on foot or horseback they were perhaps equally popular. But since the opening, last June, of the new Grimsel road for carriages and diligence, the Grimsel has gained the ascendency; which is, perhaps, not to be regretted, since to a tourist who cannot see both these passes I should usually give the ad-

vice to choose the Grimsel. The new carriage road over this famous old pass, which has been constructed at a cost of $312,000, is as interesting in its way as the St. Gothard railway. It passes five bridges and three tunnels, and tackles all the mountain-side problems so boldly that it is, even for pedestrians, grander than the old bridle-path; while those who like to travel at their ease in a carriage can now enjoy all the beauty and grandeur of this incomparable pass, from the precipitous slope of the Rhone glacier, with all the accompanying snow-peaks, to the desolate but beautiful lake at the Hospice, the glacier-smoothed mountain-sides, and the superb waterfalls of Handegg and Reichembach, near Meiringen.

I cannot close this letter without a brief reference to Baedeker's marvellous guide-book to Switzerland. I verily believe there is not a cow-path in the whole country that is not referred to in it; but the most praiseworthy thing about it is the conscientious way in which it is kept up to date. The current edition has apparently only a few more pages than the older one, but in reality there are many more, for the whole book has been rewritten and condensed to make room for new matter. A comparison of two editions of Baedeker impresses one strongly with the fact that, while the mountains are immutable, everything else in Switzerland undergoes as rapid changes as in America.

HENRY T. FINCK.

RENAN'S CORRESPONDENCE WITH HIS SISTER.

PARIS, August 28, 1895.

RENAN has given us the history of his earliest years in Brittany, of his life in the seminary when he was preparing for the priesthood, with such minuteness that we seem to have lived those years with him; his psychological development has been completely revealed to us. The chapter of his memoirs which describes his life at Saint-Sulpice and his relations with his clerical directors and professors, is one of the most interesting documents that can be found by those who like to study the inner life of a soul and the transition from belief to unbelief. We have more frequent occasions to study the transition from unbelief to belief, or from one religion to another. There is always in what is called a conversion a moral phenomenon which touches the deepest chords of our intellectual and moral nature. At the time when the 'Life of Jesus' appeared, Renan was attacked with the greatest violence in the Catholic press; he was treated as apostate and renegade. One day, in the presence of Monseigneur Dupanloup, the Archbishop of Orleans, somebody compared him to the Abbé Lamennais. "Take care," said Dupanloup; "Renan is not in the same category as Lamennais; he stopped at the foot of the altar"—by which he meant that Renan had never been ordained.

I have now before me some curious letters, published in the *Revue de Paris*, which refer to the period of probation and uncertainty which Renan went through before he renounced entering the church. These letters, written at Issy in 1842, are addressed to his sister, Henriette Renan, who was at that time governess in Poland in the house of Count André Zamoyski (the Zamoyskis are one of the greatest families of Poland—as great, perhaps, as the Czartoryskis). This sister, Henriette, was already known to a few by a small pamphlet of which only a hundred copies were printed in September, 1862, under the title: "Henriette Renan: Souvenirs pour ceux qui l'ont connue"; with the note, "These pages are not intended for the public." In 1883, in the preface to the 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse,' Renan wrote these lines: "The person who has had the greatest influence on my life—I mean my sister Henriette—occupies here no place. In September, 1862, a year after the death of this precious friend, for the few people who had known her, a little work was dedicated to her memory. . . . My sister was so modest, she had such an aversion to the noise of the world, that she would have reproached me from the grave if I had made these pages public." In a codicil to his will, however, Renan allowed his wife to publish this small volume. He allowed also the publication of his correspondence with his sister, which is now beginning.

Henriette Renan was born July 22, 1811, at Tréguier, a place which has become now almost famous from the charming descriptions which Renan has given of it. She was twelve years older than her brother. After the death of her father (who was found dead one day on the beach), she was obliged to keep a school, but was not very successful, and, at the age of twenty-four, she left for Paris, where she accepted the situation of teacher (*sous-maîtresse*) in a small girls' school. In 1838 she sent to Tréguier for her brother, and placed him in the seminary of Saint-Nicolas, which was then under the direction of M. Dupanloup. Renan was fifteen years old. In 1841 Henriette received advantageous offers from Poland, and in 1842 she left for that distant country, where, fortunately for her, she had to remain in a most excellent and distinguished family.

Renan tells us, in his memoir on his sister, that she did not quite like the clerical turn which circumstances had given to his education. "Her religious ideas had become modified; history had taught her the insufficiency of any particular dogma. But the religious foundation which was in her a gift of nature and the result of her first education, was too solid to be shaken." As Henriette Renan, from the castle to which she was exiled, remained a constant correspondent and spiritual adviser of her brother, and as the young and gifted seminarist looked to her for advice and help in all his mental troubles, it is easy to understand what an interest their correspondence can have for those who like to witness the daily incidents of a spiritual life.

In September, 1842, Renan was hindered from spending his vacation time in Brittany by want of money. He remained in the seminary at Issy, but was quite consoled: "the situation is agreeable, the park truly delicious." He enjoyed the quietness of the place. He had just finished his year of philosophy and mathematics: "It is curious to see the revolution which these studies operate on the mind after the frivolous studies of the year of rhetoric. You make as much progress in one year as mankind has done in a century. You see things in such a different way, you recognize so many errors and prejudices where you thought that you had seen the truth, that you would be tempted to adopt a universal scepticism. Such is the first impression of the study of philosophy." While he was in this state of mind, he began to reflect more seriously on his own future. On one thing he seems to have always been determined: he was not a man of action, he desired a life of study and of intellectual work. "I think I have discovered with certainty that I was not born for what is vulgarly called the world. . . . I was not born for the small and empty things of which the world, since it must so be called, is made."

He considers closed to him any career which would not be a career of study and of meditation.

"Therefore, the question becomes simple and the choice easy; besides, the sublimity of priesthood, when it is viewed from above, has always struck me; even if Christianity were but a dream, priesthood would nevertheless be a divine type. I know that, great though it be in itself, men have made it very small, obliged, as they were, to reduce it to their level. I understand, though I consider it a prejudice, the contempt which some people have for it. It is clear that as soon as any ministry requires numerous ministers, there will be among them low and vile souls who will lower it in the eyes of those who look superficially on things and always put the man in the place of his ministry; but things must always be considered in themselves."

He felt, however, already some hesitation, and asked his sister's advice, begging her not to trouble their mother on the subject. His sister writes to him (October 30, 1842), that she shudders at the thought of the questions which occupy his mind:

"I cannot sufficiently repeat to you, my beloved Ernest, and ask you with an almost maternal tenderness: Do not let anything bind you too suddenly. Know well, before you accept them, the engagements which will seal your fate. . . . You say with truth, my Ernest, you were not born for a frivolous life. More than anybody, your sister is capable of appreciating the charm of a retired life, free, independent, laborious, useful; but where is it to be found? I think that independence is, if not impossible, at least given to a very few, and, for my part, I have never known it; yet can I hope that it will be your lot in a society which has hierarchy for its basis, and in which you justly anticipate a watchful authority? I cherish no illusion—such an authority exists in every career; but in this case is it not more fearful, since an oath obliges you to submit to it? I merely put the question; you have full liberty to answer, and the right to decide. To this question I will add another: Can a churchman entirely dispose of himself? Is he not obliged to follow the direction given by his superiors? I will not combat what you say of the elevation of his ministry; surely, if all looked upon it as you do, nothing could be greater, more worthy of a superior soul, than to consecrate life to the alleviation of misfortune, to propagate and to put in practice the sublime truths of the Gospel."

The life led by Henriette Renan was singularly quiet. She was in a "solitude of which nothing in France can give an idea: a fine château surrounded by immense forests, where one feels apart from the rest of the universe." She recommends her brother to study German philosophy.

"Germany is the classic land of tranquil dreams and of metaphysical reasonings. It will be difficult for the other nations of Europe to raise their philosophical school to the height which the German school has attained; his contemplative humor, his tranquil ways, his climate, even, have tended to develop in the North German this liberty of thought which he enjoys. Our French mind, so quick, so amiable, is generally too light for a profound philosophy."

The correspondence continues in the same mood. Renan is more and more preoccupied with doubts about the choice of a career; he shows less and less inclination to tie himself to a life of absolute obedience. He likes his clerical professors. He discusses freely with them and finds them very kind. He reads Malebranche, "the finest dreamer and the most terrible logician that ever existed." "I find in him a double joy; Malebranche was assuredly a bold thinker, and, nevertheless, he was a priest. He was, moreover, a member of a religious congregation, and he lived tranquil at a time when the secular authority and the

spirit of the age gave to the ecclesiastical authority even more pride and power." Renan, on the whole, felt little inclination for clerical life; he might have said with Emerson:

> "I like a church, I like a cowl,
> I love a prophet of the soul,
> And on my heart monastic aisles
> Fall like sweet strains or pensive smiles;
> Yet not for all his faith can see
> Would I that cowled churchman be."

Renan left the seminary of Saint-Sulpice in 1845.

"Thanks," he says, "to the serious and liberal spirit which presided over this establishment, I had carried my philological studies very far, and my religious opinions had been much shaken by these studies. Here again my sister became my help. She had preceded me on the way; her Catholic belief had completely come to an end; but she had been careful not to influence me on this subject. When I confided to her the doubts that tormented me and made it a duty for me to abandon a career in which an absolute faith is required, she was delighted and offered to make this difficult passage easier for me. I was entering life at the age of twenty-three, old with thought, but as ignorant of the world as it is possible to be. I literally knew nobody; the smallest sum which a boy of fifteen possesses, I did not possess; I was not even a bachelor of arts."

His sister Henriette gave him the sum of fifteen hundred francs, and he tried to find in the schools of Paris an occupation which should give him board and lodging and some leisure for working. His sister had fallen ill in Poland; she returned to Paris after ten years' absence, and they lived together in a small apartment, near the Val de Grâce. They worked, they travelled together. She wrote articles in papers devoted to education. They lived there for six years, till he married Mademoiselle Scheffer.

In 1860 Renan was intrusted with a scientific mission in the East by Napoleon III. His sister joined him on his journey, and accompanied him over Syria, in the Lebanon mountains, in Palestine, in the Maronite convents. She fell ill while he was taking notes for the 'Life of Jesus,' but continued to help him in his work. Both were obliged to return to Beirut, where he fell ill himself. His sister died on the 24th of September, 1861, and he was not near her at the fatal moment.

Renan's memoir of his sister ends with a fine page, written in his best style:

"Heart in which awoke such a sweet flame of love; brain in which resided such a pure thought; charming eyes, in which goodness shone; long and delicate hand, which I so often pressed—I shudder with horror when I think that you have fallen into dust. But everything here is mere symbol and image. The truly eternal part of each of us is his relation with the Infinite. It is in the memory of God that man is immortal. There lives our Henriette, for ever radiant, for ever pure, a thousand times more really than when she struggled with her weak organs to create her spiritual person, and when, thrown into a world which could not understand her, she strove obstinately towards perfection. . . . I have never doubted the reality of a moral order; but I see now, with evidence, that all the logic of the universe would be upset if such lives were but a fallacy and an illusion."

Correspondence.

IMPROVED LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reading your article with the above title I am lost in amazement for the thousandth time—an amazement which is more profound the older I grow—that such men as Mr. Carter, not to speak of the hand which guides your editorial pen, do not perceive that there is one perfectly simple remedy, and only one, which will be of any avail for checking the flood of reckless legislation, and that is to put the work under executive guidance and control.

As everybody knows, in Great Britain no measure of public interest is ever taken into consideration by Parliament unless upon the proposal of the Ministry, and the most valuable function of the Ministry is that of *preventing* legislation. Why has Great Britain adhered steadily to free trade for half a century, showing no signs of wavering, while almost every other nation is getting more and more entangled in the meshes of protection? Simply because no change can be made except through the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and no Chancellor of the Exchequer can be found to propose it. Home rule for Ireland has blocked the course of legislation for the last ten years; but that is not necessarily an evil. It has allowed the business of the country to go on without the fear of revolutionary and irresponsible law-making.

Of course the reply is, and Mr. Carter would probably accept it without a murmur, that executive guidance of legislation is contrary to the American system. Yes; the American system is to allow any one of several hundred representatives to introduce as many laws as he pleases upon as many hundred subjects, without the slightest reference to history or their effect upon the public welfare, and without any criticism from anybody responsible for administration; and which or how many of these laws shall be enacted depends upon chance, the energy of the lobby, or the interest of party intrigue. Well, if this is the system which the American people decide to maintain, let us frankly admit it. Biennial sessions of the Legislature will do no good, nor any amount of care given by the people to the choice of representatives, as the Legislature will remain just as much of a mob, and its work just as chaotic then as now.

Nowhere would the change be more important than in interstate matters. If the guidance lay with the respective executives, they could confer together as to the measures to be submitted to their Legislatures, whereas there is now absolutely no means of communication except through commissions, which, even if any more competent, are wholly without the authority which would be wielded by a Governor elected by the whole people of a State.

Nowhere is the field more ripe for such agitation than in Massachusetts, and I have striven hard to induce the Democratic managers to take up the subject; but it would be about as useful to talk to the north wind, and this autumn campaign of purely State elections, with the most important question pressing for solution, will doubtless be conducted upon the tariff and the free coinage of silver.

G. B.

Boston, September 7, 1895.

EFFECT ON THE SOUTH OF THE LOW PRICE OF COTTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prior to the late war the tillable lands of the South were divided into large plantations. Every plantation was a little world unto itself. The smoke-house groaned with its load of hams, breakfast bacon, lard, and sidemeat. The water-mill on the creek ground the flour and meal. The sorghum-field furnished the molasses, while the cribs were overflowing with corn, oats, and hay for the "stock." After the late "unpleasantness," this set of conditions changed. The high value of cotton induced the people to utilize every acre for producing the fleecy staple. The South began to keep her corn-crib in the North and West instead of at home. The proceeds of the cotton crop were used to defray every expense. All things were bought and sold on a credit of a year's time, and the farmer not only paid excessive profits for what he got, but bought extravagantly. During these years the rural South did not improve her condition. The planter at "settling" time either was in debt to his merchant or had little to his credit. If in debt, the merchant "secured" himself by a mortgage on the plantation.

The mechanism that controlled the growing and marketing of the crop, however, became rich. These middlemen are called cotton factors or commission merchants, and have generally in connection with their cotton offices a wholesale grocery house. They make a business of advancing supplies for making the crop, and, when the cotton is gathered in the fall, it is shipped to them to be sold. A stiff rate of interest is charged on the sum of money representing the amount of supplies advanced. The commission received by the factor for selling cotton is 2½ per cent.; besides, there are numerous incidentals, such as profits on storage, insurance, and loose sample cotton. This commission, until within the past few years, amounted to about $2 for each bale of cotton. The number of bales received each year by the average commission merchant was 20,000, although some have received as high as 160,000 bales in a single season. As a consequence, the South's wealthiest class are those who are or who have been cotton factors.

When the price of cotton fell below the cost of production, commission merchants generally declined to make advances, or, when they were made, curtailed them very much. The Southern tiller of the soil for the first time experienced the feeling of not being able to buy everything he wanted on credit. He was, however, not put to extreme hardship thereby. Climatic conditions did not cause him to worry for many clothes. His severest deprivation was the lack of the chief articles of his diet, viz., clear-rib pork, molasses, corn-bread, and coffee. He was in no danger of starving, as his cow furnished milk and butter, his chickens supplied eggs and meat, his "garden-patch" vegetables, while fruit grew wild in abundance. This condition of affairs he set about to remedy, and right well has he succeeded. In three years he has revolutionized his economics of farming. Instead of paying the large profits of numerous middlemen, he grows at home what he uses. In the past spring the South, instead of buying from the West millions of dollars' worth of corn and meal, has, for the first time in twenty-five years, a surplus, and is shipping it. The wheat area has been much widened, and sorghum molasses is a drug on the market. Very few packing-house products have been bought, and, from the large number of hogs in sight, the South will be a liberal seller of meat next year.

While these facts are such as to cause rejoicing in one section, they cause alarm elsewhere. The West has lost her best customer. The coming corn crop will be at least 250,000,000 bushels larger than the country's greatest crop, and the prospect is of an extremely low price. Northern and Western packing-houses will be much more restricted to exporting their product. Therefore every foreign discrimination against the American hog becomes doubly important.

The Southern planter, by his new method of farming, can make a fair profit in cotton at even the present low price. Not being under obligations to the factor, the grower disposes of his cotton at the nearest railroad depot, thus saving both freight and commissions. He can sell his cotton when he thinks the price is right, and his ideas in that respect cannot be criticised for being too low. This fact will tend to maintain prices, as it will prevent an avalanche of cotton from being thrown upon the market during the first four months of the cotton season, and the crop will be sold more gradually throughout the year.

The crop diversification consists principally in fruits, vegetables, grains, and grasses. During the past spring a very large crop of potatoes was planted and a splendid price gotten. In fact, many who sold at the best time realized, net, over one hundred dollars an acre. It is to be remembered that there is also the fall crop, which is generally more profitable. Arkansas, Tennessee, and Mississippi were especially successful with the spring potato crop. This diversification of crops has been much accelerated by the intelligent sefishness of many of the railroads in the matter of rates and daily fruit expresses, thus putting thousands of miles of virgin territory into close communication with the great consuming centres. Another effect of the crop variation is that it has killed the credit system. Instead of money coming in only once a year, the marketing of various crops at different times has kept it coming in at all seasons.

A most striking result of the decline in cotton values has been the rapid breaking up of large plantations into smaller farms, which fact assures a careful cultivation of the soil up to the point of diminishing returns. This was brought about as follows: The fall in the price of cotton caused the foreclosure of many mortgages on plantations, which were bought in by the crediting loan companies and commission merchants. There was absolutely no demand for land. The drop, therefore, in value was very marked. The best lands could be bought for from ten to fifteen dollars per acre. The only way to sell at all was to break the plantations up into small farms. Real-estate firms began to send representatives to travel among the class of people in the Northern-Middle and some of the Northwestern States who rent land. There values range from seventy-five to one hundred and five dollars per acre, and the property is in strong hands and cannot be bought for less. Many of these tenants have accumulated two or three thousand dollars, a sum for which they cannot buy where they are, but can buy a very nice farm in the South. Besides, the South's climatic conditions are more favorable. The heat in summer is no greater than it is in the North, and the summers are longer; consequently, there is less danger of crop failure. Again, many articles permit of two and even three crops a year. In winter the weather is so mild that cattle do not need to be housed; in short, the material advantages of the South were shown to be such as to make living there easier than in the North.

Accordingly, prospective buyers have come down by the thousands. A great many have bought and settled, while others are coming in every day. At last the tide of emigration has turned to the South. The great Southern trunk lines have been largely instrumental in bringing about the result. They have not only been extremely active in settling parties along their lines, but have also brought in a great many excursions of prospective buyers.

The rapid betterment of the condition of the agricultural South will have its beneficial effect on the industrial South. The change in the method of selling the cotton crop will lessen the need for the present great number of commission merchants. The growing of home supplies will decrease the need for the large number of wholesale grocers. Home capital will thus be loosed to find its way especially into those industries which use as raw materials iron, cotton, and lumber — industries which the South must ultimately control because of her cheap labor and the cheapness and proximity of her fuel and raw materials.

WYATT COLLIER ESTES.

THE MIDDLE AGES AND THE RENAISSANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication of "A. L." in the current number of the *Nation* shows that a juster estimate of the Middle Ages is forming among men who are now devoting themselves to mediæval studies. A faithful student of the fine arts of those times can hardly retain the view that has been widely held respecting them. Every such student must be impressed with the fact that they afford evidence of intellectual life and executive powers of the highest order. In these arts he finds the fundamental principles that gave form to the arts of antiquity still largely operative, though, under changed conditions, the modes of expression are naturally changed. The value of the best product of the Renaissance will doubtless always be recognized; but to regard the movement as a return to principles that had been wholly lost sight of, and as in all respects salutary in spirit, is to misapprehend it. In fact, the Italian Renaissance, though fruitful in works expressing the highest order of genius, was animated by a spirit of brilliant retrospection rather than of new life, and contained from the first the seeds of the deplorable decadence of the arts that marked the close of the sixteenth century.—Yours very truly,

CHARLES H. MOORE.

EAST BOXFORD, MASS., September 6, 1895.

Notes.

THE important announcement is made in the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1895' (New York: *The Publishers' Weekly*), that, if the trade support the undertaking, an index like that of the English Whitaker's 'Reference Catalogue' will be attempted next year in connection with the American work. It will not be bound up with the latter, but will appear very shortly after the issue of the 'Annual.' Some omissions of preliminary lists have kept the bulk of this year's 'Annual' within that of its immediate predecessor.

Charles Scribner's Sons have nearly ready 'The Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes,' by Prof. Henry Martyn Baird; and 'Margaret Winslow,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle, the first volume in a new series of "Women of Colonial and Revolutionary Times."

Henry Holt & Co. will issue 'The Science of Finance,' by Prof. Henry C. Adams of the University of Michigan; 'The Ideals of German Literature,' by Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard; 'A Reader in Scientific German,' by Profs. Brandt of Hamilton and Day of Swarthmore; and Hertwig's 'General Principles of Zoölogy,' translated by Prof. G. W. Field of Brown.

From Roberts Bros. we are to have 'Constantinople,' by Prof. Edwin A. Grosvenor of Amherst; 'The Wood beyond the World,' a prose romance by William Morris; the first volume of Harnack's 'History of Dogma'; the fifth of Renan's 'History of the People of Israel'; 'From Jerusalem to Nicæa: The Church in the First Three Centuries,' by Philip Stafford Moxom; 'Modern German Literature,' by Benjamin W. Wells; Hamerton's 'Painting in France, after the Decline of Classicism,' 'Contemporary French Painters,' and 'Imagination in Landscape Painting,' all numerously illustrated; 'Dante Gabriel Rossetti: his Family Letters,' in two volumes, by William M. Rossetti; 'An Old Convent School, and Other Papers,' by Susan Coolidge; 'The Helen Jackson Year-Book,' edited by Harriet T. Perry; and 'Margaret and Her Friends, or Ten Conversations with Margaret Fuller upon the Mythology of the Greeks and its Expression in Art,' reported by Caroline W. Healey (Mrs. Dall).

We make the following selections from the extended list of autumn publications put forth by Macmillan & Co.: 'The Law of Civilization and Decay: An Essay in History,' by Brooks Adams; 'The Principles of Sociology,' by Prof. F. H. Giddings of Columbia College; 'Essays in Taxation,' by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia; 'The Life, Letters, and Works of Louis Agassiz,' in two volumes, by Jules Marcou; 'The Structure and Development of the Mosses and Ferns (Archegoniatæ),' by Prof. D. H. Campbell of Leland Stanford Junior University; 'Fishes, Living and Fossil,' by Bashford Dean of Columbia; 'Cases of Roman Law,' selected and arranged by Prof. Munroe Smith of Columbia; 'Bookbindings, Old and New,' by Prof. Brander Matthews of Columbia; 'A Brief History of English,' by Prof. O. F. Emerson of Cornell: 'New Orleans: The Place and the People,' by Grace King; 'Lectures on Art,' by John La Farge; 'The Political History of England,' by Goldwin Smith; 'Ethical Discourses,' by Leslie Stephen; 'Lectures on Political Science,' and 'The Growth of the British Policy,' by Sir John R. Seeley; 'The Letters of Matthew Arnold, 1848-1888,' in two volumes, edited by George W. E. Russell; 'The Works of William and Dorothy Wordsworth,' in sixteen volumes, edited by William Knight; 'The Works of Alfred, Lord Tennyson, Poet Laureate,' *édition de luxe* in ten volumes, limited to 150 copies for sale; 'A Handbook to Tennyson's Works,' by E. Morton Luce; 'Browning as a Philosophical and Religious Teacher,' by Prof. Henry Jones of the University of Glasgow; 'The Letters of Edward Fitzgerald to Fanny Kemble,' edited by William Aldis Wright; 'Literary Types (De Quincey, etc.),' by E. Beresford Chancellor; 'The Greater Victorian Poets,' by Prof. Hugh Walker; a new volume of Poems by the late Christina Rossetti, edited by her brother; 'Masterpieces of the Great Artists, 1400-1700,' with numerous illustrations, the text by "N. D'Anvers"; 'Raphael,' by Julia Cartwright; 'A Guide to the Paintings of Venice,' by Karl Karoly; 'The Art of Velasquez: A Critical Study,' by R. A. M. Stevenson; 'Sir Frederick Leighton, Bart., P. R. A.; An Illustrated Chronicle,' by Ernest Rhys; 'Architecture in Italy, from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century,' by Raffaele Cattaneo; 'A Handbook of Greek Sculpture,' by Ernest Gardner; 'Etching in England,' by Frederick Wedmore; 'Modern Book Illustration,' by Joseph Pennell; 'Ladies' Bookplates,' by Norna Labouchere; 'Picture Post-

ers : A Handbook on the History of the Illustrated Placard,' by C. T. J. Hiatt ; 'A Book about Fans,' by Mary Cadwalader Jones ; 'The Beginning of the Middle Ages,' by Dean Church ; 'The Oxford Church Movement,' by the late George Wakeling ; 'The Life of Cardinal Manning,' by Edmund Sheridan Purcell ; 'The Constitutional History and Constitution of the Church of England,' by Dr. F. Makower ; 'Sources of the Apostolic Canon,' by Prof. Adolf Harnack ; 'Outlines of Church History,' by Prof. Sohm ; 'John Knox,' by P. Hume Brown ; 'Hedonism and Hedonistic Theories, from Aristippus to Spencer,' by Prof. John Watson of Queen's University, Canada ; 'Vergil in the Middle Ages,' from the Italian of Prof. D. Comparetti ; 'Socrates and his Disciples,' by A. D. Godley ; 'Western Europe in the Fifth Century' and 'Western Europe in the Eighth Century,' Oxford lectures by the late Edward A. Freeman ; 'Essays in Historical Subjects,' by the late Bishop Lightfoot ; 'Oxford and her Colleges : A View from the Radcliffe Library' ; 'Rome,' by Mrs. Oliphant ; 'History of the Ptolemies,' by Prof. J. P. Mahaffy ; 'Studies in Economics,' by Prof. William Smart ; 'Old-World Japan,' legends retold by Frank Rinder ; 'The Scenery of Switzerland,' by Sir John Lubbock ; 'An Artist in the Himalayas,' by A. D. McCormick, companion of Sir W. M. Conway in his recent exploration ; 'The Blind Musician,' a story of Handel, by Emma Marshall ; 'The Private Life of Warren Hastings,' by Sir Charles Lawson ; 'Sketches in Sport and Natural History,' by the late George Kingsley, M.D. ; 'Wild England of To-day, and the Wild Life in It,' by C. J. Cornish ; 'Inmates of My House and Garden, by Mrs. Brightwen ; 'Dog Stories' from the *Spectator* of the past fifteen years, by J. St. Leo Strachey ; 'Artistic and Scientific Taxidermy and Modelling,' by Montagu Browne ; 'Studies in the Art Anatomy of Animals,' by Ernest E. Thompson ; 'Zoölogy,' in three volumes, by Prof. E. Ray Lankester ; 'The Structure of Man,' by Prof. Wiedersheim ; 'A History of Mankind,' by Prof. F. Ratzel ; 'Elements of Palæontology,' by Prof. von Zittel ; 'Andersen's Fairy Tales,' selected and translated by Mrs. Edgar Lucas, with illustrations by Linley Sambourne ; and 'The Song of Roland,' a summary with verse renderings by Arthur Way and Frederic Spencer.

'Mind and Motion and Monism,' the last work of the late George John Romanes, and 'The Tribal System in Wales,' by Frederick Seebohm, are announced by Longmans, Green & Co.

The Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, are on the point of issuing in two volumes 'Conquest of the Northwest,' by Hon. William H. English, which will embrace a complete life of Gen. George Rogers Clark, with much novel information regarding the settlers on Clark's Grant in Indiana.

The Sargent Publishing Co., Chicago, have in press 'Francis Bacon and his Shakspere,' a new Baconian advocacy, by Theron S. E. Dixon, a member of the bar.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, will make a volume of Izaak Walton's lives of Donne, Wotton, Hooker, Herbert, and Sanderson for their "English Classics Series." They will also issue a volume of translations of tales from the current "Belgian Renaissance" by Mrs. Wingate Rinder, entitled 'The Massacre of the Innocents.'

'A Sketch of the Life and Work of the Painter Domenico Morelli,' by Ashton R. Willard, with seven illustrations of that artist's work; a 'Whittier Year-book,' and a new and enlarged edition of Miss Agnes Repplier's 'Essays in Miniature,' along with a new edition of her five volumes in uniform binding, are shortly to be brought out by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The article on Thomas Paine in the forty-third volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) has the greatest interest for Americans; but though Leslie Stephen reserved it for himself, and displays in it his well-known powers of compression and of pithy interjection, he seems to be working at second hand. There are also two unfortunate misprints, viz. : on p. 73, Mallison for Madison, and on p. 76, "Penn's house at Bordentown" for Paine's. Mr. Stephen is, again, the biographer of Paley, with much more immediate knowledge and with a genial sympathy. Genial in a markedly British degree is the account of Sir Harry Parkes, on which one craves some Oriental glosses. Twenty pages are given to Parnell, the notice being unsigned. One meets in this volume, with a shade of surprise, with Paoli and Parepa-Rosa, but, on the other hand, one looks in vain for the British-born James Parton, the historian. Readers who remember how Franklin in his 'Poor Richard' ruined a rival almanac-maker by pretending he was dead, will find the hint for this trickery in Swift's treatment of the astrologer John Partridge.

The most interesting reprint of the week is the German translation of 'Ben-Hur' issued by the Messrs. Harper themselves. The version is by "H. W. S.," and is presented in the Gothic letter of a readable size. The same house sends us a revised and much-enlarged edition of Prof. Adams S. Hill's 'Principles of Rhetoric,' whose merits are well known in teaching circles. From the Scribners we have another of the pretty volumes in the uniform Henry Kingsley series, viz., 'Leighton Court: A Country-House Story.' Another volume in Macmillan's revivals of the notable novels of the early part of the present century is made up of Thomas Love Peacock's 'Maid Marian and Crotchet Castle,' to which Mr. Saintsbury furnishes an introduction, biographical and critical. The dainty Dent-Macmillan "Temple Shakspere" still proceeds, with "King Richard III." and "King Henry V.," and it is announced that a request from one of the principal American universities has led to a change in the order of appearance, so that "Hamlet," "King Lear," and "Othello" will follow "King Henry VIII."

A State Library Bulletin issued at Albany under nominal date of June, 1895, embodies tabulated statistics for 1894 of New York libraries, which number 704; the larger half being in the University system. Eighty-one contain 10,000 volumes or more. The Astor Library is in the lead with 257,000 volumes, followed closely by the New York Mercantile with 244,000, and at a greater distance by the State (reference) Library at Albany with 193,712. Columbia's library of 175,000 is first in its class; Cornell coming next with 159,000, and so raising the averages in its (Tompkins) County that this county possesses 5,509 books for every 1,000 persons, whereas New York County has but 997.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for August opens with an interesting notice of the various Indian tribes of southeastern Mexico and British Honduras, by Dr. C. Sapper. He briefly indicates the habitats of some twenty tribes, eleven of which belong to the Maya family, and then shows in what respects they are distinguished from each other, as, in the construction of their huts, their dress, occupations, musical instruments, and weapons. Among the latter are still to be found blow-guns, though European arms are commonly used. An ethnographical map accompanies the paper. This is followed by an account of the district of Hatzfeldthafen, one of the stations of the German New Guinea Company, together with a map of the country and a chart of the harbor, and a report of the exploration of the Rio Puelo, a river of Chili, by Dr. Hans Steffen. A supplemental number contains "Contributions to the physical geography of Montenegro, with particular reference to the Karst," by Dr. Kurt Hassert, with hydrographic and geological maps.

Sun and Shade (N. Y. Photo-Gravure Co.) seizes the occasion of the international yacht race to bring out a souvenir edition of "Cup Challengers and Defenders" from the *America* to date. The present contestants have each a full plate; the other pairs divide the page.

A Boston correspondent informs us that Franklin's letter to Shelburne, printed in our last number as a novelty, is to be found in Sparks's 'Diplomatic Correspondence,' vol. iii., p. 377. We had satisfied ourselves that it was not included in Bigelow's edition of Franklin's Writings.

—In the September *Harper's*, articles of merit are dealt out with a free hand. Whether, however, the winning card turns out to be Richard Harding Davis's "Three Gringos in Central America" or Owen Wister's clever "Evolution of the Cow-Puncher," is a sufficiently open question to give zest to a critical comparison of the two. It would hardly be possible to write more readably than does Mr. Davis in the account of his scramble on mule-back towards the inland capital of Honduras—not yet reached in the present paper. Good-humor and an eye for details, even when these consist largely of alligators, insects, and personal discomforts, are excellent adjuncts to pioneering in the interest of journalism. Owen Wister, on the other hand, shows that the swashing qualities of the cow-puncher are merely those which are bred in the bone of the Saxon, expressing themselves in different ways at different times and places. The riata, the quirt, and the cinch are thus but nineteenth-century substitutes for sword and buckler, as the rider who riots over our Western cattle-ranges is brother in blood to knight, buccaneer, or colonist. A plentiful number of bright sayings find place in this argument, which is illustrated by an international episode that deserves credit for unexpectedly preserving, at this late date, the savor of originality. Slight as it is, Thomas A. Janvier's "At the Grand Hôtel du Paradis" bears, in its finish of outline and delicacy of touch, the stamp of the artist. In strong contrast to it is Ian Maclaren's "Jamie," which entices the reader through the difficulties of its broad Scotch by passages of the sly humor whose secret is known only to that canny vernacular, and which has a pathos of the fine type that draws a smile and a tear at one and the same moment.

—*Scribner's* does not, this month, put its best foot foremost. Were it not for Mr. Van Dyke's paper "Au Large," not even the droll finale of Anthony Hope's two-part story, "The Wheel of Love," or Robert Grant's fluent and wide-awake summing up of the perennial journalistic *cause célèbre* of man versus the modern woman, could float the number to the level of interest demanded by the sophisticated consumer of periodical literature. Mr. Van Dyke, however, lights up fact with imagination in his

account of camping and canoeing in the depths of the Canadian woods, and thereby makes the dangers of rapids-shooting and the vicissitudes of weather a pleasant tale to many to whom their reality would be a dubious enjoyment. His paper not only responds to the increasing inclination of those who stay at home as well as of those who ramble, to explore, by proxy or in person, comparatively untried and unfamiliar paths, but is a pleasant reminder that the ancient line of fishing-poets is happily not yet extinct.

—On the literary side, the *Century's* most successful representative for the month is Miss Jewett, who once more contrives to bring local color out of a white-faced Maine village, and complicated crises out of seemingly unrelieved monotony. Articles in periodicals by Prof. Woodrow Wilson are not of frequent occurrence; nevertheless, his urgent advocacy in this magazine of the need for imagination in the writing of history leaves room for the hope that he may, at some future time, be moved to explain at what point the historian should lay down and the historical novelist take up the pen. Foremost in claim upon immediate attention is, however, the paper in which General Boynton explains, with the aid of map and plan, the outlines, magnitude, and objects of the National Military Park, embracing the battlefields of Chickamauga and Chattanooga, which is to be dedicated with imposing ceremonies and fraternal participation of Federal and Confederate veterans alike, on September 19 to 21. In liberality of expenditure ($725,000 from Congress and $400,000 from the States) and in largeness of plan (which includes the marking by monuments, historical tablets, and batteries at the fighting positions of artillery, of the lines of six battlefields representing "eight days' operations, in five of which great armies were engaged") the national love of carrying out schemes on a huge scale is fully gratified. That the "one hundred and six monuments and the one hundred and fifty granite markers under contract to be finished and set up before the dedication" will expose on equally colossal scale the crying national need for education in another direction, seems only too likely. Ultimately to make, by the appointment of suitable commissions, this and our other national military parks object-lessons to the multitude in the arts of sculpture and landscape-gardening, as well as of battle, is an aim worth striving for, even in the face of improbability.

—The field of Chickamauga has already, indeed, inspired, as may be seen in the current *Atlantic*, one production of the best in its kind, in the shape of an attractive personal impression of scenery and ornithology, by Bradford Torrey. Vivid impressions of some of the historical events that centre about the once obscure Georgia farmhouses, now known to fame and to the patriotic pilgrim as the Dyer, Snodgrass, and Kelly houses, are also to be gained from this paper, in which a leading interest in the feathered inhabitants of the district has by no means taken the edge from observation of the traits characteristic of natives, or of military officials. Another national theme, "John Smith in Virginia," is handled with skill and charm by John Fiske. This comparison of Smith's own accounts of episodes in his versatile career with those of his enemies and detractors already does much towards rescuing the hero from the limbo of doubt and discredit into which it has been the fashion to cast him and his story; while a still further reinstatement of his character is to be hoped for in an article dealing with what Smith "naïvely calls his Rude Answer to the London Company, a paper bristling with common sense, and not timid when it comes to calling a spade a spade." Mr. James Schouler, in a second paper drawn from President Polk's diary, throws instructive light on several phases of the despoiling, Jingo policy of an administration whose disingenuous relations with Mexico resulted in the discreditable expansion of our territory from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific. The diary confirms the historical suspicion that Gen. Santa Anna and staff were, by official order, passed through our lines after the declaration of war, because there was reason to expect in him an artful ally in the scheme of Mexican dismemberment. Miss Repplier, who evidently travels as she reads—with her critical faculties on the *qui-vive*—carries with her the reader's full assent and sympathy in her vivacious plea for delivery from the guides who do so frequently beset us in foreign parts. In order to extract from a poem as rhythmless and of as little apparent meaning as Michael Field's "Tiger-Lilies" the proper measure of æsthetic sensation, a reader must, on the other hand, have been initiated in the poetic code of a present coterie of English versifiers.

—The most stupendous catalogue ever achieved in this country has just come to a temporary conclusion. A sixteenth volume ends the first series of the 'Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's office, U. S. A.' (Washington: Government Printing-Office). We have remarked on the progress of this admirable work in its successive stages, but it may be well to repeat (1.) that it is both an author- and a subject-catalogue, so that, for example, in the thirty-eight pages devoted to the rubric *Women*, there are classifications of general works on the diseases of woman prior to 1800 and subsequently, of works relating to women as physicians, etc.; or, again, that the eighty-five pages assigned to *Water* are followed by 164 pages showing the works on Mineral Waters *by localities*—a service to physicians and patients such as is surely rendered in no other publication the world over. (2.) When we used the word "works" we should more strictly have said writings, for the Catalogue takes cognizance not only of pamphlets and bound volumes, but also of the contents of medical periodicals, the mere list of which, with expanded titles, fills a supplementary volume of the Index of 282 pages. (3.) The dates covering an author's life are, when ascertainable, annexed to his name. (4.) The more outlandish foreign titles are as a rule translated into English. (5.) The publishers of books are recorded, along with date and place. This monument we owe primarily to Surgeon (now Deputy Surgeon-General) J. S. Billings, who, in announcing a second series of five volumes to be put to press directly, relinquishes the personal supervision he has given to the first series. He pays a just tribute to his principal assistant, Dr. Robert Fletcher, for the accuracy and rare typographical excellence of the Catalogue, as well as to the skilled proof-readers of the Government Printing-Office. The recorded Corrigenda are but trifling in so vast an undertaking. The further successful conduct of the work, therefore, seems well assured, and we may say in one breath, "The King is dead—Long live the King!"

—Besides *Women* and *Water*, the most significant titles in the present volume are *Wounds* (57 pp.), including the jurisprudence of wounds; *Wounded* (23 pp.), subdivided into care, and transportation, and "first aid," etc.; *Worms* (12 pp.), and *Wine* (9 pp.). *Wills* in their jurisprudential aspect make another important, if brief, category. Medical science and the law are occasionally joined in reports of criminal trials, as when, after a list of Dr John White Webster's contributions to chemistry, we come upon the literature of his *cause célèbre*, consequent upon his murder of Dr. Parkman—a conjunction happily rare in the experience of cataloguers. History is approached on another hand by works on the last illness of Daniel Webster and of Henry Wilson; theology, in an anonymous tractate of 1776, "Was bin ich, wenn ich nicht unsterblich sein?"—a question answered directly in the title, in this fashion: "Either [man is] immortal or worse than the beasts." The ever-recurring complaint of climatic changes appears in 1806 in John Williams's remarks on the alterations in the British climate "within the last fifty years," bringing increasing humidity and cloudiness, cold springs and "ungenial seasons." Electricity threatens to hasten the obsolescence of Georg Simon Winter's veterinary handbook called 'Hippiater expertus, seu medicina equorum absolutissima' (Nuremberg, 1678); but the human race can never (*pace* Brown-Séquard) be beyond the need of something like Johann Wittich's 'Consilium apoplecticum, seu de subitanea morte' (Leipzig, 1593). We wonder, in taking leave of the Catalogue for a space, what Tammany would make of the three columns which index the sanitary publications of Col. Waring, with two of the titles in Dutch and one in Spanish.

—Prof. George Stephens, who died last month in Copenhagen, at the ripe age of eighty-two, was by birth and early education an Englishman, although the greater and most useful part of his life was spent in Sweden and in Denmark, where he became a naturalized subject more than forty years ago. He was born in Liverpool in 1813. After preparing at various private and public schools, he was ultimately matriculated at University College, London. Upon attaining his majority he travelled on the Continent, and about 1834 settled in Sweden, where his first book, a students' edition of Shakspere's "Tempest," "written," as the title page states, "to assist in spreading the study of English in Sweden," was printed in 1836. He soon became enthusiastically interested in the archæology and early culture, not only of Sweden, but of the whole Scandinavian north. In the search for material, public and private libraries were ransacked, and folk-tales, legends, and songs were collected from oral tradition. Two important works arose in this way, both written in collaboration with Hyltén-Cavallius, a Swedish author of repute, viz.: 'Svenska Folk-Sagor och Aefventyr' (1844) and 'Sveriges historiska och politiska Visor' (1853). The latter was published after he had changed his residence to Denmark, where he became lector in the English language and literature at the Copenhagen University in 1851. The year after, Anglo-Saxon was added to his subjects of instruction; the title of professor was given him in 1855. His most important work, a monument of enthusiastic, if at times not strictly critical, labor, is the great folio in English, 'The Old-Northern Runic Inscriptions of Scandinavia and England,' published from 1866 to 1884. The plan of this work was a most ambitious one, since it aimed to include the entire *corpus* of the runic inscriptions of the north (scores of

which were represented for the first time in facsimile) on stones, coins, and other objects, together with complete readings and translations. The work as a whole, however, only partially fulfilled its purpose. The last mentioned phase of the subject, particularly, was approached with more ardor than critical acumen, and the book has not become authoritative in its field, although its illustrations still entitle it to a prominent place in the literature of runes. Stephens's other literary work is of the most varied character imaginable. There is a vast array of articles, reviews and translations in Scandinavian and English journals and magazines, verse, original and translated, several more ambitious poems, and even a five act melodrama, "Revenge, or Woman's Love," which contains numerous original songs. Of the many translations, perhaps the most important is a metrical version of Tegnér's 'Frithiof's Saga' (1839). Personally Prof. Stephens was one of the kindliest and most genial of men. With an aptitude rare in members of his guild, he knew how to come into friendly personal contact with his students; and the evenings which he was accustomed to give them at his house, amid the apparently inexhaustible treasures of his library, always drew together an interested group. His particular passion, although he dipped or delved, as the case might be, in so many other directions, was always the northern runes, and it was a familiar sight on the occasions mentioned to see him buttonhole an interlocutor with one hand, while he traced imaginary runes upon him with the other. He reaped a rich crop of honors. He was member and honorary member of many learned societies, and the recipient at various times of Swedish and Danish orders.

THE *CHALLENGER* EXPEDITION.—I.

Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of H. M. S. Challenger during the years 1872–76: A Summary of the Scientific Results. By John Murray, one of the Naturalists of the Expedition. In two parts, with Appendices. London. 1895.

THESE two volumes bring to a close a stupendous undertaking. From the time when the *Challenger* set out on her memorable voyage in 1872, and until the issue of the concluding volumes of the Report in the early part of 1895, nothing has been left undone to make the undertaking a success. The earlier dredging expeditions off Spitzbergen by Dr. Otto Torell, the work of Dr. Wallich in 1860, that of the elder and younger Sars off the coast of Norway, the cruise of the U. S. C. S. S. *Corwin* under Pourtalès in the Straits of Florida, as well as the earlier English expeditions of the *Lightning*, *Porcupine*, and *Shearwater*, all prepared the way for the successful work of the *Challenger*. The British Government, on the representation of the Royal Society and other scientific bodies, organized an expedition for the exploration of the deep waters of the great oceans. The *Challenger* was fitted out under the direction of Admiral G. H. Richards, the Hydrographer of the Admiralty Office of the time. The naval officers were specially selected for the cruise, and a great part of the success of the expedition is due to the spirit in which the commanders of the *Challenger*, Captains Nares and Thomson, coöperated with the scientific staff of the expedition. The Scientific Director was Prof. C. Wyville Thomson, who may be said to have been, with Dr. W. B. Carpenter, the originator of the earlier English expeditions. He was assisted by Mr. J. J. Buchanan, Prof. H. N. Moseley, John Murray, Dr. R. v. Willemoes-Suhm, and Mr. J. J. Wild. On the return of the *Challenger* to England in May, 1876, began the task of examining the collections, and of preparing for publication the results of the physical and biological observations. This work was placed in charge of Sir Wyville Thomson, with Mr. Murray as his principal assistant. Thomson's health soon broke down, and on his death Mr. Murray was appointed his successor. From 1882 to the present time, Murray has been employed in the superintendence of the publications in consultation with a committee of the Royal Society of London. At the time of Sir Wyville Thomson's death, only a few of the Zoölogical memoirs had been issued, so that 48 of the 50 quarto volumes which constitute this superb series have appeared under Dr. Murray's supervision.

The Zoölogical memoirs of course fill the greater number of the volumes (32 bound in 40 parts). There are in addition two volumes of Narrative, two volumes devoted to the Physics, Chemistry, and Meteorology of the Ocean, one volume dealing with the Geology and Petrography, two volumes of Botany, and finally the concluding volumes in two parts by Dr. Murray giving a Summary of the expedition. The writing of the results was an international episode of the deepest interest for scientific investigation. It was intrusted to the leading specialists in the different departments, and the authors of these numerous memoirs belonged to many nations. Naturally the English men of science are in the great majority, but we find among the writers Germans, Danes, Russians, Norwegians, Swedes, Italians, Belgians, French, Dutch, and Americans. "The majority of the authors of the special memoirs have spent years in the examination of the collections and in the preparation of their manuscripts and illustrations for the press, without other remuneration than either a copy of the *Challenger* publications or a small honorarium to cover the outlay necessitated by their research." Many of the monographs deal with groups of animals our knowledge of which has been greatly modified by the discoveries of the *Challenger*. If the new types found living upon the floor of the Ocean have not differed from their shallow-water congeners as much as was expected in some quarters, yet the discovery of the conditions under which the inhabitants of the great depths live has been of the utmost physiological interest.

It is interesting to note the development of the methods of studying the physical and biological conditions of the sea. Although the invention of the dredge dates back to the last century, it was not extensively used, nor at any considerable depth, until comparatively lately, sharing the same fate as the maximum and minimum thermometer of Cavendish, invented at an even earlier date. As late as the middle of the present century the organisms living near the surface of the sea had been but little studied. The scooping net of Johannes Müller has little by little developed into various ingenious contrivances for catching pelagic organisms at any depth from the surface downwards. The visits of single investigators to the seashore have been replaced by the establishment of permanent laboratories at favorable localities in both Europe and America and elsewhere. Finally, the greater problems of thalassography began to be attacked by national vessels acting within their own domain, these limited explorations resulting in the equipment of the *Challenger* expedition by Great Britain, an expedition as honorable to the nation organizing it as it has been creditable to the officers and scientific staff who carried it to a successful termination. Before 1860 there was no apparatus with which to investigate the depths of the sea. All has been devised since that time, and it would be difficult to recognize in the equipment of a modern deep-sea dredger the cumbersome machinery originally in use. Thermometers, sounding-machines, bottles for collecting water and gases, dredges, trawls, tangles, surface and deep-sea nets, traps, dredging-ropes, sounding-wires, and photographic apparatus, all had to be adapted and modified to give their answers to the many new questions suggested by each of the earlier deep-sea expeditions. With their experience, thalassographic work can now be carried on by a properly equipped vessel with ease, accuracy, rapidity, and at a comparatively moderate cost.

The specialist will naturally turn to the monographs of the branch which interests him to be found in the volumes preceding the Summary. We can only hope, in this short sketch of the results of the expedition, to give the general reader some idea of what has been accomplished by the *Challenger*, using the Summary of Dr. Murray, and often in his own words. The first part of his closing volumes opens with an account of the science of oceanography, and is followed by an historical sketch beginning with the views of the ancients, passing to those held during the dark ages, the middle ages, and the Renaissance, next to the progress of knowledge from Magellan to Cook and Cook to the *Challenger* and the subsequent expeditions. This interesting sketch is illustrated with a series of maps showing the growth of our knowledge of the distribution of the sea, and we may express the hope that it will eventually be published in a form more accessible to the general reader. The second part contains an alphabetical index, which serves as a list of all the species procured by the *Challenger*. It fills 110 quarto pages of names arranged in three columns. This is followed by a general index.

The eighty-third and last part of the Zoological series and a Report on Oceanic Circulation by Dr. Buchan complete the *Challenger* series of publications. The Zoölogical memoir is by Dr. Pelsener; it treats of Spirula, and is illustrated by plates in greater part from drawings by Huxley, in whose hands the specimens collected by the *Challenger* and *Blake* had been placed. He, however, was unable to go on with the work, and it was then taken up by Dr. Pelsener. The memoir on Oceanic Circulation is a most important contribution to our knowledge of the distribution of temperature in the ocean at different depths. The temperature is shown at depths of 10, 15, 20, 25, to 200 fathoms, to ascertain approximately the depth at which the influence of the season is no longer felt in the open ocean. This depth was provisionally fixed at 100 fathoms. Dr. Buchan's memoir is accompanied by charts of the world, showing the specific gravity of the ocean at the surface and bottom and the mean distribution of temperature at depths of 100, 200, to 1,000, 1,500, and 2,200 fathoms, together with a chart showing the bottom temperatures of the ocean from 1,000 fathoms downwards. "The most striking fact revealed by deep-sea observations of temperatures is the very low temperature of the ocean at great depths in all latitudes, this being but a little way above the freezing-point of fresh water. The average of all the observations at a depth of 2,200 fathoms is 35.2°."

Perhaps the most useful summary of the work of the *Challenger* is that given by Murray of the observations carried out, and of the scientific results obtained, at each station occupied at sea. This gives us faunal lists, as it were, both bathymetrical and geographical, together with the observations made by the *Challenger* relating to the physical conditions of the locality examined. Such information could naturally not be obtained without great labor and without a most careful analysis of the memoirs forming the *Challenger* publications, and of the information contained in the log-book, in the writer's own notes and in those of his colleagues. Accompanying the station summaries are found the temperature diagrams, the detailed charts showing the positions of the *Challenger* stations prepared by Staff Commander Tizard. No less than 354 stations are thus summarized, the lists filling 1,200 pages of the quarto report. The faunal lists are supplemented by strictly bathymetrical lists, in which the species have been grouped together in seven zones of depth—the zone from the shore to 100 fathoms, the zone between 100 and 500 fathoms, that from 500 to 1,000, and so on every 500 fathoms to 2,500, and one zone beyond that depth; the 100-fathom line in reality representing the mud line, as Murray calls it, the usual limit of the extension of terrigenous deposits. The list of animals taken in each bathymetrical zone is further analyzed to show what proportion has been found in the other zones, and how far geographical range, especially north and south of the equator, has affected the bathymetrical range.

The number of stations occupied by the *Challenger* beyond the 2,500-fathom line is only twenty-five, and over 2,000 thirty; the deepest haul was made in 3,125 fathoms about 1,000 miles from the Sandwich Islands on the way from Yokohama to Honolulu. At that depth three species of annelids, four of polyzoa, and a tunicate were collected. Although the dredging tracks of the *Challenger* and of other deep-sea expeditions have covered very limited areas, yet they prove that animal life is distributed all over the floor of the ocean. Still, it is also apparent, both from the number of specimens of species and of genera found beyond the 1,000-fathom line, that animal life rapidly decreases in abundance as we go to the extreme depths of the ocean and at a great distance from continental and insular slopes. The table of bathymetrical distribution of bottom-inhabiting species given by Murray on p. 1430 is most interesting in this respect.

Murray calls attention to the greater number of genera as well as species in proportion to the number of specimens as one of the marked peculiarities of the hauls in very deep water, while in depths of less than 500 fathoms immense numbers of individuals, all belonging to the same species, may be captured in a single haul, in spite of the fact that in shallower waters the total number of genera and species inhabiting their whole areas is much greater than in deeper waters. This must depend to a certain extent on the character of the bottom, for it does not seem to hold good invariably in the deep waters of either the Panamic or West Indian areas. Within the 100-fathom line, in the shallower reaches of the ocean, a great variety of conditions exist on the floor of the shore plateaus, and on those bottoms is usually found a very different assemblage of animals. With increasing depth the nature of the deposits as well as other physical conditions become more and more uniform until a depth is reached on the continental slopes, facing the oceans immediately below, in which the conditions become nearly uniform in all parts of the world, and where the fauna likewise presents a great uniformity. Murray has placed this depth at 100 fathoms. Undoubtedly the 100-fathom line is an important limit of depth and indicates usually the edge of the oceanic continental slope. Yet it seems to us as if the more limited deep-sea explorations of the *Blake* and the *Albatross* along continental slopes indicated that in many localities there was considerable variety in the nature of the bottom, as, for instance, in volcanic and coral-reef districts and off rocky shores, where faunal conditions of very great variety extend to depths considerably beyond the mud line and approach very near the 500-fathom line. We should be inclined to extend the limit of uniformity into greater depths than 100 fathoms along the oceanic continental slopes—certainly to 150, and often to more than 300 fathoms.

While we fully agree with Murray in considering the fauna living near the 100 fathom line as probably that from which the deep-sea faunæ were derived, it seems somewhat hazardous, in our present state of knowledge, to affirm as emphatically as he does that the majority of the animals living within the 100-fathom line have pelagic larvæ, while the majority of those living at the mud line have a direct development like those found in very deep water. The interesting tables (i , p. 1430) of the bathymetrical range of the species collected by the *Challenger* present in a vivid manner the quantitative migration of the deep-water fauna which has taken place within the 100-fathom line to the other bathymetrical zones. The downward migration appears clearly indicated by the fact that of those species which are found in other zones, as well as in the one under consideration, a larger number is found in the shallower zone above than in the deeper zone below.

We should remember that the observations on which Murray bases his conclusions, although extending to all the great oceans, are yet limited to a mere thread of dredging lines across the abyssal waters of the Atlantic, Pacific, and Southern Oceans. Consequently, we may expect Murray's views on the distribution of marine organisms to be modified by explorations in more limited fields. It would be a most interesting and important addition to the work of the *Challenger* to have the material collected by the *Blake* and *Albatross* during a series of years on the two sides of the North American continent submitted to such a searching analysis as that made by Dr. Murray for the *Challenger* collections.

OMAN'S ENGLAND.

A History of England. By Charles Oman, Fellow of All Souls' College, Oxford, etc. London: Edward Arnold. Pp. iv, 760.

THIS book, its well-known author tells us, has been prepared as a result of ten years' teaching in the Honor School of Modern History at Oxford. Its special aim is to give all periods of English history a more accurately apportioned space than they get in many of the short histories already published. The task cannot be called well executed; it is, of course, not easy, but, after Dr. Johnson, one is tempted to wish it were impossible. University examinations, while they extend and encourage study, are rapidly operating to limit and discourage knowledge, by multiplying just such compends, which, even when conscientiously and intelligently written, simply supply the examined with what will be their maximum, even if it be put forward by examiners as a minimum. It is a sad prospect if in future the history of England, and many other subjects, shall be got up by almost everybody in one-volume manuals, studied from the original documents by a few specialists, and read in real books by—nobody.

Mr. Oman has tried to give his book more freshness and spirit than such compends generally have. His views are as independent as will be safe for a lecturer in just this age. Henry VIII. is a villain without redemption, though Mr. Oman admits that he thoroughly understood his people; on the other hand, Cromwell is pronounced never to have had the assent of a majority of his countrymen to his peculiar opinions. This merely shows the present state of reaction at Oxford from the Carlylism which swept over England forty years ago. Mr. Oman's one hero is Lord Palmerston, "by far the most striking personage in the middle years of the century," though he did as much in his way to coarsen English political ethics as Walpole himself, considering the difference of their times.

By far the greater space is still given to war and politics; religious, literary, social, and industrial history being admitted in rather a perfunctory way. But it requires a genius to do otherwise. The accounts of battles are helped by small sketch-plans, selected on no very definite principle, which do much to elucidate some very obscure fights—notably Poitiers. The style is generally good, sensible English; but the early periods are treated in a strange semi-romantic, semi-archaic style (like the "Lady of the Lake" without the metre), which, drawing as it does from the vocabulary of all ages, is not the pure prose of any one. Some of these fantasticalities are used throughout; for instance, "governance" is employed to describe the rule of kings and statesmen who never heard it out of the Book of Common Prayer. Such blemishes would do little harm if the book were otherwise satisfactory; but, in point of fact, it is full of omissions, blunders, and careless writing, fatal to a treatise which is nothing if not rigidly accurate. The author's position and reputation are likely to give it a wide circulation, and justify our devoting more space to it than books of its class are generally entitled to.

To begin with the omissions, nothing is said about the systematic and continuous endowment of colleges and grammar-schools under the Tudors; Wolsey's College is just mentioned, and "schools" as one of Henry's promises only. The bishopric of Westminster is mentioned as founded; its almost immediate abolition is left out (p. 303). Elizabeth's marriage schemes are dismissed in two lines, without naming either *Monsieur* or Stubbs. The shutting up of the exchequer by the Cabal does not appear. The Jacobite attempt at invasion of 1708 is unmentioned, and so are all the royal vetoes, of the last of which that attempt was the cause. In our Revolutionary war certain battles are selected for allusion; but no direct mention is made of White Plains, Trenton, Princeton, Germantown, Bennington, Monmouth, Cowpens, King's Mountain, or Eutaw; no American general is named but Washington, Gates, and Lafayette, nor is André alluded to. In the war of 1812, no captures but those of the three frigates are mentioned. The bed-chamber quarrel of 1839 finds no place in the history of the Whig and Tory ministries.

If some of these omissions do not seem serious, what shall we say of absolute blunders?

Beginning with misspellings like Huntington (p. 77), Carnwarth for Carnwath twice, Pensylvania and Charlestown for Charleston (map, p. 520), we go on to the following: Shakespeare was born in 1564, not 1566 (p. 343); New Amsterdam was settled in 1623, not 1632 (p. 409); Charles II. did not die of smallpox (p. 435); Locke was removed from his studentship by Charles II., not by James II. (p. 440); William's Assembly of Notables is confounded with the Convention Parliament (p. 446); Anne died August 1, not 30 (p. 480); Viscount Kenmure was not Earl of Kenmuir (p. 489); Fontenoy was fought in May, not in June (p. 504). On the change of style we are told (p. 513) that Julius Cæsar made the Roman year a little too short! Washington's force was not made prisoners at Great Meadows (p. 521); Byng was not tried till after Newcastle resigned (p. 524); it was not Gage who evacuated Boston in March, 1776 (p. 547); Ross did not land in Virginia, but in Maryland (p. 627); the Princess Charlotte was married in 1816, and died in 1817, not as given on p. 639; the Treaty of 1842 did not settle our Northwest boundary (p. 665).

All but the worst of these blunders, however, are less teasing than a number of careless expressions which will inevitably mislead as they stand, though not absolutely false if looked at round the corner, as it were. Thus, King Offa (757-796) is said to have had for his friend and ally Charles the Great, Emperor of the West, who was not Emperor till 800. On page 292 we are told that Wolsey was dismissed from the office of Chancellor, and his place given to the Duke of Norfolk. But the chancellorship was given to Sir Thomas More, and Norfolk succeeded to Wolsey only as general adviser. Woburn Abbey is put among the monasteries at the *North* (p. 301). Warwick, it is said, took the forfeited title of Duke of Northumberland (p. 312). He took this title, but it was only an earldom that had been forfeited. "Norfolk and Suffolk, the most Protestant shires of England" (p. 314); is it possible that Mr. Oman does not know that the counties formed in Bernicia, East Anglia, Essex, Kent, and Sussex, are not shires at all, and never were? He speaks of the Northwest Passage (p. 334) as a water-way *falsely* said to exist round the northern shores of America; but every mile of water in the passage round North America has been traversed by some craft at some time, though no one has done it continuously. On page 402 the venerable English "Commonwealth" should not be called a "Republic." Vane was not indicted as a regicide in the same category with Harrison (p. 421). The charge against the bishops was pressed in any but a "half-hearted way" (p. 441). Marlborough is called "John Churchill," and his wife "Lady Churchill," up to the creation of his Dukedom, but he was made Earl of Marlborough fourteen years before. So, in our own century, no mention is made of Lord John Russell's elevation to an earldom, though there is of Disraeli's. To call the King "Earl" of Cornwall instead of "Duke" is almost disingenuous (p. 485). Carteret's favorite drink was Burgundy, not Port (p. 503)! On the map of the thirteen colonies, the northeastern boundary is sedulously given according to the British claim, and Concord is obviously in New Hampshire (p. 520). The original accounts of the Black Hole outrage do not appear to speak of women in the plural (p. 523). Pitt's ministry and his peerage were gazetted the same day; which is not at all the sense of the account on page 542. To say Lord North's ministry "enlisted Hessian auxiliaries" (p. 547) is a strange phraseology; and it is hardly less so to speak of him as craving office at any price (p. 557). Arkwright is spoken of as if he invented all spinning-machines and those for weaving as well (p. 562). The Berlin decree and the Milan decree are confused as the "Berlin decrees" (p. 611). The efforts of Romilly and Mackintosh for the reform of the criminal law, before Peel took it up, are ignored (p. 642).

Lastly, in the attempt to be rigidly impartial as to our civil war, occurs this noble sentence (the italics are ours): "On the other side it was urged that the Southern States were exercising an *undoubted* constitutional right in severing themselves from the Union; *and this was true enough in itself.*"

A Literary History of the English People from the Origins to the Renaissance. By J. J. Jusserand. Putnams.

"In nearly every respect, thus, the Englishman of to day is formed, and receives his chief features, under the Angevin princes Edward III. and Richard II. We have had a glimpse of what he is; let us now listen to what he says." These sentences may be called the turning-point of M. Jusserand's 'History.' They close a chapter in the middle of the volume, and the next chapter takes up Chaucer as the poet of "the new nation." Our readers will readily infer the author's plan and method. In the first half of his book he seeks to define the mental and moral traits of Celt, Teuton, and Norman, to show how these races coalesced in forming a "new nation," and to describe the literature—Anglo-Saxon, French, Latin, English—produced during the coalescing periods. Thus he establishes, so to speak, the English people as we know it in Chaucer. In the second half he proceeds to bring the literary history of that people down to "the end of the Middle Ages." Throughout, the point of view is more or less ethnological. The works discussed interest the author by virtue of exemplifying the Germanic spirit, or the Celtic, or the French, or the spirit of the combined "new nation"; at all events, it is in this respect that he wishes to make them interesting to his readers. There is, to be sure, nothing new in these considerations themselves. The novelty consists in the author's submitting to their almost exclusive control in writing his 'History.' They determine the manner and have no small effect on the matter.

So far as this method serves to emphasize the composite nature of English literature, it is a good method, particularly as a corrective of the exaggerated Teutonism that has prevailed of late. But it has its disadvantages. Its exclusiveness is one: race is an important element in literature, but race is not everything. Another objection is that it tempts to a neglect of chronology: what are a few years more or less in the biography of the Anglo-Saxon spirit? M. Jusserand, at any rate, has yielded to this temptation, and some of his best chapters are embroiled thereby. Another habit of his increases the confusion. He likes to present his subject pictorially, but he does not compose his pictures well; he crowds his canvas with details till the eye is bewildered. Of course, in the case of an antiquary at once so learned and so lively, the anecdotes and extracts and the jottings of manners and customs are almost always pertinent and diverting, but the confusion remains. He seems to be not quite able to grasp his subject as a whole.

Moreover, the ethnology of the volume is not entirely sound in itself. For some reason the author appears to be bent on effacing the Scandinavians. He finds no differences worth particularizing between Old Norse poetry and Anglo-Saxon poetry—why, we cannot conceive. He has little to say of the profound changes in language and national character wrought by the "Danish" settlements in England. Finally, instead of essaying the delicate but indispensable task of distinguishing as clearly as may be between Normans and Frenchmen, he is actually at some pains to obliterate the boundary line, so that his work, though differing from its predecessors in many respects, is at one with them in its failure to give an orderly account of the influence of France upon our literature and our language. How far his worship of "the Gallic spirit"—the deity of so many of his countrymen—is to blame for this lapse we shall not undertake to decide.

As a critic M. Jusserand is superficial. He says many clever things—some new things; but he is content to illuminate the surface of his subject, and his light is rather glittering than brilliant. All his critical qualities may be seen in the chapter on Chaucer or in that on Langland. Both are readable to the last degree, but neither of them deepens knowledge. Of Chaucer's humor M. Jusserand has a keen appreciation. His views on Langland are of course the same which he set forth in the able but untrustworthy monograph reviewed in these columns some time ago. In one particular M. Jusserand has an advantage over all previous writers of English literary history: we refer to his intimate acquaintance with the social life of our mediæval ancestors. Whatever he says on this subject may be read with instruction, and it will not seldom correct the erroneous judgments of profounder critics. His unusual knowledge of mediæval English politics also stands him in good stead, enabling him to present to his readers, in their appropriate places, a number of significant facts of a kind seldom seen in works of this character. As a philologist, in the narrower sense of the term, M. Jusserand is not strong. His scanty account of the formation of a literary language in England is evidence enough of his deficiencies in this direction.

It remains to inquire into the adequacy of this volume in the details of literary history proper, or, in other words, to inquire whether the requisite facts about books and authors are given with accuracy and due fulness. The outcome of such an inquiry will be, on the whole, favorable. M. Jusserand is much better equipped in these respects than most of his competitors, and his book may usually be consulted with confidence. There are a number of rather serious omissions—some of them, strange to say, in the department of French literature—but the information furnished is generally correct. The foot-notes contain a good selection of references and commonly call attention to the best editions. In short, M. Jusserand has a pretty good acquaintance with the results of modern scholarship, his work presenting in this respect a marked contrast to the first volume of Mr Courthope's 'History of English Poetry,' recently issued. Though complete in itself, the volume before us is to be one of three, if, as is to be hoped, the author is able to carry out his plan. The second volume will bring the history down to Pope, and the third will continue it to our own day.

Æsthetic Principles. By Henry Rutgers Marshall, M.A. Macmillan. 1895. 12mo, pp. x 198.

This is a charmingly pretty volume. The text

is briefly and clearly written, and gives the results, and something more, of the investigations which the author has already published in more technical form, and which we reviewed a year ago. It has, therefore, every claim on the attention of those interested in the science of beauty, if we can speak of the science of so elusive a thing. Beauty would perhaps have been less elusive if the æstheticians had agreed better as to just what they were pursuing under that name. For the word may be used very broadly as covering the whole subject-matter of actual art, or very narrowly as implying a rare and exalted absolute quality which only the noblest and most archetypal works possess. In the latter case the quest is apt to resolve itself into that of a mere definition of an objective group of attributes, as smoothness, freedom, simplicity; in the former case the quest is psychological, and the theorist has to explain the grounds of "taste" in men and the reason of its fluctuations. What is accounted "beautiful" here becomes only one species of what may be pleasing and agreeably interesting. Mr. Marshall takes his subject in this broader way. Æsthetics is the science of what gives pleasure, whether by beauty in the narrow sense, or by mere novelty, vividness, or richness of suggestion. There can be no question of the superior importance of Mr. Marshall's point of view, or of the catholicity of his formulas. A history of art might be written *explaining* the changes of taste from age to age (and not quarrelling about them) better under cover of Mr. Marshall's theory than within the lines of any other with which we are acquainted.

And yet, when stated abstractly, this theory, like all æsthetic theories, sounds so *skinny* in comparison with the richness of the phenomena it includes that one wonders how principles so trivial should account for results so significant and precious. The field of æsthetic objects is for our author that of objects whose pleasantness remains permanent even to after-reflection. This excludes such sensual pleasures as are fleeting or give a negative after-image in retrospect. The more abundantly such permanently pleasant elements enter into a work, the richer it is; and the freer it is from unpleasant features, the purer it is æsthetically; so that the mere negative "elimination of the ugly" is one of the essential labors of the artist. Mr. Marshall's theory of pleasure and pain, including, as it does, an explanation of pains of restriction and pleasures of release, enables him to philosophize concerning the elimination of the displeasing more successfully than others have done. He goes into it with much detail in a special chapter of the book. "Imitation of nature," for example, and "truth" are often regarded as positive laws in art. Mr. Marshall well points out that they are mere negative precepts for avoiding the shocks which too suddenly violated mental habits bring. The true form of such laws rather is: "Avoid radical departures from the course of nature," "Avoid untruth"; this puts realism in its proper place in art. The principles of art criticism that follow from Mr. Marshall's æsthetic theory seem to us admirably wise and liberal. They are, moreover, very modestly stated by the author, whose book, we repeat, has an importance much greater than its bulk.

Des Effets des Annexions de Territoires sur les Dettes de l'État démembré ou annexé. Par Henri Appleton, avocat à la cour d'appel de Lyon. Paris: L. Larose. 1895.

THE author of this work has undertaken to examine a subject which has been little discussed by writers on international law, perhaps for the reason that it is one on which it is difficult to lay down precise and definitive rules. This difficulty the author has not, perhaps, fully appreciated. Treating a public debt as in some sense a lien on the whole of the debtor state, he contends that, in case a state is annexed or dismembered, the annexed state, or the detached portion of the dismembered state, should be required to bear the burden of all, or of a proportionate share, as the case may be, of the prior debt. It is evident that this is a question the equities of which, whether with regard to the state or states concerned or to the creditors, must depend largely upon circumstances. In regard to purely municipal or local debts, which the author cites to support his contention, there does not seem to be any difficulty. They are not affected by the shifting of the national sovereignty; they are in their nature local obligations. But when we come to deal with national debts, which rest upon the public faith and can scarcely be treated as liens, various complicating questions arise.

Mr. Appleton refers to the case of Texas (which became a State of the American Union not in 1843, as the text inadvertently says, but in 1845) as a State which preserved and continued to be bound by its debt, though, as is pointed out, there were subsequently certain transactions, not explicitly affecting the principle involved, by which the commonwealth was relieved of the burden. The case of Texas, however, also serves to suggest the fact that the question whether an annexed State shall continue separately to be bound by its public debt must to a great extent depend upon the political effect of the annexation. When Texas became a State of the American Union, it preserved to the same extent as the other States of the Union its political identity, with power to contract debts and to levy and collect all taxes not forbidden by the Federal Constitution. If it had become a mere administrative department, or had been divided up into several administrative departments, of a centralized national government, a different disposition of its debt might have been required. Nor would such a disposition necessarily have been injurious to the rights of the creditors or to the interests of any of the parties concerned.

But while Mr. Appleton has not given so prominent a place as it may often be necessary to give to the political effect of a change of national sovereignty, growing out of the constitutions of different states, or to the element of circumstances as affecting the equities of particular cases, his essay forms an interesting contribution to his subject.

Nuove Lettere Inedite del Conte Camillo di Cavour. Con prefazione e note di Edmondo Mayor. Turin: Roux.

IT is evident that the correspondence of only three European statesmen in our century is now recognized as sufficiently important to warrant its publication in full. These three are Napoleon, Bismarck, and Cavour. To Italy, Cavour's letters have a far greater value than Napoleon's have for France or Bismarck's for Germany, because they set forth certain political principles by which Italians can still govern themselves, if they will, whereas the principles of both Napoleon and Bismarck apply only to autocrats like themselves in their particular crises. Of Cavour's letters there have already been printed six volumes by Chiala and one volume each by Bianchi, Bert, and Nigra. Signor Mayor has recently added another volume, comprising more than five hundred letters, written between 1853-'58. Although this period is not so exciting as the years 1859-'61, in which the fruits of Cavour's genius ripened, it is still very important, and the present collection supplements the letters previously edited on such matters as the Crimean war and the Congress of Paris. It is especially rich in letters to Villamarina, who served during these years as Piedmontese ambassador in Paris, holding the most responsible diplomatic position of all at that time, because the ambassador was the medium through which Cavour was cunningly feeling his way to secure Napoleon III.'s succor for Italy.

For many readers, however, the letters referring to Mazzini's attempted capture of the city of Genoa, on the evening of June 30, 1857, will possess the greatest interest. Cavour, who believed that Mazzini abetted political assassination, finds no words too strong to express his abomination of him. "Infamous conspirator," "furious madman," "demon," "chief of a horde of ferocious and fanatical assassins," are some of the epithets which Cavour uses; but he does not underrate Mazzini's ability to concoct plots. He is angry at the inability of the Italian police to arrest the great conspirator, and sends to Paris for a detective who promises better, though Mazzini had passed through France ten times without letting the French police suspect his presence. One of the persons implicated in this Genoese outbreak was Miss Jessie White, referred to as "Miss ***," who subsequently married Alberto Mario, Garibaldi's lieutenant. That the British Minister, Sir James Hudson, refused to interfere in her behalf illustrates the ascendency Cavour had over him; because, although Miss White was doubtless concerned in the plot, no legal proofs could be brought against her.

More than a word of commendation should be given to the excellent notes and indices with which Signor Mayor has supplied the work.

Madagascar of To-day. By the Rev. W. E. Cousins. F. H. Revell Co.

THE present war in Madagascar has naturally called into existence a number of works, most of them in French, about the country. The little volume before us is of this sort, and it can be highly recommended to any one who wishes to get a few simple facts about the great African island, its nature and inhabitants, its history, and especially the story of the growth of Christianity within its borders. The author is a missionary of many years' standing, obviously familiar with his subject. He writes in a calm, sensible way, and in particular his judgment of political and religious conditions is surprisingly fair. The feeling between English Protestant and French Catholic missionaries is apt to be hostile enough, as has been seen in many instances. In Madagascar this has been markedly the case; hence one can well understand the intense disappointment of many religious people in England now that the land where her Protestant shepherds have been most successful is passing into the hands of France. When we opened Mr. Cousins's book, we expected a diatribe almost as a matter of course, and were agreeably disappointed to find that although he has regrets as well as natural fears for the future, he admits that the island would prosper more under foreign than under native rule, and states frankly that the Catholic missionaries have also done noble work for its inhabitants.

The lay reader will probably think that some of the pages the author devotes to the growth of the Christian faith might have been profitably spared for a few more statistics, remarks about the climate, the character of the natives, etc., but we should remember that the conversion of the sovereign as well as of an important percentage of her subjects is almost unique in the annals of modern Christianity. It is also one great reason of the peculiar interest which the country and its people inspire. Of course 'Madagascar of To day' gives us few details about this or any other topic, but it is completely successful in its purpose to set forth in brief the main facts as to the country and its people and history, and so enable the reader to form a sound opinion as to the present situation, and to read with intelligence the news that reaches us from month to month.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashmore, Ruth. Side Talks with Girls. Scribners. $1.
Bagehot, Walter. Literary Studies. 3 vols. Biographical Studies. Economic Studies. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. Each vol. $1.
Campbell, Gerald. The Joneses and the Asterisks: A Story in Monologue. London: John Lane: New York: Merriam Co. $1.25.
Dawe, W. C. Yellow and White. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Ellis, E. S. The Youth's Classical Dictionary. Woolfall Co. 50 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1895.

The Week.

THE Democratic politicians in Washington are reported as elated, and the Republicans as depressed, by the tone of the speeches delivered on Tuesday week, when the Republican campaign in Ohio was opened. Sherman, McKinley, Foraker, Bushnell, and all the other speakers made the tariff the chief issue, with the promise that the question should be reopened and a general revision made if the Republicans carried the national election next year. The Democratic managers in Ohio are credited with the purpose of printing verbatim reports of the Republican speeches and spreading them broadcast among the business men and in the industrial centres of the State as the best sort of campaign documents, so confident are they that the people will rebuke any party that proposes another general agitation of the tariff question just as commercial interests are adjusting themselves successfully to the existing law. The Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* reports that it is felt by many conservative Republicans there that, if the campaign in Ohio is waged this fall upon the tariff issue only, as seems to be indicated by the speeches at Springfield, not only will Gov. Campbell wipe out the enormous Republican majority of last year, but "the Legislature will certainly have a majority in favor of Senator Brice's reëlection." But what else can the Ohio Republicans do than threaten to overhaul the tariff and restore McKinleyism when they make McKinley their "favorite son"?

The free-coinage men, like the high-tariff men, recognize the disastrous effect upon their cause of the return of national prosperity. Congressman Newlands of Nevada, chairman of the executive committee of the National Silver party, frankly confessed on Sunday that, "if business continues to improve, and it turns out that the improvement is permanent, the silver issue is dead." The reason is that, "when the people are occupied with profitable business affairs, they have neither the time nor the inclination to discuss money questions." Moreover, Mr. Newlands sees but faint reason for doubting that the present prosperity will prove lasting. He is consequently forced to the unwilling conclusion that silver has ceased to be an issue.

We know now why Quigg has resigned his seat in Congress. He has greater work on hand as editor of the *Press*. He is going to take this terrible prosperity under a free-trade tariff sharply in hand and stop it at once. As Congressman he did his best, according to contract, to "smash" the Wilson tariff; as editor he is going to smash the higher wages and the better business which have attended that tariff. As a first step he has sent out personal letters to manufacturers whose names have appeared in nefarious articles in the Democratic press in connection with "alleged" increase in wages. Quigg tells them that "it will be a great favor to *me*," and a "service to all your countrymen," if, in some way, wages can be shown not to have increased, business to be not so good, and the country not "on the high road to unexampled prosperity." One of the firms to whom this plaintive appeal was sent has remailed it to us, with the pious wish that we would commiserate Quigg in his "desperate struggle to prove that the present prosperity is an iridescent dream." But this is doing injustice to one of our greatest thinkers. When he took charge of the *Press*, he announced that nothing but pure thought should emanate from him—thought which would be a blessing to the country. By thinking hard enough, he has no doubt whatever that he can keep wages down and diminish the volume of business by one-half.

The declaration of Senator Mills of Texas against the free coinage of silver is significant, particularly because it adds another to the list of Democratic leaders who are openly fighting against the silver delusion, and moreover a Democrat from that part of the country in which the silver heresy has had the largest following. The courage displayed by one Democratic leader after another in confessing that study of the question has convinced him of previous error, is in striking contrast with the silence of Republican leaders and Republican gatherings on this question. There was a great opportunity for the Republicans of Ohio to place themselves on record on this subject last week on the occasion which brought together their most prominent men at Springfield. McKinley, who in 1891 denounced President Cleveland as having, during his first administration, "dishonored one of our precious metals, one of our own great products, discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold," might have set himself right before his State, but even Senator Sherman had nothing positive to say on the subject. Senator Mills presents very clearly the evils to the country at large which would follow the free coinage of silver and the adoption of the silver standard. It would be, perhaps, too much to expect that a Senator who from his seat last February advised the Secretary of the Treasury to solve his difficulties, not by issuing bonds to restore the gold-redemption fund, but by tendering silver dollars in payment of the Government's paper obligations, should understand in the following September that the retirement of greenbacks would be the true way out of our monetary embarrassment.

It is announced by Platt's friends that his victory in the primary elections of this city and Brooklyn, giving him overwhelming control of the late Republican State convention, thereby assures him control of the delegation from New York to the national Republican convention of next year. It is further announced by his friends that Platt will thus be able to use the New York delegation against Harrison and McKinley and in favor of Reed or some other candidate of his choice. It is still further announced from the same and other quarters that Quay and Platt have formed a combination to defeat the nomination of Harrison by the national convention, and to bring about the nomination of some candidate of their choice. Of their ability to do this they seem to have no doubt. Quay, following his invariable custom, makes no boasts and talks very little, but Platt, being a much less astute person, becomes hilarious over his victory in the primaries, speaks of himself as *vox populi, vox dei*, and makes little concealment of his belief that he and Quay have the next Republican candidacy for the Presidency firmly in their grasp.

Now the great obstacle in the way of Quay and Platt is their own reputations. Everybody knows what they are after in politics. Everybody knows that they are against Harrison because he did not give them all they asked when he was President. Quay claimed that Harrison owed his election entirely to him and to the way in which he, as chairman of the national committee, had conducted the campaign. He accordingly demanded as his reward the practical control of the federal patronage. Harrison not only refused this demand, but declined to have any but the most distant personal relations with Quay, on the ground that he could not, as an avowedly religious man, hold friendly intercourse with so avowedly wicked a man as Quay. Platt's grievance is of the same order. He demanded as a reward for his services not merely the distribution of all federal patronage for New York, but the secretaryship of the Treasury for himself. Harrison gave him the patronage, but refused the secretaryship, and on that ground Platt has been fighting him for four years or more.

Everybody must approve of the movement now to be undertaken by the Grand Army of the Republic to get the Supreme Court of the United States to decide that

a pension is a "vested right." The Commander-in-Chief favors bringing a suit at once to see if such a decision cannot be had, and he further shows his astuteness by suggesting ex-President Harrison as the very counsel to argue the case. If it could be brought up just before the next Republican convention, there would be no doubt of an eloquent time. We fear, however, that the McKinley and Reed judges would combine to prevent the case from being advanced. But whoever brings the suit, the great thing is to get a pension declared a vested right. There has been far too much cancelling of pensions fraudulently obtained, too many arbitrary reductions to make payments correspond with fussy laws, and what we want is some broad and high-sounding legal principle to stop all this. It should be broad enough, too, to make grand juries give over their offensive practice of indicting people for pension frauds. A Supreme Court decision that a pension is a vested right would have been an incalculable boon to those hundred-odd unfortunates in Oklahoma whom an ignorant grand jury has just indicted for being a little careless about the way they went to work to get pensions. If a man is denied a vested right, he cannot be expected to observe every petty technicality of the law in fighting to secure it. By all means let the Supreme Court hasten to round out our beautiful pension system by deciding that a pensioner's pension is his castle.

The present Governor of Mississippi is nearing the end of the longest single term ever filled by an executive in this country. His State is one which fell early into the practice of choosing a Governor for as long a period as a President, and the present incumbent was elected in 1889 to serve four years. In 1890 came the convention to revise the Constitution, and this body provided that the Governor and other State officials should have their terms, which would normally end at the close of 1893, extended through two years more, so that they would hold office continuously for six years. Moreover, the convention assumed the right to declare the new Constitution, including this provision, in force without submitting it to the people, so that the extra two years constituted a gift of power that never was endorsed at the polls. The convention that framed a new constitution for New York last year provided that the minor State officials and Senators to be elected this fall should hold office for three years, instead of two, so as to make the future elections of all State officials and Senators come in the even-numbered years; but this provision was submitted to the people, and, so far as the records show, there has never been any precedent for the action taken by the Mississippi convention.

Judge Gaynor's remarkable decision of a few months ago, to the effect that, under the Brush act of the last Legislature, all applicants for positions in the State service for which the remuneration does not exceed four dollars a day are exempt from competitive examinations, has been reversed by the General Term of the Supreme Court, second department. A war veteran had applied to the Civil-Service Commission for a non-competitive examination for a position in the service. When the Commission refused to give it to him, he applied to Judge Gaynor for a mandamus to compel the Commission to examine him. The Judge granted it, taking the ground that, if the Brush act applied to veterans only, and not to civilians, the discrimination so granted would be unconstitutional, but that the language, "competitive examinations shall not be deemed practicable or necessary in cases where the compensation or other emolument of the office does not exceed four dollars per day" applied to all candidates for such offices, and that therefore the Commission must examine the appellant non-competitively. If this view of the law were to stand, the result would be that 86 per cent. of the service in Brooklyn, 65 per cent. of that in New York State, and 87 per cent. of that in New York city would be taken from the competitive system, and all applicants for positions affected would be examined singly and non-competitively. It would, in effect, annul the civil-service act, as the positions of the higher sort not included within its scope are filled mainly by promotion from the lower. In reversing Judge Gaynor, the General Term holds that veterans must take competitive examinations, but, once having passed, they must have the preference. All the Judges concur in declaring the Brush act to be unconstitutional.

It would be cause for general congratulation if the outcome of the international yacht races could be accepted as a huge joke. Surely, when all the preparations which were in progress in two countries for many months are considered, the net result is ludicrous enough. We have succeeded in "keeping the cup" under conditions which are satisfactory to nobody. Not a single race has been sailed which anybody considers to have been a final test of the merits of the competing yachts. The American boat won one race, which was a fair test of sailing qualities in a light wind. The English boat won another, which was subsequently awarded to the American boat because by a most unfortunate mischance the latter was crippled at the start by her competitor in a foul which everybody admits was accidental. The third race was won by the American boat because the English boat declined to sail, owing to the crowded condition of the course. This was a real grievance for both contestants, but it must be remembered that Lord Dunraven was prepared for it by previous experience, and should have stipulated in advance for a change of course. An English newspaper that is seldom heard of outside of London thinks that Americans look upon the cup as an asset or a fetish, and are determined to keep it by fair means or foul. It is needless to say that no such view is taken by anybody here. The America's cup yields no income, nor is it an object of worship. Americans do not consider it worth having unless it is earned, and they deplore the chapter of accidents which frustrated the race this year as much as anybody can.

But that the yacht race dwarfed all other topics, our Jingo press would have had more to say on the case of Florencio Bustamente. Bustamente was a citizen of Salvador, and was not free from the revolutionary propensities of his fellow-citizens. His side, however, was not the winning one, and he was compelled to flee. After giving occasion for the display of considerable international law by escaping on the American steamer *Bennington*, Bustamente took refuge in Mexico, and, after some sojourn there, ventured within the jurisdiction of Salvador on the American steamer *City of Sydney*. The Salvadorean authorities, not having the fear of the American press before them, came on board the *Sydney* and dragged Bustamente forth. The case appears to be the same as that of Barrundia, in which Secretary Tracy so distinguished himself, except that in the present instance there is no naval officer to be disciplined. As the *Tribune* observes, when the particulars are more fully known similar discussions and excitement will probably take place. There will be this difference, however, that the Department of State is now conducted according to legitimate standards of international law and diplomacy, and no United States officer will be degraded for obeying the plain requirements of comity, nor any attempt be made to win party success by bullying feeble states.

Mr. Balfour's shot at bimetallism continues to be heard round the world, and its absolutely fatal effect is shown not only by the consternation and unwonted silence of bimetallists, but by the unconcealed and rather malicious hilarity of their opponents. Particularly in Germany, the country that was going to call and possess the conference which Mr. Balfour says would be, even if held, nothing but a clash of irreconcilables, has a great deal of wicked fun been poked at Herr Arendt and Count Herbert Bismarck. The latter, it seems, has made a great deal of his intimate knowledge of English politics, and has kept the agrarians and bimetallists in high feather by boasting of what "mein Freund Balfour" was going to do. Angry and irreverent inquiries are now hurled at him from all sides about this "sure thing" gone wrong like so many others of the kind. International bimetallism has ceased

to be of any use even as a "dodge" to be put into a platform; and that is about as low an estate as a man could wish for his worst enemy.

The general attitude of the new ministry towards the Irish is exciting in England the liveliest curiosity as to its effect on the home-rule question. A complete *volte-face* has evidently been determined on since the old days of "brave Mr. Balfour" and coercion. For the calm supercilious-ness and hardly veiled contempt with which Arthur Balfour treated the Irish in 1886, his brother Gerald has substituted the most studied politeness and even deference. Compliments are lavished on the Irish debaters. Credit is given them for lofty motives, and their indulgence is solicited for trying situations. "Tim" Healy, in particular, is accorded the rank of a parliamentarian of the first order, while Dillon and Justin McCarthy are reasoned with apologetically and even beseechingly. In Mr. Gerald Balfour's statement of what his Irish policy would be, he promised nearly everything the people could desire in the way of material aid and prosperity, and hoped the Irish members would approve of it all, but intimated that whether they did or not, it would be carried out. He is now travelling in Ireland, and said to be making promises of appropriations and grants in aid to every town councillor and poor-law guardian he meets. There is talk, too, of "a royal residence" to be occupied by the Duke of York, who is to win popular affection by a liberal expenditure.

The Pope's letter to the English people, politely inviting them all to become good Catholics, created no great stir that we ever heard of, but the Archbishop of Canterbury has felt compelled to answer it. He considerately refers to it as "a certain friendly advance made from a foreign church to the people of England." Christian unity is as dear to the heart of "Edw. Cantuar." as it can possibly be to Leo's. Did not the Lambeth Conference call for special prayers for the unity of Christendom? But the Pope seems to be singularly misinformed about the true road to unity. The Roman Communion once had Western Christendom united, but was not able to retain its hold on the nations. They are not likely to go back into that broken-down sheepfold. On the other hand, argues the Archbishop, the Anglican Communion is just the one for all other churches, East and West, to compromise upon. Not only is this unique position of the English Church forced upon it by "history," but that church "seems not uncertainly marked by God" to bring about reunion. We do not know what the Pope can say to this.

This year's Congress of German Catholics at Munich attracted perhaps less attention than any of its predecessors; but this of itself is highly significant. That the old militant tone should have so largely passed away is, in other words, fully as important a fact as anything that was said or done at the Congress. The change from the aggressive attitude of a few years ago is no doubt due, in good part, to the quiet but firm influence of Leo XIII.—"the reasonable Pope," as Bismarck has called him. With a larger and more statesman-like mind than Pius IX., he aims to extend the sway of the Church by conciliation instead of by violent protests and vain reclamations. The German Catholics, of course, repeated their demand for religious education in the public schools, for the creation of new Catholic universities, and for the "reform of the state on Christian principles," whatever that may mean. But this was mostly perfunctory. Real heart was put only into the orations and resolutions in favor of making religion an efficient ally of the state against anarchistic disorder and revolutionary violence. "Loyal to Pope and Emperor" was a popular phrase frequently heard, and William's despatch of greeting to the Congress falls in very well, in this view of the case, with his recent declaration of war against the German Socialists.

One of the features of the Paris Exposition of 1900 is to be a second World's Parliament of Religions. So, at least, affirms a French abbé, writing in the *Revue de Paris*, where we learn that the chief Protestant and Jewish authorities of France have agreed to coöperate in the affair, while two French cardinals and other Catholic dignitaries likewise favor the proposition. When the Chicago parliament closed, an enthusiastic delegate proposed that the next one be held at Benares, apparently on the principle that an exhibit of a good variety of religions would be most effective where religion is most needed. But Benares probably has no advantage over Paris in that regard. Indeed, if the location of the parliament were to be determined on the ground of going where there was the greatest occasion for bearing "testimony" against an evil world, for confronting wickedness, and especially ridicule, at its worst, the fitness of Paris could hardly be questioned. Some of the muftis and other parti-colored gentlemen from the Orient had a pretty hard time of it at the hands of the Chicago press; what will be left of them when the humorists of the boulevard get through with them? The least the wicked French papers will be likely to insist upon will be the need of admitting to the parliament a delegate to speak for the favorite national cult of the great goddess Lubricity.

Objection is made to the parliament by some religious leaders in France, and will be more sharply made by religious leaders in this country and in England, because it is too much like bowing in the house of Rimmon. Tolerance is all very well, but there is such a thing as being too public and effusive about it. To admit that the virtues of the heathen are not all, as St. Augustine preferred to describe them, "splendid vices" may be necessary in private, but, when proclaimed from a world's-fair platform, has a tendency to "cut the nerve of missions" even more surely than shaky ideas about probation after death. Then there is the added danger that the Hindus may send over some more of their keen disputants. It is awkward, to say the least, to have them display both better English and better logic than the men put up to answer them; such encounters cannot be too strictly confined to Calcutta and Allahabad. In short, the capital objection to a World's Parliament of Religions is, that we must not openly acknowledge the existence of a state of things which we are forced privately to admit. That alien religions are not pure devil-worship, that there are pagan virtues which it would not hurt Christians to have a touch of, that the entire basis and method of missionary work have changed—this may all be true, but it is one of those truths which are so precious that they cannot be too carefully economized.

An ingenious French writer, M. Hamon, has taken a sort of census of anarchists, and has published his results, some of which are curious. A surgeon attributed his anarchistic principles to the fact that he had been flogged at school, which certainly makes against Dr. Johnson's contention that there is nothing like a sound caning to beat the humanities into a boy's head. "Rooted objection to authority" was what made an anarchist of a journalist, who had first, no doubt, through such rooted objection, become what the French call "un journaliste du pavé." One can better understand the case of an artist who had been driven to anarchy by "the arrogance of critics," and that of an author who had gone the same way as "an alternative to suicide." What one cannot understand at all, however, is the analysis of the anarchist nature which M. Hamon professes to make on the strength of the data he has collected. He works out eight specific characteristics of the anarchist mind, some of which are obvious enough, such as "a spirit of revolt," "love of self," or even "love of liberty." But it seems strange, indeed, to read that bomb-throwers are strongly moved by "love of others," that they have marked "tender-heartedness," a powerful "feeling of justice," and a keen "sense of logic." As a final note of the anarchist it is said that he has a "thirst for knowledge." This, it must be said, a great many anarchists are in a fair way of satisfying. Their rough contact with the world's logic and justice has left them wiser if sadder men.

THE GOLD RESERVE.

THERE was taken out from this port on Saturday's European steamers $4,550,000 in gold. Including the shipments earlier in the week, the export movement since the previous Saturday amounted to $7,200,000. Most of this was withdrawn from the Treasury reserve, and it is not unnatural that the stock market and the financial community generally should have returned in some degree to the discouragement which prevailed at the periods of large gold shipments a year ago.

A new bond issue is talked of to replenish the Government's gold reserve. Whether any such thing is in contemplation by those in authority we do not know, but it seems to be the logic of the situation that the Treasury should begin to take care of itself instead of leaning longer on the syndicate that took the last lot of bonds. Under that contract the syndicate agreed to use its influence and its best endeavors to prevent the drawing of gold from the Treasury during the pendency of the contract. But the contract was fulfilled some time ago. All the gold that has been turned into the Treasury by it since that time has been over and above any agreement or promise, expressed or implied.

For this reason it is fitting that the Treasury should now stand on its own bottom. It ought to meet its responsibilities like an ordinary business corporation, which pays its debts with its own assets, and not to lean on individuals or subsist from day to day on benevolence. The spectacle of daily gold withdrawals followed by voluntary contributions from bankers is not at all reassuring. It is especially detrimental to our credit abroad, since no such thing ever happens there. No government except our own is engaged in the banking business. No other government attempts to maintain the gold reserve which commerce requires. In England, France, Germany, and all other commercial countries, such tasks are left to merchants and bankers. Being an essential part of commerce, the gold reserve adjusts itself automatically. It did so in our own country before fiat money made its appearance among us. When foreigners see us persistently violating the principles of sound finance long after the supposed necessity has passed away, they naturally distrust us and keep their money at home as much as possible.

While it is for these reasons fitting that the Government should take decisive steps to maintain its gold reserve with its own credit and resources, instead of leaning upon the benevolence and good will of banks and individuals, there are other considerations which make a new bond issue desirable, or at all events not undesirable. Nothing in our experience has yielded so much public enlightenment on financial subjects as the three bond issues that have taken place within eighteen months to replenish the gold reserve. Undoubtedly there was more than one cause for the drain of gold from the Treasury. There was the silver-purchase act of 1890, which crammed the circulation with fiat money that could not be digested; there was a deficit of ordinary receipts as compared with ordinary expenditures; and there was the panic of 1893 on top of these things and partly in consequence of them. Some of these things the public could understand and some they could not, but all could see the demand for gold and its outflow, and the steps taken to replenish it. All could see that the interest-bearing debt was increased more than a hundred and fifty million dollars in consequence, and nearly all could see that there was no way to avoid it.

The consequence was a large number of conversions to the idea that the Government must go out of the banking business with all convenient speed. How extensive this change of opinion has been we have some means of estimating by Mr. Cleveland's present popularity. It is safe to say that but for the national tradition against third terms he would be renominated and reëlected next year. But for this obstacle there would be no candidate against him in the Democratic party, and the Republicans would be appalled and paralyzed by his presence in the field once more. Now this popularity of Mr. Cleveland is due to no one thing more than to his firmness and determination to preserve the national credit and the gold standard. As the laws now stand, these two terms are synonymous, and Mr. Cleveland is their personal embodiment before the people. This constitutes his tower of strength, and it furnishes a very fair measuring-rod to test the change of public opinion on the question of fiat money. Every bond put out by the Government to maintain the gold reserve is a fresh argument for retiring the legal-tender notes; and this circumstance reconciles us to a new issue, if it must come, although we would not justify it if the $100,000,000 reserve could be maintained without it.

A TRUMPET OF UNCERTAIN SOUND.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S speech at the Republican mass-meeting in Springfield, O., last week is hailed as the blowing of a bugle. This doubtless refers to his declaration about the tariff policy of his party. He said:

> "What we propose and intend is, to restore the protective policy of the Republican party, to collect enough revenue to pay current expenses, to reduce the national debt, and to build up and increase domestic manufactures and productions, not only of the workshop, but of the farm and mine. The McKinley law, with such changes as time may make necessary, will accomplish this purpose."

This is probably more of a bugle blast than any Republican of Mr. Sherman's standing has emitted. It comes nearer to meaning something. The usual thing has been to say that the Republican party still stands firm for the grand system of protection, for general prosperity, happiness, and virtue; details to be had only on private application. Senator Sherman, with a great show of positiveness and boldness, comes out for the restoration of the McKinley bill, "with such changes as time may make necessary." This innocent saving clause really turns the whole thing into mist, it is evident. The bold Senator was not so vague when he rose in the Senate on September 29, 1890, to say terrible things of the McKinley bill just before voting for it. He then frankly admitted that some of the rates in it were "too high." He plaintively recognized the truth that it was a bill dictated by the manufacturers and Trusts, and that this well-known fact was a "great obstacle and menace in the way of the success of this bill." With ridiculous fatuity he appealed to the beneficiaries of the bill to act "judiciously," and to "avoid those contracts" which had aroused "popular discontent," winding up with the awful threat, "If they do not, I, for one, will be as ready to repeal this law as I am now ready to vote for it."

As far as Senator Sherman is concerned, therefore, it is clear that time will make necessary many changes in the McKinley bill. He would no doubt swallow his principles as meekly as before if driven to it again; but if he could have his way, he would not let the party break its leg a second time on the McKinley stone of stumbling. What is incumbent upon him, however, and upon all Republican leaders who talk of going back to McKinleyism, with "changes," is to say what changes. The country is entitled to a bill of particulars. Is Senator Sherman in favor of restoring the McKinley favors to the Sugar Trust, the Lead Trust, the Cotton-bagging, Binding-twine, Plate-glass, Linseed-oil Trusts, and the rest of them? Never mind now about the Democrats having also jumped into the same mire up to their waists; are the Republicans prepared to plunge in again up to their necks? If a duty is to be put on wool again, how high is it to be? The Ohio wool-growers demand that all foreign wool be excluded. Does Senator Sherman, do the Ohio Republicans, agree to that? They do not say. Nobody knows, yet every business man is entitled to know.

Our point is, that the Republican party cannot conduct a second tariff campaign on a platform of ambiguities and false pretences. Such was their campaign of 1888. It is safe to say that President Harrison would never have been elected if the Republican voters had dreamed that his election involved the McKinley bill. What the Republican platforms had been talking about was the need of "correcting the irregularities of the tariff" and "reducing the surplus," "effecting all needed reduction of the national revenue" by a wise "revision of the tariff laws," and, above all, deadly hostility to "all combinations of capital organized in Trusts." No

man could have inferred the McKinley abominations from such declarations. They did not mean or intend anything of the kind. When the Philadelphia Manufacturers' Club and the Ohio Wool-Growers and the Sugar Trust closed down on the luckless McKinley, and exacted from him the tariff which they unblushingly said they had "bought and paid for," no one was more surprised and disgusted than the mass of the Republican party itself. Thousands of Republican voters felt that they had been "buncoed"; and they had been.

Now, we say, such a thing ought not to happen again, cannot happen again. The Republican platform-makers this year and next, candidates for Congress next year, have got to put down in black and white, before the business and industry of this country, what they intend to do, if anything, about the tariff. The first question they must answer, and answer without shuffling or ambiguity, is the question whether a general revision of the tariff is to cast its paralysis over business again in 1897. Business men will insist upon knowing before voting; and their votes will depend, not upon party affiliations, but upon business reasons. Thousands of Republican business men are in the position of a large woollen-manufacturer who recently said: "I am and always have been a Republican, but if my party proposes to rip up the tariff again, I shall have seriously to consider how I shall vote." Similarly in the matter of separate and minor tariff changes. We do not believe any such can be made, but if the Republicans purpose making them, they must say how and when and what. Ambiguity, general mellifluous phrases, will not do. They will not even charm campaign contributions out of expectant beneficiaries; certainly they will win no votes, though they will repel many. Senator Sherman will have to try again. His trumpet gives too uncertain a sound to make even the Republicans prepare for battle; it will merely alarm the conservative business interests of the country. Their devout wish is to be let alone and allowed to work out their own salvation without interference from either Republicans or Democrats. Above all, they want nothing to do with a political leader or a political party that faces north by south on the tariff.

SOUTH CAROLINA'S PROBLEM.

South Carolina by the last census had a population of 1,151,149, of whom 462,008 were white and 688,934 black—as nearly as possible, 40 whites to every 60 blacks. Of males of the voting age there were 102,657 whites against 132,949 blacks; in other words, of the men who had reached the age of twenty-one there were in every hundred 43 whites and 57 blacks.

The Constitution of South Carolina, adopted under reconstruction rule in 1868, provides that every male citizen of the United States, twenty-one years old, "without distinction of race, color, or former condition," except those usually disfranchised everywhere as paupers, criminals, or lunatics, "shall be entitled to vote for all officers elected by the people, and upon all questions submitted to the electors at any election." It is obvious that, under this Constitution, if a race line should be drawn in politics, the party supported by the blacks would, with "a free vote and a fair count," beat the white party by about 30,000 majority.

The race line was drawn so strictly that scarcely any blacks voted the Democratic ticket, and but few whites (except carpet-baggers from the North) the Republican. As a result, the Republicans carried the State by large majorities for several years—33,534 for Governor in 1870, and 49,587 for President in 1872, when the Democrats were so demoralized by Greeley's candidacy that half of those who had voted for Seymour four years before would not go to the polls. Meanwhile, the carpet-baggers from the North, the native white "scalawags" who joined hands with them, and the majority of ignorant blacks were making the administration of public affairs a travesty upon democratic government by such a carnival of corruption and downright stealing as was never before seen in an American commonwealth.

The situation at last became intolerable. While the white adventurers insisted that there were some "years of good stealing" still left, the white minority felt in 1876 that they could not stand this sort of rule any longer. They resolved to get control of the State at all hazards. With the aid of intimidation they managed to secure the narrow majority of 1,134 for Wade Hampton running as the Democratic nominee for Governor, and although the Republicans tried to hold on to power by throwing out two counties on this ground, and thus giving Chamberlain the lead as a candidate for reëlection, the Hayes Administration withdrew the troops that were essential to the assertion of Republican claims, and the former masters ceased to be ruled by their former slaves.

Since then the Republicans have "stood no show" in South Carolina elections. The white Democrats frightened the negroes from trying to vote until most of them ceased to make any further effort, except in one Congressional district in which the blackest counties were lumped; and they put such obstacles in the way of the more persistent, through registration laws with which it was hard to comply, that few maintained what seemed a useless struggle—especially with the probability that they would be counted out if they really got their ballots in. For President in 1892 Harrison received only 13,384 votes, against 72,290 for Grant twenty years before; the Democratic vote, through the lack of any contest, being but 51,698—a total of only 65,082 for 235,606 males of the voting age, whereas Maryland, with a smaller population, cast 213,275 votes.

For years there has been among the better class of the whites a growing feeling of disgust at the methods of intimidation and fraud by which the black majority has been kept under, and a new constitution has been demanded under which the white minority might lawfully retain control. The Tillman element took up this cry, when they were fully established in power, hoping also to secure factional advantage by changes in the fundamental law. Their domination in the State disinclined many of the more intelligent whites to favor a convention which the more ignorant and reckless of their race would control, and the "Conservatives" aver that the proposition to hold one was really voted down at the polls last fall. However, the Tillmanites returned it as carried, delegates were chosen last month, and the body opened its sessions at Columbia on September 10.

The outlook for a wise solution of the problem is not encouraging. The Tillmanites constitute a large majority of the delegates, and the Tillmanite Governor was chosen President. Whether Tillmanites or Conservatives, the white delegates (there are only a very few blacks) are united in a resolution to secure "white supremacy" by any device that will not be declared in conflict with the United States Constitution. The purpose is openly proclaimed by the press. The object, says the Greenville *News*, is to "provide a system of elections which will give a white majority of from 20,000 to 40,000 without disfranchising anybody [anybody evidently here meaning any whites] and without requiring officers of elections to be experts in perjury, fraud, and cheating." The convention, says the Charleston *News and Courier*, "has been called to accomplish in a constitutional way the overthrow of negro suffrage"; and it adds:

> "Nobody tries to conceal it, nobody seeks to excuse it. It is not meant to disfranchise every negro in this State—there are some of them who are qualified by education and property to vote—but it is intended that every colored voter who can be disfranchised without violating the higher law of the United States Constitution shall be deprived of the right to vote. On the other hand, it is meant to disfranchise no white man except for crime if any way can be found to do it without violating the United States Constitution."

The problem which has long confronted South Carolina is a most difficult one—to secure good government in a State where three-fourths of the black voters and one-sixth of the white are illiterates. But the spirit in which this convention approaches it gives little hope of a correct solution.

WANTED—A GREAT POET.

That the English-speaking world is badly off for a great living poet, or at least one whom it can make a good face at accepting as great, is a fact for which there is a deal of painful evidence. The vacant Laureateship will not let some men rest.

Only the other day in the House of Commons, Mr. Balfour, who is said to have a pretty taste in poetry, was asked when the next Laureate would be appointed. He replied, however, with a lamentable appearance of hurrying away from an unpleasant subject, that this was a matter entirely within the hands of the Prime Minister. At about this time, as the almanacs say, and as a coincidence which would be dear to the heart of an almanac-maker, Mr. (now Sir) Lewis Morris published an ode on Armenia in the *Daily News*. If the laurel was to decorate a living head again, the willing brows must not be hidden from the sight of those in authority. But the only result of this piece of timely poetry that we have thus far observed was the anxious inquiry of the *Saturday Review* as to who, even if Lord Salisbury succeeded in delivering the Armenians from their Turkish oppressors, was to deliver the public from Sir Lewis Morris.

This desire to have the Laureateship filled, even if ill filled, doubtless has many and complex motives back of it. One is, apparently, regret at the waste of so much good poetic material. Subjects for poems are not so easy to come at as some might think. If any one doubts it, let him look at the unpromising themes which many of our hardest-working poets are compelled to take up, and which, after they have got through with them, appear to have neither promise nor fulfilment about them. But water runs to the Laureate's mill without half trying; and it is harrowing to a true poetic sense to consider the number of official poems that might have been written since Tennyson's death, but which now must for ever remain uncomposed for lack of an official poet. There is the son born to the Duke of York, possible successor to the English crown: can any truly poetic mind contemplate that infant in his cradle, unwept, unhonored, and unsung, without mourning over a lost opportunity? Then there were the victories of the Prince of Wales's *Britannia* over *Navahoe* and *Vigilant*, several good purses set down to the credit of his stud, besides the extraordinary event of two Derbys won by a peer and a Prime Minister, upon all of which much lofty rhyme might have been built by a Laureate, had there been one. For an outsider to touch such inviting and inspiring subjects would look like pushing himself forward for the vacancy ; and no one who remembers how shrinking and hermit-like all poets are by nature, would suppose it possible for any of them to think of such a thing.

It is said that the Laureateship should be filled as a state recognition of poetry. This is entirely irrespective of whether the poetry is good or the poet great. In fact, it is thought to be rather better not to have the Laureate too great a poet. He will serve a good purpose if he enables other poets to say, "How rich England is in poetic genius when such poets as we are *not* Laureates." Still, the general demand that a great poet stand forth is not abated by any such considerations, and has now, indeed, become so strong that many English critics are desperately thrusting greatness on various poets, whether they will or no. The *Spectator's* rather tiresome forcing of the bays upon Mr. William Watson is perhaps the most conspicuous instance. We have not a word to say against that meritorious writer; but to keep on insisting that he is another Wordsworth, if not another Milton, is very much like hailing the bramble as satisfactory king over all the trees.

Advertising for a great poet this side the Atlantic has not, perhaps, been so urgent, but there is no doubt that, in this country also, the man who could show the true strawberry mark of genius on his arm would hear of something to his advantage. Arms are bared in plenty and in public, but the marks are not fast colors. We have no poetical Laureateship, but we have a poetical "mantle." When Bryant dropped it, there was a palpable bending of receptive shoulders among some of the younger poets, but they straightened up when it was recalled that Longfellow still survived. When he passed away, Lowell's presence restrained them from stepping forward too confidently, but after he also was gone, and then Whittier and Holmes, they saw no reason for longer disguising their fitness to wear the mantle. But the public, which takes the place of the Prime Minister this side the water, has been as slow in bestowing the mantle as have Rosebery and Salisbury the laurel. Perhaps it dreads, like them, the making of both giver, gift, and recipient a little ridiculous.

No off-hand receipt can be given for making a great poet. The surest way to make a little poet is for a man to say to himself, "Go to, I will be a great poet"; or, still more fatally, "Go to, I will artfully make people think I am a great poet, whether I am or not." It may be safely said, however (Milton said it in unkind anticipation of his successors), that being a great man has something to do with being a great poet. A man must have lived and thought to some purpose—been great in mind if not in character and achievements—before he can write poetry, or prose either, that will affect the lives and thoughts of others to some purpose. Arthur Hugh Clough was as eager as any one for the coming of a great poet, but he knew perfectly well what he wanted him to come for, and with what equipment he must be provided when he did come. He must be prepared to tell the thousands of laborers what their tasks tended to, and at the same time tell trembling thinkers how to think. He must be able to portray in lasting lineaments the substance of the shadowy day—in fine:

> "Our real and inner deeds rehearse,
> And make our meaning clear in verse."

It takes something more than a genius for exclamation to do that. A great poet of that kind, when he comes, will come like the kingdom of heaven, without observation. Certainly he will not come sounding a trumpet before him. A part of his greatness will consist in not being at all anxious about greatness, in not knowing that he is great. Clough himself, without consciously striving for it or being conscious of it, was so near to being a poet of that kind that Lowell could say of him: "We have a foreboding that Clough, imperfect as he was in many respects, and dying before he had subdued his sensitive temperament to the sterner requirements of his art, will be thought a hundred years hence to have been the truest expression in verse of the moral and intellectual tendencies, the doubt and struggle towards settled convictions, of the period in which he lived." His example may be commended to the poets who, not having been born great or achieved greatness, are so manifestly willing to have greatness thrust upon them.

A LIBERAL'S VIEW OF THE GENERAL ELECTION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, August, 1895.

EVER since the recent general election ended, the Liberal party has been trying hard to explain the causes of the unexpected defeat it suffered. It was not, however, so much the fact of defeat itself that took everybody by surprise as the magnitude of the catastrophe. The Liberal party had not counted on improving its position. Some thought that it might hold its own. Others looked for an equilibrium of parties. Those who had studied the constituencies reckoned on seeing a majority of from thirty to fifty against them. Nobody had the least idea that the majority would exceed sixty; and any one who had predicted that it would reach 152 would have been laughed to scorn. Nor were the party who proved victorious much better prepared for their victory. A few of them put their probable majority as high as seventy or eighty; none (it is believed) ventured to anticipate more than one hundred. Since the election which followed the reform bill of 1832 there has been no such "tidal wave" in English politics.

Now that the smoke of battle has cleared off the field, it is becoming pretty easy to criticise the tactics and assign the causes of the defeat. As usually happens in England, perhaps in all popularly governed countries, it was not so much the promises of the victorious party that influenced the electors as discontent with the party which was vanquished. Promises, indeed, were profusely made ; for although the Tory leaders had the prudence to issue no "authorized programme" or "platform," the Tory candidates were less cautious, and indulged in all sorts of declarations as to the measures which their party would carry, and the blessed results in the way of employment for everybody and abounding prosperity which would follow. These allurements, however, do not appear to have told very greatly on English people, who are now getting accustomed to the devices of electioneering. It was rather on the measures to which the Liberal party stood pledged that the elections seem to have turned, than on any fondness for the

Tories or any attractiveness in the Tory platform.

These measures, every one now admits, constituted too large and too ambitious a programme. Among them, however, that which, as most people think, injured the Liberals most was the Local Veto bill. There are few things for which the English workingman cares more than he does for his glass of beer. The bill went no further than to permit a two-thirds majority to prohibit, after three years' notice, the sale of intoxicants in a parish or ward of a town; but this was a detail which the popular eye overlooked, and it was supposed that, once the bill passed, the poor man would no longer be able to have his glass of beer, because all the public houses would be closed. The brewers and the publicans naturally encouraged this view of the measure, and worked like horses in every constituency for the Tory candidates. Moreover, the brewing business, which has of late years been extremely profitable in England, has largely passed into the hands of joint-stock companies, and the shareholders in these companies felt their pockets touched. Thus the drink question told mightily; and, though the teetotal party stood by the Liberals, it was heavily outnumbered. Probably some twenty or thirty seats, possibly many more, were fought and won mainly upon this issue.

Next in importance came the question of Disestablishment in Wales. It roused the clergy of the Established Church not in Wales only, but all over England also, as they had not been roused for many years. The English clergy sympathized with their Welsh brethren, and thought that they would themselves be the next to see their legal position and their endowments threatened. Many who, from their interest in the temperance cause, might otherwise have helped the Liberals, or at any rate remained neutral, were in this way drawn into the Tory ranks, and exerted no small influence on the result. In Wales itself the Liberal party lost six seats; and it is admitted that this loss constitutes a serious "set-back" to the Disestablishment movement, whose strength was largely drawn from the fact that Wales had returned in 1886 and in 1892 an increasing number of members pledged to that policy.

The Liberals had not expected to gain anything by their advocacy of home rule for Ireland, because in England, and perhaps even in Scotland, the electors were a little tired of that subject, having ceased, since Ireland had become comparatively quiet, to deem it urgent, and having become more or less provoked and repelled by the intestine feuds that have divided the Irish Nationalists ever since 1890, the year when Mr. Parnell was deposed from the leadership. The Tories on their side had expected benefit from pushing this question to the front, and descanted incessantly on one particular provision of the home-rule bill of 1893—that which allowed Irish members to vote in the House of Commons on questions affecting England only. But it does not appear that the home-rule issue had really any great influence. Men generally retained the opinions they had held at the election of 1892, and comparatively few who had voted for the Liberals then were led to vote against them now out of dislike to the particular scheme propounded in 1893. It must be remembered that, although the feeling against granting autonomy to Ireland is very strong in the richer sections of English society, it is comparatively feeble among the poorer. Thus the Tories drew less advantage from this quarter than they expected; their own rank and file being, indeed, somewhat indifferent to the whole matter.

Just as the Tories experienced a disappointment in this direction, so also were the Liberals disappointed by the attitude of the masses upon the subject of the House of Lords. They had counted on rousing the country against the upper chamber by dwelling on its hereditary and therefore irresponsible character, and by enumerating the many useful measures which it had in time past defeated or delayed. The country, however, did not respond. Those who were already attached to democratic principles went heartily into the fight, and probably cared more about this issue than about any other submitted to them. But the bulk of those comparatively indifferent or moderate men who, by throwing themselves into one or other scale, determine the result of an election, saw no great reason for touching the Lords. A hereditary chamber was no doubt an anomaly, but it was not (so they thought) doing them any particular harm, for it had not recently rejected any measure in which they, as Englishmen, felt directly and warmly interested. However, the Liberal leaders had not specifically declared what was to be done with the second chamber. Some were believed to desire merely to restrict its powers; others, to wish to turn it into an elective assembly; others, to abolish it altogether, and leave the House of Commons to stand alone. This third course, which was, of course, represented by Tory speakers as being that which the Liberals would, in fact, adopt, alarmed the more cautious persons who did not think the popular house so perfect a body as to require no sort of constitutional check. Thus it would seem that if the Liberals did not actually suffer from their onslaught upon the Lords, neither did they gain much by it.

Three other factors remain to be considered whose influence it is more difficult to estimate, because they were more vague than the four already mentioned, each of which was connected with a practical bill or proposal. The first of these three was the loss to the Liberal party of Mr. Gladstone's leadership. Although there was in its ranks a very general regard for and confidence in his successor, the departure of the chief who had inspired its efforts for thirty years, and been during all that time the most brilliant figure in English public life, with an experience, an eloquence, and a courage no one else could rival, naturally depressed their spirits. It takes some time before an army can learn to cheer the name of a new general as it cheered one who has often led them to victory. This was an unavoidable misfortune; for even had Mr. Gladstone remained in the Government which he formed in August, 1892, until it resigned in June, 1895, his advanced age would have made it impossible for him to do much fighting, and every one would have known that he could not again take office.

In the next place, there was a general discontent with the depression from which trade has been suffering for the last five years and agriculture for the last fifteen. This discontent, as usually happens, told against the government which had been recently in power, and disposed the voters to "give the other fellows a chance." In vain did the Liberals point out that trade had been bad under the Tories from 1890 till 1892, that it had been equally bad or worse in most other countries, that it had begun to revive last March, while their Ministry was still in power, and that ministries cannot make good trade any more than they can make good harvests. The sense of disquiet, the idea that a change of administrators might do good and at any rate could do no harm, was irresistible; and many elections were no doubt decided by this notion, against which it was all the harder to fight just because it was irrational. When there are no arguments to support a case, the case, though it may be absurd, becomes irrefutable.

Upon minor causes which acted in particular parts of the country, it is hardly worth while to dwell. Several seats in Lancashire were lost to the Liberals because the critical condition of the Indian revenue had obliged them to allow the Indian Government to impose an import duty on cotton goods. Several more were affected, perhaps lost, on the question of bimetallism, which has taken strong hold of Lancashire and some of the other manufacturing districts, although its advocates are far from commanding a majority in the new House of Commons. A more important factor, and the last of the three above referred to, was the impression, pretty widely felt, and influential with timid minds, that the Liberals were tinged by revolutionary or socialistic views. This impression was the more odd because the so-called Independent Labor party, which is avowedly socialistic, was, wherever it had an organization, attacking Liberal candidates, and denouncing them as being more "capitalistic" than the Tories; and actually running candidates of its own in order to keep the Liberals out. However, the fact that socialism was in the air and had frightened the property-holding classes, among whom a good many workingmen may now happily be included, told against the party which is traditionally the party of change, and made not a few of the more timid sort think property safer under the party which is traditionally that of conservatism, and to which the men of wealth, with very few exceptions, now belong.

Lest it should be supposed that the enormous majority which the Tories have obtained in the House of Commons denotes a pulverization of the Liberal party, let it be observed that the majority of popular votes obtained by the Tories in the constituencies is only between one and two hundred thousand (it is hard to make an exact calculation, because many seats, especially Tory seats, were uncontested) —that is to say, a small percentage of an electorate which exceeds six millions. This is a curious result of the British electoral system, and shows that the swing of the pendulum, which seems so tremendous if one regards Parliament, is comparatively small among the voters. It shows, also, that when the pendulum takes a swing back, the change among the voters need not be very great in order to restore the now defeated party to power. For the present, however, the Tories may count themselves safe. Their majority is inconveniently large, but, if they keep it solid, they may retain office unshaken for six years to come. G.

HOLLAND IN 1895 AND THE DUTCH UNIVERSITIES.

ROTTERDAM, August 27, 1895.

IN a certain sense the Dutch of to-day suffer in comparison with their glorious past. One who studies the faces on the canvases of Rembrandt and Franz Hals and then looks upon contemporaneous Netherlanders is struck with the difference. The heroic pride and joy of life noticeable in the former have given way to

simple content or anxious desire for gain. Familiarity with figures of arithmetic rather than of rhetoric characterizes the Dutchman of to-day. The average face in the land of dykes and guilders is much like that in the country of pounds, shillings, and pence. It is distinctly commercial. The Englishman apparently notices this even more than the American, and the "modern instances" of the British pot calling the Dutch kettle black are numerous and amusing.

Even the Hollanders themselves declare that there has been a decline in national spirit since the day of the Silent and Maurice. The pessimists who bewail these and recent degenerate days are of two sorts. The ultra-Calvinists, of whom there is yet a vast number in Netherland, point to the past with reverence because of its purer orthodoxy. They declare that the triumphs of their fathers in art, poetry, law, science, and military success were direct fruits of faith. Declension in doctrine has been followed by decay of national prestige. A powerful party in political and ecclesiastical life still shout the battle-cries of the Synod of Dort. Barneveldt will never have a statue if they can help it. Nevertheless, his name is on the new streets of the Dutch cities. Another class, usually the learned men in the universities and professions, declare that the Dutch have lost nerve. The old spirit of enterprise which led their ancestors, even while fighting giant Spain, to fill the earth with explorers and cover the once unknown lands and seas with Dutch names (which the English, with characteristic impudence, say they, have erased or supplanted) is no more. Not only have the qualities even of the very cheese and butter declined, but the merchant will not risk his ships or the capitalist his guilders unless positively sure of his five per cent. returns.

A different note is sounded by others of perhaps wider view, notably by men in the commercial marine and by the Rotterdammers. Nations, say these men, whose glasses possess a rosier tint, have their dark and bright days, their ebb and flow. Nederland, they argue, is awakening from her night slumbers. The tide is rising and a new day of prosperity is being ushered in. Look! they cry, we are out of the entanglement of European politics. We are without enemies, and need make none. From Germany there is no danger whatever. France and England are both friendly. Our colonial possessions are outside of the sphere of the ambitions of the great Powers that are busy, jealous, and rapacious in Asia and Africa. We have shown how well we can colonize and govern our subject thirty millions. Our army and navy and fixed defences are in first-class order. We are able in any emergency to protect our borders and enforce neutrality. Our schools are the admiration of Europe. Our art is living. In fisheries, trade, agriculture, we are steadily advancing. Manufactures are increasing in value and extent of sale. Rotterdam will soon be one of the greatest seaports in all Europe. The Hague and Amsterdam are prospering. While the number of new houses and people in the chief cities multiplies, the country districts hold their own. Who will say that the Dutch nation is not even now having a renaissance?

How far the boast of "Young Holland" is soundly based, the foreigner cannot certainly say, even after seeing and talking with men in the eleven provinces. It is certainly more easy to believe in the asserted renaissance while in The Hague or in Rotterdam than when, for example, in the heath-land of Drenthe or in the province of Limburg. The general air of the kingdom is that of contentment and prosperity. Everything is well kept up, neat and bright. Some of the cities which are "dead" in rhetoric and book-titles seem remarkably lively. The writer, from the point of view of the tourist, enjoyed the distant provinces of Friesland, Groningen, Zeeland, and Limburg quite as much as the two Hollands.

Probably the ground midway between the pessimistic scholar in the cloister and the enthusiastic skippers who share the Rotterdam enthusiasm, is that which is paved with truth. My own impression of the Dutch is that they are safely set in precedent and grooves and will not soon or startlingly change. Under the pressure of national danger they will, I think, be found ready, and will probably repeat their history. If anything seems clear from recent critical investigation, it is that the people of Holland led William the Silent more than he led them. These quiet men who think are not likely to quail before the bullying of the great soldier camps around them. The recent events of Lombok and East Indies, when read in their true light, argue nothing against Dutch valor or tenacity. They rather answer grandly to the traditions of the eighty-years' war. Yet the mynheers do not love strife. There is nothing of the style or aristocratic swagger in the Dutch "militaire," such as one sees so much of in Berlin, for example. All extra show, fuss, and pomp is sedulously avoided. The studied restraint, quiet dignity, and modest decorations of the recent "feest" in The Hague, when the little Queen, Wilhelmina, with her own hands, pinned on the medals to the bosoms of the warriors of Lombok, was singularly like a family party. No theatrical heralding abroad of the impressive ceremony was even thought of. Strong and bronzed heroes who had faced the deadly Malay krisses and rifle-fire of the jungles broke down and showed wet faces as the royal child's dainty fingers laid a nation's award over their hearts. None more than intelligent Hollanders are opposed to the idea of standing armies. Yet the awful experiences of the past show the unwisdom of being unready. Vigilance and defence are necessary, with such powerful neighbors all around. In the East Indies, despite the occasional outbreak of a tribe, the peaceful and successful government of thirty millions of subtropical people of varied nations and languages is a triumph of statesmanship.

In the Netherlands of 1895, then, we note quiet in politics. All executive power is removed from the royal family, and the government is that of a republic in disguise, with a pretty figurehead. With enough "socialism" in the nation and sufficient friction between the Liberals and the Conservatives (within which latter party the Roman Catholics and ultra-Calvinistics join hands to keep up a state-subsidized religion and education) to prevent stagnation, most of the business of the States-Particular and the States-General is that of routine. A steady multiplication of the comforts of life and a broadening of the franchise result. In education the Dutch are not behind any nation in Europe, though the danger is that German ideas and methods may be too closely followed. With her colonies and affiliated nations in South Africa, Holland needs, I think, to lean rather to the more practical training of the English and American schools.

In enterprise the old passion of the race for overcoming difficulties is still manifest. It seems to have been fully determined to drain the Zuyder Zee and create a new province. To accomplish this stupendous undertaking, a generation of human life in point of time, besides an expenditure of at least sixty millions of dollars, will be necessary. In reality the work to be accomplished amounts to this—to lift off the surplus of water that engulfed and hid the old Lake Flavo, which existed before the thirteenth century, and to provide drainage for the rivers debouching into the now-existing Zuyder Zee. In a word, the Netherlanders want not only to get back the "drowned" lands, but to let the old water-courses and reservoirs of their mediæval history remain practically as they were of old. The project once carried out will, curiously enough, change a half-dozen "dead cities" from seaports to inland municipalities. In all probability it will call to thriving resurrection some of those which Havard baptized as "dead," while others that now have deep water will shrivel up into villages or mere cheese-markets. Of the fertility of the recovered ground there can be no question. As a rule, the fishermen and coasting skippers oppose the plan of desiccation. The archæologists, engineers, merchants, and manufacturers heartily approve of it.

Among the learned there are no signs of somnolence. University life is active and interesting. The modern Dutch make books rather than literature. Erudition rather than creative power is their characteristic. We must not, however, forget their geographical limitations. Less than five millions of people live within thirteen thousand square miles. In the fields of modern science, theology, linguistics, and comparative religion the scholars are busy. The annual harvest of books in quantity and quality bears a ratio in comparison with France, England, or Germany that is highly creditable to the Dutchmen. These, though they can, and often do, write in languages more widely spoken than theirs, prefer their own rich, clear, and strong tongue.

I have recently visited the four great universities, besides the seats and relics of those defunct. Franeker ought to receive more attention from Americans, for here in this ultra-democratic stronghold (suppressed by Napoleon in 1811) the students and faculty were, during our own Revolution, extraordinarily active and efficient in securing the ultimate recognition, by the States-General, of the United States. Here, also, in earlier days lived some of the Pilgrim sons—both those who did and who did not become fathers of Massachusetts. One still sees (in the Town Hall) among the clustered portraits of the former professors, the mild, strong face of Dr. Ames, who, after making the first American hymn-book, started for Plymouth, only to die of a cold from flood at Rotterdam. Franeker powerfully influenced Friesland and Holland, but of Gelderland's university at Harderwijk (1648-1811) there is little trace, either in the quiet town or in Dutch annals. Founded in patriotic impulse and conviction, and with a desire to give their Protestant faith the strongest intellectual basis and safeguards, the Dutch universities are still the nurseries of patriotism. Groningen's is a memorial of Prince Maurice's deliverance of the province from the Spaniards. Its faculty of twenty-five professors and eight hundred students contains able men whose names and books are well known where English is read. Amsterdam University is renowned for its medical school, which takes precedence in the number of its students and the eminence of its professors. The centralizing of the theological influences at Utrecht leaves Professor de la Saussaye of Amsterdam, who holds the chair of the history and philosophy of religion, nearly alone in the theological faculty. Ever since the seventh century, Utrecht continues as of

old to be the religious capital of Netherland. Just now, when the turn of the tide leaves "liberalism" and "rationalism" high and dry, and when, on the other shore, "orthodoxy" is rising to flood, Utrecht is blooming like a garden of tulips. Since my visit in 1892, I note that the handsome new edifice, built in the most attractive style of modern Dutch architecture, is completed.

Every American who visits the venerable city should enter the ancient room in which the delegates from the seven provinces met, in 1579, to form the United States of the Netherland. Their union was under the tricolor revolutionary flag of orange, white, and blue, and with a written constitution which for 218 years, until the republic was overrun by the French, continued their bond of union. In the Senate room, hung with portraits of the scholars who have influenced the thought of England and America, as well as of Holland, I sat during the examination of a student for his degree of doctor of law. The young man was, on his mother's side, no other than a lineal descendant of Prof. Luzac of Leyden, to whom Washington wrote a letter of grateful acknowledgment for his part in securing recognition of the American by the Dutch Republic. Luzac was also the friend of John Adams. In this student's family, his father being the burgomaster of Nieuwersluis (which is the town next to Breukelen, the original of Brooklyn), is still preserved Washington's camp-stool sent from Mount Vernon as a present and souvenir to Luzac.

While Utrecht boasts its theology and rejoices in the revival of "orthodoxy" as led by the Queen and Court—much to the disgust of the "Modernen"—and expects over two hundred young theological students this autumn, Leyden is still eminent in law and the "secular" sciences. I missed, by a day, the grand costume procession which, by brilliant dresses, personification, and pageants, even to the negro page, commemorated the three hundred and fifth anniversary of the victorious entrance of Prince Maurice into Bergen-op-Zoom. I saw, however, the ancient city swathed in red, white, and blue. It was gay with flowers and guarded at every shop and uncurtained saloon (there are no *cafés chantants* in Leyden) with the image of Minerva. Everywhere the five arrows and the five small flags, each by its color significant of the sciences cultivated, were joined in harmony. Theology at Leyden, however, is represented only by a professor, successor of Kuenen, who lectures on the history and philosophy of religion.

A fourth tour in the eleven provinces of the land of water-tight compartments, renewed visits with professors in the four universities, examinations of some of the old and three of the entirely new, handsome, and fire-proof archive-buildings in the large cities, and chats with the men of heath and wold, as well as with some of the deck and the town, confirm many good impressions of the Dutch. Their past at least is secure. Their history and their country deserve more attention from Americans. Neither in the Empire State which they founded, nor in any American university, is there as yet one professorship of their language, literature, or history. W. E. G.

ACROSS SIBERIA.—II.

TOMSK, August 3, 1895.

A SIBERIAN city is much like one elsewhere. Omsk, the capital of the three steppe governments of Akmollinsk, Semipalatinsk, and Semiretchinsk, is a place of some fifty to sixty thousand inhabitants, situated at the junction of the Irtysh and the little river Om. A fort was built there in 1716, and for long the town was a centre for the subjection of the neighboring Kirghiz. It also had at one time a flourishing trade in hides and tallow brought down from central Asia by Bokhariot merchants and sold into Russia. The construction of the Trans-Caspian naturally put an end to this, and Omsk has languished till the railroad, which was opened thus far last year, has given it new animation. The city is not over-attractive in itself, yet not distinctly otherwise, for if it has no fine buildings or picturesque streets or large trees, it stands on one of the few hills thereabout, and the view of the Irtysh is rather impressive, especially towards evening. Besides its Russian population, there are large numbers of Kirghiz who come in from the surrounding country, and also a good many Jews, who seem to be plentiful in Siberia, in spite of the law which, I believe, forbids their being here. Omsk has, too, a Polish colony of some two thousand souls—exiles and the children of exiles transported after the insurrection of 1863 and now among the prominent inhabitants. The latest civilization is represented by telephones and bicycles.

The Trans-Siberian, as at present open to traffic, ends at the Irtysh. Many miles of further tracks have been laid in different parts of Asia, but a through connection cannot be established until the great railway bridges have been completed. The one over the Irtysh, about 720 metres long, will hardly be finished before next year, though the Omsk station, on the eastern side of the river, is now nearly built. Starting from here with two Russian engineers on their way to survey the route around Lake Baikal, I had a ride of 291 versts (about 175 miles) over an unballasted and badly laid track. Our train, which was a working one, loaded with ties, rails, etc., made slow enough progress, stopping sometimes for hours and then jogging along for many miles without a curve in the line through a country almost uninhabited. It was like what we had been through earlier—prairie with patches of woods, good soil, and evidently great possibilities of development. At the site of each future station we found workmen busy building brick water towers (before Omsk they were of granite) and good-looking wooden houses for the employees. These are the first requisites; next will come the stations themselves, and around many if not all of them towns or villages will grow up in course of time. At present, to find habitations, one must come by the post road, sixty versts longer than the railway, from which it is at times far distant, not meeting it again till at the town of Kainsk. There, as we could get no further by rail, we had to take to the road ourselves for nearly four hundred miles, in order to reach Tomsk, from which this letter is written.

The process of being jolted about in springless vehicles is decidedly fatiguing to a novice; all the more so as, less fortunate than my comrades (who had their own tarantass, or great carriage, and needed but to change horses at the stopping-places every fifteen miles or so apart), just as I began to get used to each conveyance, I had to vacate it and trust to luck for its successor, which on several occasions was a telega, or low open cart. The dust was fearful at times, the mud likewise, but it is hard to see how this can be avoided, while the road was in better condition than I had expected and than many a one in America. When it was too bad in any particular place, we kept to one side of it—a process which can be repeated indefinitely in a level region without stones, fences, or cultivation. The heat, the flies and mosquitoes, and the other amenities of posting in the summer through thinly settled lands, though trying enough, were not unendurable, and were only what one must be prepared for if one will go on such expeditions.

The character of the country long continued the same, and each village resembled equally its successor and its predecessor. Each consists of a straight, treeless street, broad and rather well kept, though the resort of calves, pigs, dogs, hens, tow-headed children, etc., etc. On the sides are weather-stained log-houses, a story and half-a-cellar high, with sheds and gates between them and courtyards behind. The roofs are of turf or boards, the sills and shutters of the little windows are painted white, as is, too, the village church with its light-green spire and dome. A sign or two show the presence of shops or saloons, and the striped post before a house, perhaps a little larger than its neighbors, indicates the posting-station, where horses are hired and carriages changed, and where the traveller can usually find black bread, eggs, and other such refreshment. He can also pass the night in a very decent room, but will not find beds or bedding; the only thing which he has a right to require being a samovar for his tea. The horses that one gets are sorry-looking creatures, but most satisfactory; the coachman is occasionally drunk, which does not seem to interfere much with his good driving. There is apt to be difficulty about obtaining fresh horses at once, and a foreigner alone would find it hard to meet the attempts at extortion; so the assistance of a Russian friend, especially one of sufficient official position to be able to take a high tone, is invaluable. Between the stations one sees few people. One comes across odd peasants of the neighborhood, an occasional traveller, and now and then one or more wagons, each pulled by a single horse, and containing the women, children, and household goods of a family, while the men trudge beside. The progress of these emigrants, however slow, is not expensive, and they often wander great distances in search of new and better homes. When, instead of one village street, we find several, three or four churches, a brick post-office, a few painted houses of some pretensions, and shops with goods in the windows, we have a town such as Kainsk or Kolyvan, with their two or three thousand inhabitants and the residences of chiefs of police, who have to watch over large districts. Still we have not yet come to great luxury; for instance, at the latter place, on sending to the home of the priest to see if his wife would sell us some butter, we discovered that she had not heard of the article—yet milk was everywhere plentiful and delicious.

Some forty miles after leaving Kainsk, the high road crosses the line of the railway, but here the track had ceased, and even the embanking was not yet completed. A few miles later, however, we found rails again which seemed to continue unbroken to the Ob, and, indeed, are laid for some distance on the further side. The river is a bad interruption, as the great bridge over it, which we did not see, and which has been building for two years, will not shortly be finished. Thus, though the part of the railway between the Irtysh and the Ob is so nearly ready that it can soon be thrown open to the public, it is cut off at each end by an unbridged stream, frozen for many

months of the year, while the local traffic would hardly require a train a week. The Trans-Siberian is first and foremost a great through route, hardly going out of its course for anything. It even leaves the important city of Tomsk fifty miles away, to be connected with it by a branch line.

Near Kolyvan, where we came to the Ob and turned to the northward, the nature of the country changed. The rest of our journey was hilly and amid birch woods with here and there a pine tree. The village street was no longer straight, and turf roofs disappeared, owing, presumably, to the abundance of wood. We crossed the Ob on a curious paddle-boat worked by two horses, then posted hard for twenty-four hours more. During our last night it looked so much at one time as if we were going to be attacked by robbers that two of our party held their revolvers ready to fire at any instant, but I slept peacefully through this experience. The morning of the next day brought us to the river Tom, and a little later to Tomsk, the goal of our efforts for the past week. ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

SONYA KOVALEVSKY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me, as a personal friend of Mrs. Kovalevskaya and a mathematician, to add a few words to what has already appeared on that distinguished lady in your paper and elsewhere.

It has been stated that she exacted of all who came near her that they should merge their personality in hers. I do not think this statement is true in all cases, as I know from my own experience. We disagreed on many subjects, but, when we separated, each one remained true to his original ideas. For instance, in politics Mrs. Kovalevskaya was a socialist, while I disapproved of violence of any kind, whether it came from the Government or from a revolutionary party. Mrs. Kovalevskaya contended that the manual work necessary for the subsistence of mankind should be divided equally among all, and according to her calculation two hours for each one would be sufficient. I thought, on the contrary, that intellectual work from those capable of it should be accepted as compensation for manual labor —a thing which she never granted. Another point of divergence was this: Being both scientists, we knew that science had to be studied for its own sake and not for the sake of its usefulness to humanity, but I held also the same idea with regard to morals, and thought that personal holiness was worth cultivating even without reference to its benefit to mankind in general. It is very clear that, from my point of view, love too was worth cultivating for its own sake, and to illustrate the subject I translated to her a highly finished Portuguese novel by Julio Diniz with a very happy dénouement—of an heiress marrying a schoolmaster after the usual trials. Mrs. Kovalevskaya disapproved of the novel, and even the fact that the two young people founded a school did not seem to her sufficient to grant them their right to enjoy their happiness, which she considered selfish.

I honestly believe that Mrs. Kovalevskaya's idea of love as given in her biographies must be of a later date than the epoch I am speaking of. At that time each one of us stuck to his own opinion. Generally speaking, I think I was the one who chose the books we read together. The only case I can remember of her attempting to induce me to act contrary to my own ideas was this: We had been reading at her boarding-house at Saint-Mandé till a very late hour, and, as the cars had ceased running, I was obliged to return on foot to my apartment in Avenue d'Essling. As usually happens on the outskirts of large cities, stories were current of murders committed there, so that Mrs. Kovalevskaya wanted me to take with me a crooked Eastern poniard which she had received as a present. Now, although I had been instructed in the use of all kinds of weapons from my childhood, and had won a prize for revolver-shooting at Versailles, the idea was gradually dawning upon me that all these weapons were simply nice toys and were not made to injure human beings with, so that I positively refused to take the poniard. That occasioned some discussion, but finally I carried my point and went without it. Of course nothing happened on my way back to Paris.

Mrs. Kovalevskaya resumed her residence in Paris soon afterwards, while I, after some stay there, went back to Brittany and returned to the capital only when she was wavering between life and death after the suicide of Mr. Kovalevskiy. Aniuta's husband, who had called on her, had been received in such a manner that he had no desire to call again. She seemed to have lost all interest in life, and even the appeal to the fact that her daughter needed her could not bring her to herself because she did not think that maternal love *alone* could fill her life. It was only when calling on her some time afterwards, and finding on her table sheets covered with theta functions, that I saw the battle was won, and that she needed my help no more. I returned to Brittany never to see her again. T.

SEPTEMBER 10, 1895.

A SUGGESTED MODIFICATION OF THE A. B. COURSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The subject of the college curriculum has been so freely discussed of late years that it would seem that little more remained to be said, and yet certain developments in medical teaching make it desirable that the academic course be altered in some important particulars. Last spring the Association of American Medical Colleges, which comprises some seventy-odd medical colleges, decided to extend the time of study from three to four years. It seemed best to make this time requirement absolute, since, if this were not so, the evasion of the law would be an easy matter. Students are, however, given credit for medical studies taken at other colleges. Now the better class of men take, if possible, a year in a hospital after graduation, which makes five years of professional study; and if to this we add the four years of academic work, it brings up the total to nine years. Then, in the great majority of cases, the first two or three years of practice are mainly years of waiting, so that the doctor is well over thirty before he gets actually to work. Fifty years ago, or less, a man began the practice of medicine before he was twenty-one, or at least as soon as he had reached this age: this, of course, was too soon. Now he enters into actual practice rather too late.

A remedial measure would be to include in the A.B. course of our colleges the equivalent of the first-year medical work. This is done in a few of our universities, notably Johns Hopkins. This course should be elective and intended mainly for students who are preparing themselves for scientific work. It would be easy to make the course in zoölogy which is given in most colleges a little more comprehensive. More stress could be laid on human and comparative anatomy and physiology, with laboratory work in histology. Chemistry already forms a part of the regular curriculum, and the lectures on botany could be given a medical turn. Thus the student would take his A.B. degree and also be prepared to enter the second year of a medical school. The fact that the new medical law requires entrance examinations encourages men to take the academic course before entering upon the study of medicine. The college curriculum could in this way be made more attractive without necessitating any great addition to the teaching force, and at the same time save a year to the student who intends to study medicine.

GEORGE J. PRESTON.

BALTIMORE, MD.

FEMALE SUFFRAGE IN NEW YORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In vol. xix. of the *Nation*, p. 299 (November 5, 1874), a statement was made by Mr. F. M. Holland that at that time female suffrage in New York, while only *doubling* the entire number of possible voters, would nearly treble the number of illiterate voters, because of the larger percentage of illiteracy *then* among women. I am very anxious to know whether the census of 1890 would show the same condition of things; and I should be glad if some one of your readers could answer this question.

Will you find place in your paper for this query, and ask that the answers may be sent to Yours very truly,

WM. CROSWELL DOANE.

ALBANY, N. Y., September 11, 1895.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO.'S fall list embraces 'Hill Caves of Yucatan,' by Henry C. Mercer; 'The Land of the Muskeg,' *i. e.*, the domain of the Hudson Bay Company, by H. Somers Somerset; 'A Holiday in Spain and Norway,' by Caroline Earle White; 'Advance Japan,' by J. Morris; 'A Literary Pilgrimage among the Haunts of Famous British Authors,' by Theodore F. Wolfe, M. D., and 'Literary Shrines: The Haunts of Some Famous American Authors,' by the same writer; 'The Complete Works of Charles Lamb,' in six volumes, edited by Percy Fitzgerald; 'Hans Breitmann in Germany,' by Charles Godfrey Leland; 'Bismarck's Table-Talk,' edited by Charles Lowe; 'Napoleon's Last Voyages,' being the Ussher and Glover Diaries on board the *Undaunted* and the *Northumberland*; 'From Manassas to Appomattox,' memoirs of Gen. James Longstreet, C. S. A.—a subscription work; 'Turning on the Light: A Dispassionate Survey of Buchanan's Administration,' by Horatio King, ex-Postmaster-General; 'The Great Astronomers,' by Sir Robert Ball; 'Agriculture,' a general statement of principles, by R. Hedger Wallace; and a revised edition of 'Lippincott's Gazetteer of the World.'

G. P. Putnam's Sons further announce 'Charles XII. and the Collapse of the Swedish Empire, 1682-1719,' by R. Nesbit Bain; 'Wanderings, Literary and Historical,' by J. J. Jusserand; 'Impressions and Memories,' by J. Ashcroft Noble; 'Poets' Dogs,' poems selected

and arranged by Elizabeth Richardson; 'A History of Money and Prices,' from the thirteenth century to the present day, by J. Schoenhof; 'Principles and Practice of Finance,' by Edward Carroll, jr.; and 'Congressional Currency,' by Armistead C. Gordon.

Way & Williams, Chicago, promise: 'Volunteer Grain,' poems by Francis F. Browne, editor of the *Dial;* 'Little Leaders,' essays from the *Dial* by Wm. Morton Payne; 'Queen Helen, and Other Poems,' by John Vance Cheney, librarian of the Newberry Library; 'Russian Fairy Tales,' translated by R. Nesbit Bain, and illustrated by C. M. Gere; 'Paul and Virginia of a Northern Zone,' from the Danish of Holger Drachmann; and Shelley's version of Plato's 'Banquet.'

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, will issue 'The Primary Factors of Organic Evolution,' by Prof. E. D. Cope; 'Post-Darwinian Questions,' by the late George J. Romanes; and 'The Prophets of Israel,' by Prof. C. H. Cornill.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Recollections of Abraham Lincoln, 1847-'65,' by Ward H. Lamon.

From Copeland & Day, Boston, we are to have 'Lyrics of Earth,' by Archibald Lampman; 'The Hills of Song,' by Clinton Scollard; and 'Lovers, Saint Ruth's, and Three Other Tales,' by Louise Imogen Guiney, being her first effort in fiction.

A new version of 'Don Quixote,' by George Santayana of Harvard University, is in the press of D. B. Updike, Boston. It will be issued in four thin folio volumes printed on hand-made paper, and there will be twelve full-page illustrations.

A translation of Prof. Schmoller's essay on 'The Mercantile System' will be brought out by Macmillan & Co., in their series of "Economic Classics."

It is pleasant to record a sufficient demand for the less read and less available writings of Walter Bagehot to warrant a new edition of them. This the Longmans now bring out in five volumes, three of Literary Studies and one each of Biographical Studies and Economic Studies. The editor, Mr. R. H. Hutton, acknowledges special indebtedness to the carefully annotated edition of Bagehot published by the Travellers' Insurance Company of Hartford six years ago. He could not well do less, as the labors of Mr. Forrest Morgan and his assistants on that edition were of the greatest value, indispenable to any student of Bagehot, above all to any editor of his. Most of Mr. Morgan's emendations are accepted by Mr. Hutton, though he uses his own judgment, and it appears to us to be good judgment in the cases where we have made comparisons, in preferring the old text in some instances where the American editor's corrections seem to miss the point or to smack too much of schoolmasterlike exactitude. The critical apparatus of the Travellers' Bagehot, so often necessary to check that writer's careless shots at quotation or epitome, is wanting in this reprint, as is also the exhaustive personal and topical index; but on the other hand, the Longmans' edition is of more convenient size, both of page and volume, while supplying good type and paper, with unpretentious binding. Of Bagehot himself, his vitality, his acuteness, his pungent style, it is late in the day to need to say anything.

The Historical Printing Club of Brooklyn has done well to reprint from the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* the catalogue of 'British Officers Serving in America, 1754–1774,' laboriously compiled from the British "Army Lists" by Mr. Worthington C. Ford. The arrangement is alphabetical, and in most cases the rise in rank of each officer is clearly shown; but Mr. Ford has been very cautious about confounding officers bearing the same name, and has preferred rather to duplicate. The catalogue, which is printed on one side of the leaf only (there are 108 leaves), is preceded by a list of regiments employed in America during the period in question.

An interesting monograph on "Benjamin Franklin as an Economist," by W. A. Wetzel, appears in the Johns Hopkins University Series of Historical Studies. Franklin was constantly busy with his pen, but it was not his calling to compose scientific treatises. What he wrote was called out by the requirements of the day, and must be looked for in many periodicals published here and abroad. Yet his mind was so acute and his good sense so marked, that much of what he said is of permanent value. Moreover, his style was so forcible and so persuasive that his statements of economic truths are frequently not to be improved. Like Adam Smith, he was much influenced by the Physiocrats, and he came in contact with both Smith and Hume. Mr. Wetzel gives a list of Franklin's principal theses, among which we find several that have not been accepted with piety in Pennsylvania. Thus, he maintained that high wages were not inconsistent with a large foreign trade, that free trade with the world will give the greatest revenue at the least expense, and that manufactures will naturally spring up in a country as the country becomes ripe for them.

In the August *Portfolio* (Macmillan) Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady) takes up the career of Raphael where she left it in a previous issue, and in 'Raphael in Rome' gives an account of the short blossoming-time and rapid decline of that marvellous genius, who, in his thirty-eight years of life, summed up the Renaissance, and, passing from the naïveté of a primitive to the full maturity of accomplished art, died the forerunner of the decadence and the exemplar of academic classicism. Raphael's frescoes in the Stanza della Segnatura were completed near the end of 1511, and Michelangelo's ceiling of the Sistine in October, 1512. That short year marks the culmination of the Renaissance, and from that time the school of Raphael stiffens into icy conventionalities, while that of Michelangelo swells into the writhing pompousness of the baroque. The school of form was dead, and nothing was left for art but to turn to the study of color and light with the Venetians and Correggio. The *Portfolio's* illustrations, which are excellent as usual, are largely devoted to these early frescoes, the most perfect decorations ever produced, in which the academic itself yet bears about it the charm of youth and the freshness of a new discovery, and to those hard and dry, but intensely vivid, portraits which must have been a great relief to the artist from his vast schemes of decoration, and which show him to us in such a new light. Perhaps the very best of these is that gravely quiet head of Balthasar Castiglione which, though it is one of the treasures of the Louvre, is less well known than it should be.

An article by Dr. Mills of Oxford, on Zoroaster and the Bible, which appeared in the *Nineteenth Century Review* of January, 1894, has been translated into Gujrati by N. Coorlawalla, a graduate of the Sir Jemshedji Zend College of Bombay, with the express permission of the editor of the magazine and of Dr. Mills. It has been published by the Trustees of the Sir J. Jejeebhoy Translation Fund of Bombay, and this fact is a guarantee that the work enlists the approval of all parties among the Parsees, who form such an important part of the population of that city.

A correspondent writes to us from Maine: "Observing the care of the *Nation* to protect ancient names of places, I ask your aid to save the name Deer *Isle* from extinction, now threatened by the general employment of the erroneous words 'Deer Island' in references to the crew of the *Defender*. Coast Chart No. 104 gives the true name, Deer Isle; so, also, Hosmer's history of the 'Town of Deer Isle' (Boston: Stanley & Usher, 1886)."

From Philadelphia we receive the following: "In your issue of September 12, 1895, page 183, your correspondent 'W. H. D.' refers to the 'magazine writers who lately went to the Bay of Fundy and vainly searched for the bore.' I beg to say that on the 20th of August, 1895, I not only searched for, but found, the bore at Moncton, N. B. The bore was from three to four feet high, and the noise of its approach exactly resembled that of a railroad train on a bridge."

—If ever a man displayed his character in his writings, Thomas Jefferson was that man. It is with keen pleasure that we note the sixth issue of the "Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State," containing a calendar of the letters from Jefferson in the Jefferson Papers purchased by the Government in 1848. It is a truly noble collection, the mere enumeration of which requires a bulletin of 541 pages; and yet the purchase was intended to obtain only papers of a public nature. Fortunately this description was interpreted liberally, and what was obtained constitutes an invaluable personal and political record of a man whose motives and influence are still matters of controversy. It is known that Jefferson destroyed some of his correspondence; but the wonder is that he did not destroy more for his own reputation for consistency. The partisan "Anas," and many of his confidential outpourings to Madison and Monroe, are very trying to those who would believe that the man was great. As historical material, these criticisms of men and policy are of high interest, carried as they often are to the verge of madness; but as personal records they show too plainly the intense and at times shifty feelings of one who would sacrifice all to attain an end, even when that end was very indefinite in his own mind. If Congress will complete the Jefferson papers by purchasing the private letters now offered to it, that collection will rank first in size and value. As it is, the calendar of letters to Jefferson which the department now holds will be as bulky as the Bulletin now before us.

—As Jefferson's writings are being published under intelligent editing, it is unnecessary to undertake to give the contents of any letters, however curious a compilation of "deadly parallels" might be. It is the man's industry as a letter-writer that is appalling. He rarely made use of an amanuensis, and the great mass of correspondence is in his own hand. When in France he adopted a letter-press copying machine, and on his return to America engaged C. W. Peale to make a "polygraph," by which two sheets could be written at the same time. A great part of the collection is thus either press-copy or polygraph, and in very good preservation. The attention of the reader is fixed by the letters to Washington (incomplete as these are known to be), Lafa-

yette, Caspar Wistar, Dupont de Nemours, T. M. Randolph, and Gallatin. To his political "cronies" he was a free writer, and the calendar describes a hundred and more letters to each of the following: Madison (445), Monroe (162), Jay (103, nearly all official), and fewer to Short (95), Thomas Paine, the Smiths (Robert and Samuel), Mazzei, and Giles. A man of such wide sympathies had a correspondingly varied correspondence; but whether he is exchanging pretty nothings with a Frenchwoman, or politics with Madison, or science with Wistar, he is always interesting. The editing of this bulletin is an advance on previous issues, and Mr. Allen, under whose direction it is prepared, deserves praise for the work. It is to be hoped that these bulletins will induce Congress to do something towards making this mine of history generally available to the public.

—In view of the fact that the pre-Raphaelites in general, and Holman Hunt in particular, occupy prominent places in Nordau's gallery of "degenerates" (Hunt is, indeed, the only painter whose work is considered in detail by Nordau), it is curious to find that artist in his Romanes Lecture, delivered at Oxford on May 30 ('The Obligations of the Universities towards Art,' Macmillan), speaking of much of present English art as "a fever justly enough characterized by Nordau as *degeneration*," and adding: "He is wise in this, however much he may be at fault in some of his facts." Why Nordau should have devoted so much space, in a book on what he conceives to be the disease of "modernity," to a movement nearly fifty years old, will probably remain a mystery; but if even Holman Hunt cannot refrain from using the weapons of Nordau, who in future will be safe? It is in the natural course of things that years should have changed the ardent revolutionary into a stiff-backed conservative, and that Hunt should be now as alarmed for "the future of English Art" as were the Academicians whose dovecote was fluttered by the champions of the P. R. B. in 1849. "Realism" and the mania for study in Paris disturb his slumbers, and he cries out in solemn warning at the same time that Nordau, in the *North American Review*, is complaining that pre-Raphaelism is not dead, but is "just beginning on the Continent to exercise its baneful influence." With the arts of France and England thus mutually ruining each other, it would seem that the outlook for a purely national art anywhere is bad.

—Mr. Hunt, however, believes that he has an "antidote to false taste stronger than its poison." Let "certain graduates of the universities" have a practical training in art, including "a full acquaintance with the proportions of the human figure, . . . with the laws of balance and equipoise which movements and the carrying of weights control, as illustrated in Leonardo da Vinci's treatise and in Flaxman's lectures; . . . a knowledge of the laws of perspective, . . . the simple laws of light and shade, . . . and some understanding of the varieties of each nation's Decorative Design." This course "might entitle a young graduate to a degree which should qualify him for any post of responsibility in the control of national works, or in publishing opinions on matters of Art. . . . Such a simple provision by the universities . . . would impart great vitality to the whole range of English Art Design." It is quite certain that a trial of this remedy could do no harm, and it would be likely to improve the quality of art-criticism if the critics had to take such a degree; but we greatly doubt if anything will make a truly national school of art anywhere possible again: steam, electricity, and the photograph are against it.

—Writing from England, on August 30, a correspondent says:

"Quite a serious correspondence has been going on in the London *Times* for some days past upon the portentous subject as to how and where the Yankee Twang originated. The discussion was raised by Mr. J. Y. W. Macalister, who has been visiting Cornwall this year and last. In his intercourse with the 'less sophisticated inhabitants,' he was struck by their decidedly Yankee Twang. He began to wonder whether the Twang originated in Cornwall, and whether the early emigrants from Plymouth 'consisted largely or at all of Cornish folk.' Oppressed by his 'original discovery,' Mr. Macalister, who is this year 'resting close by the Lizard,' felt bound to 'write to the *Times*.' Then Mr. G. D. Goman, becoming jealous for the glories of Devonshire, claimed at least a part of the 'honour' attaching to the origin of the Twang for that famous county. By way of a clincher, he laid down that any one acquainted with the Devonshire dialect can read with ease, as if to the manner born, the humorous writings of Artemus Ward. Another correspondent put in a claim for Lincolnshire. In a recent walking tour in South Lincolnshire, this 'pedestrian' had been frequently reminded of his American friends, and could hardly believe that some of those with whom he conversed were born and bred in Lincolnshire; and was it not well known that the bulk of the Pilgrim Fathers were drawn from Boston, Lincolnshire, and had named the Hub of the Universe after it? Another correspondent claims the Twang as 'quite English,' being 'common among the rural population of all England except in the London area and Northumbria.' A former incumbent of Newlyn, in Cornwall, the Rev. W. S. Lach Szyrma, caps the controversy by averring that the Cornish Twang is derived from America. He says: 'The Cornish miners have largely migrated to the United States, and then returned after some years' residence, bringing with them the American pronunciation of certain words, which has spread in the mining villages.' Whereupon, Mr. Harold Frederic, in oracular manner, declares that Parson Lach-Szyrma has given the correct explanation; says he himself knew it, all the time, and was only waiting to see whether anybody else was as wise as himself; and adds, that the why and the wherefore of the Twang may be gleaned from Mr. Fiske's 'The Beginnings of New England.' To-day the *Times* publishes no less than five letters upon the subject, in which as many different opinions are given by the several writers. One, with some show of learned authority, would assign to the County of Essex the origin of the Twang. Another attributes the Twang to the effects of climate. A third thinks religious energy in preaching is responsible for it. A fourth points out that the French and Spanish languages also have their Twang. A fifth repudiates the idea that Cornish men have a Twang of their own. No one seems to be aware that some of the older English Colonies also have a Twang. Thus, in Barbados, the Twang of the true Yankee kind is most marked, while, in some of the neighboring West Indian Colonies there is a very perceptible Drawl. There was hardly anything of the Puritan in the early settlers of those islands, although some of the early colonists were of the Parliamentarian party. Barbados was a hotbed of broken Cavaliers. The fact would seem to be that, while the Drawl may result from climatic conditions, the Twang is a survival of the manner in which English was spoken at the time of the exodus of those colonists who went forth from the mother country in the seventeenth century. As is customary, similar survivals are to be found in the country parts of Old England itself to this day."

—'Das Kanarierbuch' (Munich: J. Eichbichler; New York; B. Westermann & Co.) is the title of a posthumous work of Franz von Löher. In the compass of six hundred pages it gives a condensed survey of most of what has been written about the Canary Islands, as well as an elaborate argument in support of the thesis, sustained also in the author's previous writings, that the aboriginal inhabitants, whom the Spanish conquerors called Guanches, were of Germanic extraction, presumably Goths and Vandals. One of his conjectures is that *Guanches* is only the Spanish spelling of the Germanic name *Wandschen*. His method is, first, to give a full and detailed account of the partial conquests made in the fifteenth century by Jean de Bethencourt, a Norman gentleman, and of the subsequent Spanish conquest, together with copious citations from the principal books which describe the manners and customs, the religion, the character, and the physical traits of the aborigines, and, next, to compare all these qualities with those ascribed by Tacitus to the Germanic tribes known to the Romans. He discovers so great a number of resemblances, and shows, moreover, so great a variation of the Guanches from the usual type of primitive savages, that it must be conceded that he makes out a plausible case. At all events, he has produced a book full of curious and interesting learning, and presenting a very complete bibliography of the surprisingly voluminous literature of the subject, consisting of works in Spanish, French, German, and English, to say nothing of notices scattered in Greek, Latin, and Arabic writings. The English authorities are Hakluyt and George Glas.

A BOOK OF FACTS.

Harper's Book of Facts: A Classified History of the World, embracing Science, Literature, and Art. Compiled by Joseph H. Willsey. Edited by Charlton T. Lewis. Harper & Brothers. 1895.

"The editors and the publishers confidently believe that the Book of Facts contains by far the largest amount of precise and accurate information on subjects of general interest that has ever been condensed into a single volume." Such are the pretensions of the work before us. The alternative title, "A Classified History of the World," and an avowed indebtedness to Haydn's 'Dictionary of Dates,' define its scope. The compiler of such a repository has a choice of several aims. He may seek to present in small compass an epitome of universal history, arranged with a due sense of proportion, recognizing the principle of development, and allotting to each country the space which its part in the history of civilization demands. Or he may cull strange facts from out-of-the-way sources with a view to explaining allusions which would be obscure to men of small libraries. Or he may seek to arrange a compromise between these two aims. In this case he abandons exact symmetry, adapting himself to the requirements of a given community. Sometimes he travels main roads and sometimes by-paths; but, wherever he goes, he is on the lookout for what will be most useful to his special audience, and so will be sure to add detail on subjects connected with the national history.

Mr. Willsey has chosen the last of these three courses. Haydn and Vincent, who had an English audience, seldom vouchsafed to include an American fact. This defect was partially remedied in Harper's reprint of 1869, where the events of the Revolution, of the war of 1812, of the Mexican and of the Indian wars were compiled by the late Benson J. Lossing; but the amount of distinctively American information then given was meagre in comparison with that which Mr. Willsey presents. To take a single instance, in 1869 the article "United States of America" filled thirteen columns. It

now fills one hundred and eighteen. Nor are the States neglected for the sake of the Union. Massachusetts and New York get eleven pages each, and Rhode Island is given seven columns. The growth of the larger cities is also traced in detail.

One's first thought is to compare the 'Book of Facts' with its model in point of bulk. Here Haydn has been left far behind. The new material must equal in extent that of the old which has been incorporated. The bare statement that the work contains nineteen hundred columns of compressed and substantially accurate information means a great deal. This, however, is not all; Haydn has not merely been supplemented, he has been rewritten. The amount of labor involved in such an undertaking must have been enormous, and at least argues that kind of painstaking genius which Carlyle has praised. Greater precision marks the new work throughout. The system of cross-references has been retained and expanded. A host of facts can be found under any one of several heads, much to the advantage of the befogged inquirer. The printing is wonderfully accurate, and the typography commendable except in the matter of the headlines, where, for example, FRA is a poor substitute for FRANCE in an article covering nine pages.

While the merits of the book are easy to define, opinion will vary more as to its limitations. The field of history is an open tourney-ground, and it would be strange if a compiler could satisfy every one. We should say that this reconstituted Haydn would be of eminent service to the general American reader, but that it is not an ideal vade-mecum for the systematic student. When the supposed wants of the general American reader contend for space with the main lines of historical progress, the latter have to go to the wall. Speaking roughly, the affairs of this continent occupy more pages than are devoted to Egypt, Assyria, Greece, Rome, Italy, France, and Germany together. And in so far as historical perspective is thus lost, the book falls short of the ideal. But the attainment of anything like the ideal is apt to be indefinitely postponed because so few people seek to get at the relative importance of things. What is nearest is largest. Now, until a certain amount of national objectivity is gained throughout the world, we shall be forced to content ourselves with books of historical reference which are out of scale. This is a general criticism which indicts a universal shortcoming. Mr. Willsey's "Classified History of the World" is no more out of scale than the original English Haydn. The "Histoire Générale," edited by Lavisse and Rambaud, devotes more than its fair share of attention to France; and we all know how the Germans, the most objective of men, have come to write the history of the world from the standpoint of January 18th, 1871.

A more particular limitation reveals itself in what might almost be called a want of sound historical training. A few illustrations will explain what is meant. *Ancient history* is defined as follows: "Beginning in the Scriptures 4004 B. C., and with Herodotus about 1687 B. C.; is considered to end with the fall of the Eastern [*sic*] Empire, 476 A. D." For *Middle Ages* we are referred to *Dark Ages*, where we get the definition, "a term applied to the Middle Ages; according to Hallam about 1,000 years from the invasion of France by Clovis, 486, to that of Naples by Charles VIII., 1495. Learning was at a low ebb." "*Renaissance*, the revival of the classic style of art in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, under the Medici and others." Again, the preface states that the compiler has taken from Haydn and his successors "every fact which has more than a narrow or local interest." But on beginning with the letter A we soon find that *Ægospotami*, which Haydn included, has been dropped. Unless one is prepared to throw over the authority of Thucydides, the Peloponnesian war was a struggle of more than "a narrow and local interest." The battle by which Athens lost her last hope of imperial power ought not to have been deprived of its separate heading.

These are some of the wider considerations which are suggested by the 'Book of Facts.' In passing to the examination of specific errors, it is only fair to remind the reader of the extensive area traversed, and the difficulty of checking each statement so as to secure perfect accuracy. That an occasional lapse should occur is inevitable, and ought not to destroy confidence in the whole work. The geographical notices are not in keeping with the usual precision. They are often vague, and are not always accurate, *e. g.*, "*Gloucester*, a *seaport* town of England"; "*Mont Blanc*, in the *Swiss* (Pennine) Alps." *Montreal*, under its own heading, is styled "the *second* city in Lower Canada," and under the heading of the *American Association for the Advancement of Science* is twice placed in Ontario. The Dominion of Canada is confused with the two Canadas: "*British America* comprises the dominion of Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, Labrador, British Columbia, and Vancouver's Island." The definition of *Pamirs*, "a lofty *mountain ridge* in Turkestan, central Asia," does not represent the latest geographical knowledge on the subject. The Marne is not one of the tributaries of the *Rhine*, as we are told at p. 682, nor is Strassburg situated "on the banks" of the latter river. A statement which shows palpable ignorance of historical geography is borrowed from Haydn: *Savoy* is described as "formerly a province in n. Italy, east of Piedmont." No uninformed reader could possibly make out from this that the possessions of the House of Savoy lay at first on the northern slopes of the Alps, and that only by marriage, grant, and conquest did they tend to become Italian. But the most complicated blunder is to be found under *Bernard, Mount St.*, "so called from a monastery founded on it by Bernardine Menthon in 962. Velan, its highest peak, about 8,000 feet high, is covered with perpetual snow. Hannibal, it is said, led his army, by this route, over the little St. Bernard pass into Italy (218 B. C.); and in May, 1800, Bonaparte crossed with his troops by the same road." This item ought to be completely rewritten, for it contains more than one error besides its confusion of the Great with the Little St. Bernard. Hospices on both passes were established by St. Bernard of Menthon, but the date, 962, should not be given for either without qualification. Canon Bourgeois, Prior of the Great St. Bernard, says that in neither case can the date of foundation be ascertained with certainty, though the Great St. Bernard hospice was founded about the end of the tenth century. The height of the Velan, "the domed Velan with his snows," is 12,353 feet. No Alpine mountain of 8,000 feet "is covered with perpetual snow." Hannibal's route across the Alps is, of course, an open question. Mommsen declares for the Little St. Bernard, but several distinguished geographers and Alpinists have other theories. It is certain that the Marengo army did not cross, as is stated, by the Little St. Bernard. Three instances of haziness in geographical definition are afforded by p. 902. "*Valtelline*, n. Italy, a district near the Rhætian Alps." It would have been much better to add, "the upper valley of the Adda." "*Vatican*, Rome, the ancient Mons Vaticanus, a hill of Rome." No intimation of its place on the Trastevere side is given. "*Vaud*, a Swiss canton, long held by the Franks," etc.

In another group may be placed a considerable number of notices which seem hardly adequate. Individual judgment varies so much as to what is important that one ought not to complain of omissions unless glaring. But when a topic is broached at all, completeness of survey is not too much to demand., *e. g.*, "*Latin Union*, that of France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, to maintain the use of the same coinage, from 1865 to 1880." But the Union has since received accessions, viz., Spain, Greece, Servia, and Rumania. The article on *Coroner* does not show that the functions of that officer were ever wider than they are at present. Under *Self-denying Ordinance* the famous measure of 1645 is mentioned, along with a somewhat similar measure of the colony of Victoria in 1858, but the compiler quite overlooks the most momentous of self-denying ordinances, the one which, in 1791, shut out members of the National Assembly from the Legislative Assembly. The vicissitudes of *scrutin de liste* and *scrutin d'arrondissement* in France are partially traced, but the account stops with Welbeck [*sic*]-Rousseau's bill of 1885. The impression left is that France still retains *scrutin de liste*. On *High and Low Church* we get nothing more recent than Dr. Sacheverell. A list of imaginary political systems includes Sir Philip Sidney's 'Arcadia,' and omits the 'Leviathan' of Hobbes. *Trier* is not credited with its Roman remains. John Bright is not spoken of in connection with *Cave of Adullam*, nor Huxley in connection with *Agnostic*.

Finally, let us review a few errors taken at large. Mr. Willsey is not happy in his account of Justinian's codification. While there is no separate title for Corpus Juris Civilis, some of its component parts are treated under special heads. A list of codes comprises "the code of the Emperor Justinian in 529—a digest from it made in 533." The Digest was indeed issued in 533, but, so far from being based on the Codex Constitutionum of 529, it is a series of selections from the writings of thirty-nine jurisconsults. An equally elementary mistake occurs in the description of the Novels. "*Novels* (Novellæ), a part of Justinian's Code, published 535." *Heruli:* No good warrant exists for the assertion that Odoacer became "King of Italy, 476," although it has often been made—among others by Bryce (whom Freeman brought to book) in the first edition of the 'Holy Roman Empire.' "*Interim of Augsburg*, a decree of the Emperor Charles V. in 1548 to reconcile Catholics and Protestants, which entirely failed." The Interim is not usually represented as a step towards conciliation. This reminds one of some phrases in an inscription on the bust of Pius IV., S. Maria Maggiore, Trent: "Profligata hæreticorum pravitas, recta professio, disciplinaque stabilita, reddita orbi Christiano pax." The "reconciliation" of the Interim and the "peace" of the Catholic reaction belong to the same species. This is not the only sixteenth-century slip. The date of the publication of 'Utopia' is cited three times, and twice wrongly, 1548 instead of 1516. Lyly's 'Euphues,' which appeared in 1579, the

same year with the 'Shepherd's Calendar' and Gosson's 'School of Abuse,' is put down 1581. *Erastus* is the Greek, not the Latin, equivalent of Lieber, and *Zwingli* did not "separate Switzerland from the papal dominion as Luther did Saxony": the battle of Kappel, the Borromean League, and the War of the Sonderbund are events which prove the contrary. *Caliph* is successor, not "vicar or lieutenant." The *Hundred Years' War* came to an end with the fall of Bordeaux, 1453, not in 1437; and the *Wars of the Roses* with the battle of Bosworth, 1485, not in 1471. Under *Sacrament* the story is repeated that the Emperor Henry VII. of Luxemburg was poisoned "by a priest in the consecrated wafer." The charge should have been brought, if at all, against a Dominican friar. It is almost certainly false, and is chiefly memorable for having produced one of the choicest pieces of billingsgate in existence. Haydn had "*Neustria*, or West France, a kingdom allotted to Clotaire by his father Clovis at his death in 711. His descendant, Charlemagne, became sole King of France in 771." In revision 711 has been changed to 511, but the rest of the statement is allowed to stand. On the following page we are told that "Newfoundland consented to union with the dominion of Canada, March, 1869." Judge Prowse, in his recent and excellent 'History of Newfoundland,' says of the 1869 election: "The result was an overwhelming defeat for the Confederate party; they were simply annihilated, and, from that day to this, Confederation has never been put forward before the country as a practical political question."

The foregoing list of mistakes will show that the 'Book of Facts' is not immaculate. It would be easy to draw up another list of omissions and inconsistencies, but, remembering the dimensions and detail of this and kindred works, we refrain. We even hesitate to suggest the correction of a shortcoming which amusingly enlivens this weighty compilation, viz., in the indication of French pronunciation. "Loa des suspekts'" (*loi des suspects*), "oc-trwa'" (*octroi*), "let'r de ka shā'" (*lettre de cachet*), and "ko-ne'-sān-s dê tan" (*connaissance des temps*) will give some idea of the editor's wild phonetics. A German sample is "länt'-vār" for *Landwehr*. For its strong points, and they are many, the book merits and is sure of a wide use.

THE *CHALLENGER* EXPEDITION.—II.

Report on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of H. M. S. Challenger during the years 1872–76: A Summary of the Scientific Results. By John Murray, one of the Naturalists of the Expedition. In two parts, with Appendices. London. 1895.

In addition to the collecting of the strictly deep-sea animals, tow-net experiments were made by the *Challenger*, at depths of 500, 1,000, and even 2,000 fathoms, which led Murray to believe that the intermediate zones of depths were inhabited. More recent experiments have thrown considerable doubt on the conclusions of Murray, and seem to indicate that there is a limit, somewhere about 250 or 300 fathoms from the surface, at and below which pelagic organisms either do not exist or occur very rarely. The question of the bathymetrical extension of pelagic organisms is complicated from the fact that we know as yet but little of the composition of the so-called pelagic fauna, even within the depth at which it is known to occur, and still further from the fact that, as these organisms die, their carcasses must be caught by the nets on their way down to the bottom, where they serve as food for the deepsea-bottom species.

The pelagic algæ are the primary source of food for the majority of pelagic and deep-sea animals. Murray looks upon them and Radiolaria as well as Foraminifera as probably the descendants, slightly modified, of an ancient and universal fauna and flora derived from the simplest forms of life, which, perhaps, appeared in the accumulations about the mud line in pre-Cambrian times. Pelagic Radiolaria and Foraminifera occur in great abundance in pre-Cambrian rocks, and from this Murray infers that as they to-day abound in regions where the water has a relatively high temperature, the pre Cambrian sea must have been a warmer sea as a whole than the existing oceans. Murray points out the absence of Pteropods provided with calcareous shells of large size in the arctic and antarctic regions, and contrasts the coral-reef areas of the tropics and their absence in polar regions and at great depths with what existed in palæozoic and even later geological times, when we had massive reefs. From this he concludes that the waters of these ancient oceans must have had a temperature of from 65° to 70° Fahr. at the poles—a temperature favoring the deposition of carbonate of lime.

Murray believes that in early palæozoic times the ocean basins were not so deep as at the present time, and that life was then either absent or represented only by bacteria and other low forms in great depths, as appears to be the case at present in the Black Sea, and that there was, in all likelihood, also insufficient oxygen in deep water to support a deep-sea fauna. He argues from the evidence of the fauna and flora of the carboniferous period that there must have been an almost complete equality in the distribution of light and heat at that epoch. In early mesozoic times, cooling at the poles and differentiation into zones of climate probably commenced. The colder and denser water descended to greater depths of the ocean, and carried with it a large supply of oxygen, making life in the deep sea possible for the first time. Of the explanations which have been given to account for this uniform condition of light and heat all over the globe, Murray (who came independently to give the same explanation) adopts the one suggested by Blandet, which attributes these conditions to the very much greater size of the sun in the early stages of the earth's history. This explanation, however, has not found favor with physicists.

The general similarity between the littoral faunas and floras of the Arctic and Antarctic regions has been noted by many naturalists. The resemblance between the animals from the dredgings and trawlings in high southern latitudes and those from like positions in high northern latitudes is frequently pointed out by the naturalists who have written the *Challenger* memoirs. They have given various explanations for the existence of representative species north and south of the equator. Murray has made an analysis of the species procured south of the Tropic of Capricorn (about 3,000), which shows that fully 88 per cent. are limited to the southern zone, while only 12 per cent. extend to the tropical and northern zones; and again that 6 per cent. of the species captured in the southern zone are recorded in the northern zone, but not from the intervening tropical zone. This points to a greater similarity between the widely separated polar zones than between contiguous zones. Examining the species found in the southern zone at greater depths than 500, 1,000, and 1,500 fathoms, he finds that nearly 80 per cent. are limited to the southern zone, and nearly 7 per cent. occur in the northern and southern zones and not in the intervening tropical zone. From this Murray concludes that there is not sufficient evidence for the belief in a universal deep-sea fauna of great antiquity. There are, according to him, many indications that the migration into deep water has taken place continuously since mesozoic times, when possibly cooling set in at the poles and is even going on now. The indications that this migration is taking place principally from polar regions are more distinct than those of migration from any other quarter.

The deep-sea forms with archaic characters probably represent very ancient groups which we may consider the remnants of faunæ that have come down to our times from remote geological periods. Their discovery is only in the line of evidence of the permanence of other ancient types, such as Lingula, the horse-shoe crabs, Pentacrinus, Ceratodus and other animals the representatives of mesozoic or tertiary types among echinoderms, crustacea, sponges, and fishes, which are found in shallower waters. Moseley regarded the pelagic animals as the original stock from which other marine faunæ had sprung, so that in early ages animals with pelagic larvæ would naturally spread over greater reaches of the ocean both in the shallow waters and towards the deeper parts of continental areas. Murray infers that animals with pelagic larvæ would, on the cooling of the water at the poles, be either killed off or be driven to the tropics. There seems to be much in favor of the theory that in the tropical regions we have the remnants of a once universally distributed shallow-water fauna. The similarity of the fauna of the polar regions would be accounted for by the disappearance of its original shallow-water fauna, which had been replaced by the migration shorewards of the fauna near the 100-fathom line.

Murray calls attention to the great contrast existing between the marine faunæ of the East and West coast of Africa. He argues from this that the faunæ have been separated a longer time than the faunæ on each side of the Isthmus of Panama, where we find a number of species identical on both sides of the Isthmus. From the geographical distribution of allied species he further concludes that the land masses of the Antarctic and Great Southern Ocean have been separated sufficiently long to admit of specific variations arising even in the cold Antarctic waters—a view which is opposed to the existence of an extended Antarctic continent, connecting all other continents by their southern extremities in recent geological times. Had this been the case, we might look for many circumpolar species as in the northern hemisphere, where continuous coast lines have existed for immense periods of time in arctic and boreal latitudes.

It was noted during the *Challenger* expedition that particles of quartz were absent from the deposits towards the central portions of the oceanic basins, while small particles of quartz characterize the deposits laid down near shore. Murray thus draws a broad distinction between terrigenous deposits containing quartz particles and pelagic deposits in which they are almost wholly absent; so that while it is true that there are numerous examples of rocks apparently laid down in a deep sea, it must have been in a deep sea in close proximity to some then existing land. It is, however,

very doubtful if there is any continental rock which has been laid down under conditions similar to those under which pelagic deposits are now being formed at a considerable distance from continental land. According to Murray, lime, iron, magnesia, manganese, and other alkalies have accumulated in the abyssal deposits of the central oceans at the expense of the continental rocks, and have been deposited there by chemical changes on areas of the seabed where there has been an exceedingly slow rate of accumulation. Murray concludes that the former land masses existing in the comparatively shallow oceanic basins of former ages may be the submerged bases of oceanic islands which consist wholly of eruptive rocks. It is very probable that the oceanic areas have not in abyssal or pelagic areas been subjected in earlier geological history to such revolutions as have remodelled the continental areas, and certainly not during any of the later geological periods.

The example set by the *Challenger* has been followed by other nations, and they have filled some of the gaps left by that expedition. The French, with the *Travailleur* and *Talisman*, have explored the Eastern Atlantic off the northwestern coast of Africa. The Italians and Austrians have examined the Mediterranean and sent expeditions to circumnavigate the globe, but their results are not to be compared with those of the *Challenger*. The Swedes and Norwegians have devoted their energies to the northern Atlantic. England has sent minor expeditions off her coasts. The *Investigator* has dredged in parts of the Indian Ocean. The United States Coast Survey steamer *Blake* has, for a series of years, investigated the waters of the Gulf of Mexico, of the Caribbean, and western Atlantic. The United States Fish Commission steamer *Albatross*, not satisfied with scouring the continental slope of the eastern and western coasts of the United States, has extended her field of work to the Bering Sea, and has made one campaign in the Panamic district. And, finally, the Prince of Monaco has constructed a yacht especially intended for deep-sea work. The results of all these expeditions are gradually coming before the public, and serve to confirm and complement the observations of the *Challenger*. Covering limited areas, they are naturally carried on with greater detail, impossible in an expedition covering the ground surveyed by the *Challenger*. It is greatly to be hoped that similar investigations may hereafter be carried on by Government vessels from well selected stations, so that the work so well started relating to the physics, chemistry, geology, and biology of the sea may be continued under the most favorable conditions.

Those only who have had the good fortune to be engaged in similar expeditions can form any idea of "the enormous labor connected with preserving, cataloguing, and packing the collections on board," and of that involved in their subsequent examination and distribution to specialists in many parts of the world. Men of science are grateful to Dr. Murray for his share in the great undertaking which has come to a close. It is to his untiring zeal, to his capacity for work, to his tact under most trying conditions, to his personal sacrifices, and to his unbounded enthusiasm on behalf of the *Challenger* expedition that science owes the completion of an exploration and of researches connected with it "which mark the greatest advance in the knowledge of our planet since the celebrated geographical discoveries of the fifteenth and sixteenth century."

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES.

A History of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States. By Thomas O'Gorman, Professor of Church History in the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C. [American Church History Series.] New York: The Christian Literature Co. 1895.

An author's opening paragraph is apt to be his worst, and Prof. O'Gorman's is not exceptional in this respect. If it sounded the keynote of the whole performance, the happiest would be those who did not stay for more. But it does not, while still we have throughout rather the advocacy of the religious partisan than the impartiality of the historian, and here and there a splenetic outburst well calculated to make the judicious smile or grieve. It is hardly to be hoped that the class of persons attracted to the A. P. A. will furnish a quota, however small, to the readers of Prof. O'Gorman's story; but, if it should, it is interesting to imagine how it would impress them, especially its note of injured innocence, which is perhaps the most characteristic that it sounds. They have not been accustomed to think of the Roman Catholic Church in America as a persecuted church, a church suffering from unjust discriminations. The Jesuits of their imagination are not the saints and martyrs of Prof. O'Gorman's glowing admiration. There is much here that they would find profitable for warning and rebuke and instruction in ecclesiastical history. But if the general view is far more just than that of their brutal misconception, it is not as complete as possible. The Protestant jealousy of Roman Catholic expansion is not so entirely irrational and absurd as it would be if what is here apparent were the length and breadth of the whole matter.

But it is not as if all that has been neglected or suppressed were of the less flattering kind. Once we have passed from Part I., "The Mission Period," to Part II., "The Organized Church," the choice of material is as unhappy for the general reader as up to this point it is attractive and impressive. Everywhere there is a nervous insistence on the Americanism of the author's church which is perhaps excusable and is certainly amusing. One of its traits is a shame-faced avoidance of the terms Roman Catholicism and Catholicism. Instead we have Catholicity, a silly affectation, and appropriate only as the designation of a religious temper, not of a religious institution.

The book is generally well written, but especially so in the early parts, many of which are freshened as by a wind blowing across the pages of Parkman's delightful histories. The arrangement of the matter is perhaps the best possible, but that it is distracting there can be no doubt. Each set of missions is taken up separately and carried on to the conclusion of the mission period, and thus we are obliged to retrace the same chronological course ten or twelve times. To obtain a setting for his missionary annals, Prof. O'Gorman is obliged to make a liberal draught upon the annals of discovery and exploration. For the discovery and exploration he would, indeed, claim a religious inspiration, and it must be confessed that the strands of secular greed and religious zeal are twisted so closely that to distinguish them is difficult. The account of the Spanish missions contrasts more sharply than any other with the average conceptions of our Protestant communities; but, when all is said, what have we but an account of general mismanagement redeemed by instances of splendid personal devotion and heroic sacrifice and death? The missionary work was almost entirely that of the regular clergy. The mistake, we are assured, was in not sending the secular clergy to reap and garner where the regulars had tilled and sown. There was a lamentable series of collisions between the seculars and regulars, and between the latter, more particularly, and the military representatives of the Spanish throne. Spanish and French alike endeavored to hold the country by a tenure too much akin to that of the Roman occupation of Great Britain, the futility of which is one of the most easily explicable of all the miracles of history.

Hardly can Prof. O'Gorman be denied the satisfaction which he takes in the zeal of his church as compared with the Protestant sects for the conversion of the Indians. But then, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the Roman Church had an organized propaganda perfected by centuries of use, which the Protestants had not, and the predominance of ritual in its religion made the transition easier for the Indian than did the Protestant dogmatics. For him the conversion was but the exchange of one system of magic for another, of the "medicine-man" for the priest whose water of baptism was a new and more effective charm. How deep the conversion went, how much more it meant than submission to baptism, it would be good to know, but on this head we have little information. In New Mexico, where whole tribes were gathered in, the suddenness with which they renounced their new faith and fell upon the intruders forces from Prof. O'Gorman the confession that the survivals of their heathenism were the most dangerous elements in the situation. It is a melancholy fact that scarcely less dangerous were the habits of the intruders—their intemperance and licentiousness. By far the most interesting chapter of the Spanish section is chapter vii., which treats of the Californian missions. The success of these was coextensive with their segregation of the natives in communities subject to monastic supervision. A scheme so artificial could not be indefinitely maintained, but with its breaking down came a general relapse of the natives to their original condition, miserably qualified by contact with the Spanish settlers. Could any confession be more shameful than that such contact was fatal, seeing that it was contact with a race that had enjoyed the advantages of Christianity for a thousand years? That the Californian missions cannot be credited to Prof. O'Gorman's darling Jesuits is one of his regrets, and another is La Salle's antipathy for the order. But he has many narratives that are eloquent with their well-earned praise. Father Druillettes among the Abenakis of Maine wears his halo with a delightful difference from the majority, for he "was in no hurry to give baptism," and insisted on total abstinence from fire-water and cessation from inter-tribal wars, as well as the abandonment of the native superstitions, as conditions of admission to the Church.

That there is a lack of proportion in Prof. O'Gorman's book, an exaggeration of the earlier and more picturesque elements at the expense of what is later and of more importance, is evident from the fact that the mission period has 274 pages, and the whole of the last century of organization and expansion only 230; while of recent matters of first-rate importance there is next to nothing. Did the historian "remember to forget" the declaration of infallibility, or merely forget it? It is true that this was a declaration of the whole Church, but as such the American part was as much

concerned in it as any other, and the attitude of the American bishops towards such a conspicuous development of dogma is certainly an interesting matter. Moreover, the reader would naturally like to know something about the relation of American "Catholicity" to the great questions of criticism and science which have so agitated the Protestant churches during the last half century; but of these things we have not a syllable, and but one sentence, which may mean anything or nothing, in regard to the infallible wisdom of the Pope concerning the relations of capital and labor. A full discussion of the most recent developments of the school question was to be expected, but here again we have only "brilliant flashes of silence." In short, Prof. O'Gorman's second part is devoted almost exclusively to the episcopal expansion of the Church, to the creation of new bishops and archbishops, with brief personal histories of these great ecclesiastics. While the real good accomplished has been largely the work of faithful parish priests, their humble services are hopelessly, perhaps inevitably, obscured by the fierce light that beats on their superiors in the hierarchical order of supremacy. Either as unpalatable or unimportant, the growth of religious houses for men and women is but casually mentioned.

Apart from the hierarchical expansion, the interest of Prof. O'Gorman's second part centres in three particulars: "Trusteeism," European State interference, and Native American opposition. As for the last of these, much more is made of its earlier developments than of the later and more political, which did so much to break up the old political parties and made the formation of the Republican party more expeditious. Had Native Americanism prospered, we are assured that the South would have triumphed in the civil war. It was Catholic immigration that gave the North the men and the resources that enabled it to win the victory. If this claim is excessive, the same cannot be said of any that is made of anti-slavery service. It is certain that the South between Maryland and Louisiana never took kindly to Roman Catholicism, but the Church returned good for evil, and of the prophets against slavery none were found in her house. Father Mathew hastened to allay the fears his coming stirred in the pro-slavery camp. That the war was caused by slavery and tended logically to its destruction, these chapters give no sign. Two great events are named in the decade 1860–'70: they are Lincoln's death and the Pope's Syllabus. Nothing is said of Lincoln's emancipation proclamation and the constitutional prohibition of slavery.

An amusing episode was that in which Franklin figured as an acceptable adviser of the Roman Curia, urging the supremacy of the French hierarchy over the American churches. Nothing came of this, but for a long time the hand of the Irish church was heavy on the Papal court in its American dealings, whereby the manning of the church by native priests and bishops was considerably delayed. But, of all the troubles of the church, that growing out of "trusteeism" was the most serious. In New York and Philadelphia it had incidents of the greatest bitterness, prolonged through many years. Prof. O'Gorman does not enter into the philosophy of the matter so carefully as one might wish. He assumes the malignity of trusteeism—*i. e.*, the vesting of church property in trustees and their right to choose the parish priests. Evidently this system was incongruous with the centralizing logic of the church, but it was much less incongruous with American ideas of local self-government. It agreed very well with these, and from them drew its staying quality. Archbishop Hughes gave the system its fatal blow in New York, but in Buffalo it died a slower death. In conclusion, Prof. O'Gorman stoutly takes issue with the Roman Catholics who have insisted, extravagantly, as he thinks, on Roman Catholic losses in America. He shows conclusively that they have been much exaggerated; and still the Roman Catholic communion (9,077,865) is less than it logically ought to be in view of the Roman Catholic immigration and the average rate of increase in the general population.

THE BODY OF LATIN POETRY.

Corpus Poetarum Latinorum a se aliisque denuo recognitorum et brevi lectionum varietate instructorum edidit J. P. Postgate. Londini: Sumtibus G. Bell et filiorum. [New York: Macmillan & Co.] 4to. 1894. Vol. I. Price $6 50.

The *Corpus* of Walker (1827) and that of Weber (1833) have long been almost useless. Their texts are now obsolete as a result of the exact investigations into the readings and relationships of the MSS. of the Roman poets to which so many of the greatest scholars have devoted themselves for two generations, and the development of text criticism and emendation into a science has left the more autoschediastic efforts of early scholars far in the rear. During the course of these investigations and of this development an attempt to produce a new *Corpus* would have been rash in the extreme, but at length a time has come when scholars, reposing with some degree of security upon the labors of the past fifty years, may dare to print the works of the Latin poets with greater confidence than was ever possible before. This has been done for the different writers by the various specialists who have given themselves each to the study of his chosen author, and the names of Vahlen and L. Müller, of Lachmann and Munro, of Ribbeck, Ellis, Schwabe, Keller, and Merkel seem each hardly complete without the addition of the name of the ancient poet with whom the modern scholar appears to be indissolubly connected. Now or never the time was ripe for a new collection of results into a fresh *Corpus*.

But was it ever worth the doing? Inquiry shows that opinion is divided. The present reviewer, for instance, cannot fancy himself carrying away for his vacation reading-tour this ponderous tome, held with difficulty on the knees, instead of ten convenient little volumes which weigh altogether no more and take up no greater space in a box than this one *corpus*. And he shrewdly suspects that the chief part it will play in his library will be that of a dust-gatherer. But *quot homines;* and certainly to one class of readers the work should prove most useful. The non-professional scholar, the man of "fine literary tastes" (a character by no means to be despised, in spite of the sniffs which often disturb the air about him), needs a book like this to take the place of his ancestral Delphins and Anthons, if he wants to know with any sort of exactness what it was that the Latin poets really wrote. And, possibly, a professional or two may keep it with his dictionaries in his revolving bookcase (that great boon to the sedentary), and consult it to save himself the trouble of crossing the room to his shelves.

For it is a book in which one may place confidence, and, if it was to be made at all, probably no better editor could have been found than Dr. Postgate. He has often given his proofs, and he is known in the classical world as a sound and thorough scholar. His natural conservatism well fitted him for the present task, and his reputation will be enhanced by the manner in which he has performed it. This first volume of the *Corpus* contains Ennius ('Annals' and 'Satires'), Lucretius, Catullus, Virgil, Horace, Tibullus, Propertius, and Ovid. It consists of about six hundred pages, of which Ovid occupies almost exactly half. The page is printed in double columns of from sixty to seventy verses, with the apparatus at the bottom. The type is necessarily small, but it is clear enough for continuous reading, although economy of space precluded "leading" enough to make it easy to find a passage by a glance down the page. The book has been long in preparation, and the first author, Ennius, went to press in 1888. The dates of the printing of the others are given with scrupulous exactness in the special prefaces to each author.

The general principles which Dr. Postgate laid down for his editors required them to give, in either the text or the critical notes, all the important readings of the best MSS.; in dealing with conjectures to admit to the text only such as appeared certain, and to insert in the notes all the most important conjectures, by whomsoever made, which seemed to fall short of deserving the adjective *certissima*. The selection of these, as a whole, is excellently made, and few important conjectures are missing. In the matter of orthography, uniformity among the different authors was not sought save that the absolutely bad was to be corrected away, while all traces of genuine antiquity were to be left even at the risk of inconsistency. Dr. Postgate's remarks on this subject in his preface are highly commendable, though we note here (p. viii.) the misprint of Lucr. V. 714 f. for III., 713 f. The Romans were not under the thrall of any "Unabridged," and the Secular Games inscription should be a warning against pedantry in matters orthographic.

Coming to the authors, the text of Ennius is by L. Müller, and, being a reprint, with a few changes, of his edition of 1885, it hardly needs further comment here. The changes seem to be orthographical, and based upon Cicero's comments on Father Ennius's spelling. It was useless to expect it, but it is a pity that Müller should continue to pay no attention to the protests of Vahlen and Marx against his textual conclusions. The Lucretius is another reprint —of Munro's posthumous edition of 1886; the apparatus consisting of selections by Dr. Postgate from Munro and Lachmann, with some additions drawn from later researches in the MSS. The poem, of course, went to press before the appearance of the edition of the Discoverer of Lacunæ, Brieger. Dr. Postgate himself contributes his own excellent text of Catullus of 1889, which has already been reviewed in these columns. The works of Virgil were freshly edited for this *Corpus* by the late Prof. Nettleship, and the printing was fortunately finished before his death. He accepted to the full the sound doctrine that little is to be done for the text of Virgil by modern emendations. He used extreme caution in admitting any such into the body of the work, and even his apparatus contains but very few modern names. On the other hand, he held the ancient commentators in high esteem, and introduced many of their readings into his text, while his apparatus gives a full account of its condition in the fourth and fifth centuries. This edition of Virgil will commend itself to all conservative souls, wearied of the

ephemeral brilliancy of the emender or the polytropic shifts of the transposer, and we think it matter for regret that it is hidden away in this ponderous volume instead of appearing by itself in some handy form.

Horace, too, is freshly edited by Dr. James Gow, who is known in this country chiefly by his 'Companion to School Classics,' although specimens of his Horatian studies published in the *Classical Review* have attracted some notice. His apparatus is drawn from that of Keller's smaller edition of 1878, though it exhibits readings from fewer manuscripts than Keller's (16 instead of 24) and includes the *Blandinius antiquissimus*. For Dr. Gow has no sympathy with the theory that Cruquius was a humbug. His low opinion of the critical value of Keller and Holder's three classes has already been expressed in the *Classical Review*. Differing as he does from the two Germans on two such important points, it may seem strange that he should have been satisfied to follow their manuscript collations blindly: certainly it would have been more to his credit, and less confusing to those who are likely to consult this *Corpus*, had he confined himself to the exhibition of the readings of a very few manuscripts which he might have collated for himself. On the origin of our present text his own view is that there were two editions of Horace in antiquity, and that the scribe of our manuscripts had several copies of each, from which they followed now one and now another. Here and there we think that Dr. Gow has departed too widely from Dr. Postgate's principles about the admission of conjectures. Scholars will not agree that his conjecture of *expectate* (in the famous crux of *C.* iii. 14. 11) is to be called *certissima*, yet he admits it to his text. Such things as Oberdick's *ravi* for *pauci* of *Epod.* 13. 13 and Francke's *rabulae* for *tabulae* of *Sat.* ii. 1. 86 are not entitled to the honors even of the apparatus. And, to put it mildly, we prefer Horace's *quandoque bonus dormitat Homerus* to the *quando navos dormitat* of Mr. Housman.

In Tibullus we find the last Latin work of the lamented Edward Hiller, a revision of his admired edition of 1885. Dr. Postgate himself edits the puzzling Propertius, using Baehrens of 1880 and adding a collation of the manuscript of Holkham Hall. Conservatism was naturally to be expected of Dr. Postgate as compared with Baehrens, and this indeed we have, so far as verbal conjecture is concerned; but it is surprising to find how often he resorts to transposition and rearrangement. In the employment of this dangerous and, as many think, unscientific device, the sad examples of his predecessors seem to have had no terrors for him, and it needs no prophet to predict that he will have to suffer severely in his turn at the hands of the next editor of Propertius.

The works of Ovid were intrusted to five different hands, for here again we meet with new editions throughout. The 'Heroides' were the task of Mr. Arthur Palmer, the erotic works, the 'Metamorphoses' and the 'Halieutica' of Mr. G. M. Edwards, the 'Fasti' of Mr. G. A. Davies, the 'Tristia' and 'Ex Ponto' of Mr. S. G. Owen, and the 'Ibis' of Mr. Housman. The proper consideration of their united work calls for greater space than these columns could afford, and for a longer study than we now find possible.

Malay Sketches. By Frank Athelstane Swettenham. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xi, 289.

This is a series of remarkably vivid pictures of a life still scarcely touched by Western influence, yet in the moment of transition. The scenes described are not those which the ordinary traveller would see, for the Malay is reserved and suspicious, and his confidence must be won before he will reveal his true self to the white man. But in the course of the twenty years which Mr. Swettenham has lived among them as British Resident at Perak and other states of the Malay peninsula he has not only gained the confidence of the natives, but has become deeply interested in the people whom he has helped so long to govern. To enable others to share in this interest, to understand something of the Malay's life, and to "sympathize with the motives that will lead him to acts of high courage and self-sacrifice," is his purpose in writing this book.

The twenty-two sketches of which it consists may be divided into three groups, each of which is marked by some distinguishing characteristic. The pleasantest is that in which some of the amusements of the higher classes are described, as, the fishing picnics, the hunting for turtles' eggs, the symbolical dances, and the water-tobogganing. This last consists in sliding down the inclined face of a rock on a stream of water an inch or two deep into a shallow pool. In a larger group, tales of robbery, murder, and carrying off of women, the tragic element prevails, and the Malay, notwithstanding his kindly disposition, his sobriety, courage, and trustworthiness, is shown to be thoroughly "impregnated with vice." Among these is an incident, told with great simplicity and power, of the homicidal mania known as *měng-âmok*, or "running amuck," though this term is also applied to "the onslaught of a body of men in war time." In this case a priest, an elderly man of devotional habits, came quietly to his wife and her brother, and, after asking their pardon, murdered them. Then, rushing out from the house, he killed and wounded seven other persons before escaping to the jungle. Here he remained for two days, and then, with his madness unabated, returned to his village, but, before he could do further harm, was slain. No cause was suggested for this sudden development of a murderous instinct, but it is "quite possible that the man was suffering under the burden of some real or fancied wrong which, after long brooding, darkened his eyes and possessed him with this insane desire to kill."

The mysterious element which enters so largely into the life of all Eastern peoples is the characteristic of the remaining group of stories. They are all based on facts which came under the author's own observation, and are related by him without the slightest attempt at explanation. Accounts of the magic mirror, the divining-rod, the exorcising of evil spirits, and the detection of a thief by the twisting bowl, are more or less common, but the *latah* is not so well known. This is an influence, akin to hypnotism, exerted upon a person whose attention has been suddenly arrested by a touch or noise or a meaning glance; during which he will do whatever he is "told or signed to do without hesitation, whether the act signified is difficult, dangerous, or painful." Two of Mr. Swettenham's police force were subjects of this "disease," and were continually being baited by their companions. On one occasion a roll of matting was presented to the younger of these men with the words, "Kâsim, here is your wife."

"Even now I do not forget the smile of beatitude and satisfaction with which Kâsim Minor regarded that undesirable and figureless bundle. Breathing the words in a low voice, almost sighing to himself, 'Kâsim, here is your wife,' he embraced the matting with great fervor, constantly repeating, 'My wife! my wife!' Some one said, 'Kiss her!' and he kissed her—repeatedly kissed her. Then, by another inspiration (I do not say from whence), some one brought up the other Kâsim, and, introducing him to the other side of the roll of matting, said, also very quietly, 'Kâsim, this is *your* wife!' and Kâsim the elder accepted the providential appearance of his greatly desired spouse, and embraced her with not less fervor than his namesake and rival."

It may be added that neither of the men was married. The disease, which is probably hereditary, prevails among all the Malays, but is common only among certain tribes. The same kind of possession has been observed among Canadian lumbermen, though not in so marked a form, the subject being generally the butt of the camp.

The closing chapters of this deeply interesting book narrate the circumstances attending the murder of Mr. Birch, the first British Resident at Perak, and the narrow escape of the author, who was his subordinate, from the same fate. These, and many other of the sketches, in fact, throw much light on the methods by which Great Britain administers these strange lands, and exhibit the English official at his best as a man full of patience, courage, and resource. Though Mr. Swettenham aims only to portray the character and habits of life of the Malay, he describes the scenery of his land with great skill, so that one feels the strong resemblance between the jungle, beautiful yet often deadly to those who venture into it, and the people whose home it is. The make-up of the book is very attractive. It is admirably printed on thick paper, and yet is extraordinarily light.

A Handbook of English Composition. By James Morgan Hart, Professor of Rhetoric and English Philology in Cornell University. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1895.

This manual aims to supply a more practical mode of instruction in English composition; to serve this purpose for school and college; to interest and stimulate. It is marked by a fresh presentation, and by evident care in the choice of illustrations from standard authors. There is much novel treatment with but little innovation (as in terminology), and little claim to originality in the larger sense. The author's indebtedness to his predecessors is scrupulously acknowledged, and four leading works are evaluated at some length at the close. To these would have been added, we are sure, had Prof. Hart been aware of it, Dr. Edwin Herbert Lewis's masterly dissertation on 'The History of the English Paragraph' (Chicago University, 1894).

Prof. Hart begins with the Paragraph, that foster-child of silence and slow Time which is at last cutting such a figure in the text-books; and the rest of his doctrine is displayed in a systematic way. Nevertheless, he counsels in his preface an order of instruction by select chapters which departs from his scheme, and which he might have adopted as his natural arrangement if formal exposition were not the fashion in works of this kind. We do not say he would have done better thus, but he would have set an example of flexibility in development which it is one of the objects of such manuals, if not to inculcate, at least to illustrate and commend. Possibly, also, there would have been a gain in readability (independent of instruction under a teacher); but, as it is, we think our author has succeeded in his endeavor to interest. Nor does he repel by dog-

matism, though, like his predecessors, he is not altogether free from the bias of the personal equation. He thinks the word *engineer* "ought to be reserved for the professional man who designs structures, the civil engineer. The man who merely drives an engine ought not to be called an engineer." His advice about postal cards is, "Refrain scrupulously from all expressions of relationship, friendship, or other personal matters. Express no opinions. If possible, . . . omit the signature altogether." He does not forbid the use of *cablegram*, but he thinks the word objectionable on account of its formation. As Macaulay saw no need for *talented*, Prof. Hart dislikes *to wire* as being "a mere doublet of *to telegraph*." In word-breaking at the end of a line he makes a distinction between writing and print, and taboos such well-established breaks as angel-ic, look-ing, port-er, nation-al, complete-ly, cruel-ty, which he calls "bad, at least in writing." Punctuation, by the way, he strenuously confines to the service of the eye and not of the ear.

We have remarked few assertions as being too sweeping. One such (p. 294) is that in the sonnet a carrying over of the meaning from octave to sestet is not permissible, yet Petrarch does it in his lix. *in Morte*. The criticism of defective examples is not always beyond cavil. Tillotson is accused (p. 154) of tautology in certain couplings, since "*deceit* is the same as *cunning*, *effectual* is the same as *serviceable*." A blunder in the use of a relative is charged upon Swift (p. 135) in a sentence whose punctuation by a semicolon expressly denotes the antecedent. It is accounted "a singular blunder" in Ruskin to have written, "What wits anybody had became available to *them* again." Jowett is implicitly censured by the dictum: "*Those sort of*. This is still worse, yet one hears it frequently in conversation," for in the "Charmides" he translates thus: "at least not in this way, or not doing these sort of things?" The subtle unity in the passage from Goldsmith on p. 28 is overlooked in the quest for a formal unity in which the charm of style would have evaporated. Too much countenance is given (pp. 136-8) to the foolish heresy about the specific, rigid use of the relatives *that*, *who*, and *which*, which has sprung up in defiance not only of the best usage but of all-controlling euphony. It is certainly a useful discipline to extract the pith of sentences by omitting dispensable words, but we cannot allege "pleonasm" in every sentence susceptible of this treatment, as, "*There are* many *persons who* deny this," or maintain that this with the other "above sentences would be improved by omitting the italicized words," and that (p. 156) "we should not let a sentence pass until we are satisfied that it is reduced to its most direct and simple terms." Why not, analogically, welcome *wire* as a saving of two syllables over *telegraph*?

Excepting the chapter on punctuation (inadequate in good company, we will allow), we think the strength of this manual lies in Part III., "Some Practical Features of Composition," and "Miscellaneous Subjects." These alone would make it worth the while of any teacher to use Prof. Hart's work either in class or by way of reference.

The Ancient Bœotians: Their Character and Culture, and Their Reputation. By W. Rhys Roberts. Cambridge, Eng.: The University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

"Bœotian swine," says Mr. Roberts, "is a scurrilous proverb." So is "Welsh goat," and "Dutch courage," and "Scotch fiddle." The German calls the sediment at the bottom of his pipe a "Polack," and the Pole returns the compliment. There is a fine fund of neighborly malice to be found everywhere in history, and the Attics were no exception; and doubtless it is because we see so largely through Attic eyes that the Bœotians have become a byword for dulness—dulness of intellect and dulness of feeling. They were proverbially pachydermatous, and they accepted the reproach in a pachydermatous way. They may have said to themselves that the Greek word for "swine" was only a bad pun, and we know that the Greeks were tolerant of bad puns. And then the "boar swine" of Homer was a formidable animal and a poetical animal, and the sow was not the worst of female kind, as a certain one of their own poets hath said. So Corinna doubtless shrugged her pretty shoulders when her rival called her if he called her by that ugly name, and Pindar made mock of the charge of dulness implied by the proverb. For all that, the Bœotians have not escaped the brand of history, and Mr. Roberts has done well to review the evidence in his attractive book; and while even he despairs of reversing the verdict, he has pleaded successfully for a mitigation of the sentence.

Of course, one great difficulty lies in fixing the precise limits of the "ancient Bœotians." As soon as we cross the border we are confronted with a mixed population, of which Thebes claimed to be the head, but was not the head as Athens was the head of Attica. Orchomenus never forgot her ancient glory, and Platæa was ostentatiously anti-Theban. In the Persian war the Thebans sided with the invaders, partly from self-interest, partly from hatred of their neighbors. They were no better and no worse than many other Greek states which had not found out that there was a real Greece. Afterwards, when loyalty was the fashion, they put the blame upon the oligarchs, as if they were not an oligarchy at the time they made the plea. Mr. Roberts scores to the credit of the Bœotians the behavior of the Platæans and Thespians at that crisis; but, if we are to be just, their "patriotism" is not to be counted to them altogether for righteousness. There was a spice of anti-Theban malice in everything they did.

And yet, despite differences between the "city-states" within Bœotia—overbearing Thebes, pretentious Platæa, envious Tanagra—Bœotians were Bœotians as Americans are Americans; and just as Americans are "spotted" everywhere in Europe, despite all the differences which we see at a glance, so Bœotians were all more or less alike. They were overnourished by their victuals, which victuals were of the richest quality; and they were very much addicted to making music on wind instruments. Now it is very true that the famous watchword, "plain living and high thinking," might, in the judgment of some people, be as well reversed. "High living and plain thinking" has a great deal in its favor, and yet somehow there has always been a prejudice against the brain power of fat folk; and there is an ancient epigram on the fifer fellow whose sense is blown out together with his breath. But this is too large a theme for development here. Enough, the Bœotians had a certain unity of character, and Prof. Roberts, by his review of the facts, has helped the student of Greek life to understand the Bœotians better. The land of Hesiod, Pindar, and Plutarch needs no glorification in literature; Tanagra, as one risen from the dead, has of late years amply vindicated Bœotia in art; and Epaminondas, "the foremost man of Greece," is a double flower of culture and character that is nowhere to be matched in Greek history. Especially interesting is Mr. Roberts's elaborate parallel between the Bœotians and the Dutch, and yet the Dutch will hardly thank him any more than the Professor of Greek in the University College of North Wales, Bangor, would have thanked, say, the late Dr. Thirlwall for undertaking to unfold the resemblance between Wales and Bœotia.

Palestine Exploration Fund: Thirty Years' Work in the Holy Land. A Record and a Summary. 1865–1895. New and revised edition. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. 256. Illustrated.

The remarkable success of the Palestine Exploration Fund is due to several causes. The Fund is not a religious society, and accordingly it has received the support of Jews and Christians of every church. It has abstained from controversy, though it has not prevented its explorers from expressing their personal opinions on subjects in dispute. The co-operation of the War Department, which detailed officers and men of the Royal Engineers for the execution of the survey, gave to much of its work a guaranty of scientific accuracy, and placed its discoveries beyond the suspicion of serving any sectarian view. But its success is chiefly due to the high character of the persons chosen to conduct its explorations and excavations, and to the enthusiasm and skill with which they have performed their task. Among the best known of these are the late Prof. E. H. Palmer and Lawrence Oliphant, Sir Charles Warren, Sir Charles Wilson, Major Conder, M. Clermont-Ganneau, Messrs. Flinders-Petrie and Bliss, and last, Sir Walter Besant, the efficient secretary from 1868 to 1887, as well as the joint-author with Prof. Palmer of one of the Fund's publications, 'The History of Jerusalem.' He is also the editor of this book, in which is given a brief sketch of the circumstances connected with the organization of the society, and a record of its "thirty years' work," with detailed accounts of the most interesting results of each expedition. It originally appeared in 1886, and is now reissued without material change beyond an indication of the work of the last eight years and the addition of an excellent topical index.

The survey of Western Palestine, which was begun by Lieut. Conder in 1872 and completed by Lieut. (now Gen.) Sir H. H. Kitchener in 1877, is of course the monumental achievement of the Society. Sir Walter claims, with pardonable enthusiasm, that "nothing has ever been done for the illustration and right understanding of the historical portions of the Old and New Testaments, since the translation into the vulgar tongue, which may be compared with this great work." The results have been published in seven quarto volumes, consisting of memoirs or field-notes written to accompany the sheets of the great map; name-lists; papers on archæology, topography, etc.; an account of the excavations and researches in Jerusalem, a description of the flora and fauna of the country, and several maps large and small. The other publications of the society are twenty-eight in number, exclusive of the Quarterly Statement, whose seventeen volumes are a treasury of facts of every kind relating to Palestine and its inhabitants. Among the more recent important works are Mr. Bliss's account of the excavations of Tell el-Hesy, and the volumes descriptive of the par-

tial survey of Eastern Palestine. This undertaking was interrupted by the Turkish Government in 1881, and has not since been resumed, as "every attempt to obtain a firman has hitherto proved unavailing." The whole cost of carrying on the society up to the close of 1894, exclusive of the money received for its publications, was $375,000—not a large sum, considering what it has accomplished. In case any of our readers should care to aid this useful and excellently conducted Fund, we will add that a subscription of five dollars a year sent to "Palestine Exploration Fund, No. 24 Hanover Square, W., London," will entitle a subscriber to receive, post free, a copy of the Quarterly Statement, besides other privileges.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A New Departure. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Balu, R. N. Russian Fairy Tales. From the *Skazki* of Polevoi. Chicago: Way & Williams.
Beers, Prof. H. A. Initial Studies in American Letters. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.
Bennett, Prof. W. H. The Book of Jeremiah, Chaps. XXI.–LII. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Blue, Kate L. The Hand of Fate: A Romance of the Navy. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Brugmann, Prof. Karl. A Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages. Vol. V. Indices of Vols. I.—IV. Westermann.
Carus, Paul. The Gospel of Buddha. 3d ed., revised. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.
Chesson, W. A. Name This Child: A Story of Two. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Cohen, Isabel E. Readings and Recitations for Jewish Homes and Schools. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Conversations with Walt Whitman. New York: E. P. Coby & Co. 50 cents.
Conway, Sir W. M. The Alps from End to End. London: A. Constable & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $7.
Cornish, C. J. Wild England of To-Day, and the Wild Life in It. Macmillan. $3.50.
Drage, Geoffrey. The Problem of the Aged Poor. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Drysdale, William. The Young Reporter. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Earle, Mrs. Alice M. Margaret Winthrop. [Women of Colonial and Revolutionary Times.] Scribners. $1.25.
Edgeworth, Maria. Ormond: A Tale. Macmillan. $1.25.
Eliot, Henrietta R., and Blow, Susan E. The Mottoes and Commentaries of Friedrich Froebel's Mother Play. Appletons.
Gissing, George. The Emancipated: A Novel. Chicago: Way & Williams.
Goodloe, Abbe Carter. College Girls. Scribners. $1.25.
Harrop, H. B., and Wallis, L. A. The Forces of Nature. Columbus, O.: Harrop & Wallis.
Herrick, Prof. Robert. George Eliot's Silas Marner. [English Classics.] Longmans, Green & Co.
Horstman, Prof. C. Yorkshire Writers: Richard Rolle of Hampole. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.60.
Jones, Richard. Peasant Rents. [Economic Classics.] Macmillan. 75 cents.
Judson, Prof. H. P. The Growth of the American Nation. Meadville, Pa: Flood & Vincent. $1.
Katzenberger, Frances Q. He Would Have Me Be Brave. Dayton, O.: Groneweg Printing Co.
Knox, T. W. In Wild Africa. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Laughton, J. K. Nelson. [Men of Action.] Macmillan. 60 cents.
Mackail, J. W. Latin Literature. Scribners. $1.25.
Macleod, Fiona. The Mountain Lovers. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Marryat, Capt. Jacob Faithful. Macmillan. $1.25.
Nitti, Prof. Francesco S. Catholic Socialism. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Oliphant, Mrs. Diana: The History of a Great Mistake. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Palmer, Frederick. Studies in Theologic Definition. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Roberts, A. W. Selected Lives from Cornelius Nepos. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. The Revolution of 1848. Scribners. $1.25.
Sanday, Prof. W., and Headlam, Rev. A. C. A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Epistle to the Romans. Scribners. $3.
Sergeant, Adeline. Out of Due Season: A Mezzotint. Appletons. $1.
Starr, Prof. Frederick. Some First Steps in Human Progress. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.
Stimson, Rev. H. A. Questions of Modern Inquiry. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Stoker, Bram. The Watter's Mou'. Appletons.
Tarver, J. C. Gustave Flaubert, as seen in his Works and Correspondence. Appletons. $4.
The Mysterious Voyage of the *Daphne*, and Other Stories for Boys and Girls. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.25.
The Publishers' Trade-List Annual. 1895. *Publishers' Weekly*.
The Story of Paul Boyton. Illustrated. London and Chicago: Paul Boyton.
The Whittier Year-Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Walker, Prof. Hugh. The Greater Victorian Poets. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Walker, S. F. Electricity in our Homes and Workshops. London: Whittaker; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Walsh, Marie. The Lost Paradise. Mascot Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Warden, Gertrude. The Gray Wolf's Daughter. International News Co
Wells, Prof. B. W. Labiche and Martin's Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Willard, Ashton R. A Sketch of the Life and Work of Domenico Morelli. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wright, Carroll D. The Industrial Evolution of the United States. Meadville, Pa: Flood & Vincent. $1.
Wright, W. A. Letters of Edward FitzGerald to Fanny Kemble, 1871–1883. Macmillan. $1.50.
Zieber, Eugene. Ancestry: Objects of the Hereditary Societies of the U. S. Philadelphia: Bailey, Banks & Biddle Co.
Zola, Emile. Jacques Damour. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 1895.

The Week.

THE efforts of the Republican platform-makers at Saratoga to deal with national issues were like the stone-rolling of Sisyphus or like those of a man pumping in a dry well. They say in the first place that the Wilson tariff is "the first step accomplished in the campaign for the annihilation of American industries." Immediately afterwards they "welcome the dawn of returning prosperity following the Republican victory of 1894"; but they hasten to say that this prosperity is much exaggerated, and that the recent restoration of wages has been unduly magnified by the Democrats. After such a logical setting forth of the tariff situation we might reasonably expect a lucid statement of the Republican programme, but all that we find is a declaration that "with a complete return of the Republican party to power, and the enactment of such remedial legislation as the conditions plainly require, we confidently look for a renewal of the prosperity that marked the quarter century of its government of the country." The advantage of this is, that the kind of remedial legislation needed is left to the unbiassed judgment of each voter. The only thing reasonably sure is, that it does not mean the restoration of the McKinley tariff, because if that had been the intention it would have been expressed. In fact, McKinley's name was not once mentioned either in the platform or in the other proceedings, while those of Morton, Harrison, and Reed were greeted with great applause.

The platform touching the silver question is sufficiently explicit, and in this matter is an improvement on former deliverances by the party in New York. It is in fine contrast with the platform of four years ago, when the party endorsed the policy of purchasing the product of American silver mines and issuing Treasury notes therefor. The Democrats of New York denounced that policy as embodied in the Sherman act, and demanded that every dollar coined should have the intrinsic value of every other dollar. There is not the least doubt that this declaration of the Democrats was an important factor in the election of Gov. Flower in 1891. This year the Democrats will have no such advantage, whatever they may say in their platform. It would not have come amiss if the Republicans had said something about taking the Government out of the banking business. It is possible that the Democrats may supply this deficiency.

The organ of the Manufacturers' Club in Philadelphia sniffs at the nomination of Gov. Morton for the Presidency by the Republican convention of New York as "a pretty compliment," but not to be taken seriously. Why not seriously? Because, according to the organ, Mr. Morton is "a New York banker with British connections." This is such a complete disqualification in its view that the subject is not worth talking about; yet if a New York banker with British connections is wanted, it suggests the name of J. Pierpont Morgan as far preferable, because the latter controls the Treasury now as well as the gold market and the railroads of the country. And so the editor continues at considerable length biting files and crunching glassware in the interest of free coinage, which has lately claimed even more of his attention than the tariff. Without seeing very far into the Republican council chamber, we are pretty well convinced that the objections to Mr. Morton are not on the score of his being a banker or having British connections. Most bankers of wide repute have British connections, and find them advantageous to their business. If they are advantageous to the banker, they must be so to the country of which he forms a part. It is hard to imagine the case of a banker whose prosperity is a good thing for the country if he scorns foreign connections, but a bad thing if he has a partnership in London. Mr. Morton has to plead guilty to that offence in common with the late Mr. Drexel, the present Mr. Morgan, the Browns, the Seligmans, the Lazards, the Kidders, and scores of others.

The poll of the next Congress on the silver question, undertaken by a committee of the Chamber of Commerce, confirms in a gratifying way the general impression that the next House will be overwhelmingly against free coinage. It will contain but 88 outspoken silverites, while 216 members are ready to declare themselves as opposed to free silver, and but 52 refuse to commit themselves either way. Classified by party, the free-silver Representatives number 30 Republicans, 51 Democrats, and 7 Populists. This showing impressively marks the extent to which the silver tide has ebbed in the popular branch of Congress since the day, November 5, 1877, when Bland carried his free-coinage bill through the House by a vote of 164 to 34. As for the Senate, it was then more conservative than the House, but now has the undisputed palm for financial madness. How Senators will vote in the next Congress the Chamber of Commerce committee is not able to say positively, though it is estimated that, even in the stronghold of the mining camps, sound money will have a majority. But this does not much matter. With at least seventy-five majority against free silver in the House, the heathen may rage in the Senate to their hearts' content, and the country will but have them in derision. It was, of course, known that no free-silver bill could become law as long as President Cleveland remained alive and in office; it is now known that no such bill will ever be sent to him to veto.

We are glad to see that a call for a national silver convention is to be issued in December, so that a silver ticket may be first in the field for the next Presidential election. The silver leaders show more than their customary shrewdness in admitting that they will be unable to capture the convention or platform of either Republicans or Democrats. Hence, to precipitate a break-up of the old parties, they propose to be "early in the field." This will, they think, "impress the country with their verve," and cause thousands, who are disgusted with the lack of silver verve in the old parties, to hasten to join what is to be "the most radical party going." They are quite right. With so long and hard a race as they have to run they cannot make too early a start. Their candidate for the Presidency will look well in the field all by himself, and can seem to be carrying the country unanimously until the time comes to put up the other candidates. For that season he can run well and have a great deal of glory all to himself. In fact, carrying elections and holding conventions in advance of all others seems to be the chief function of the silver agitators at present. The Illinois convention was the earliest on record, but it is now utterly forgotten, and the men who took part in it are ashamed of themselves. So much for being "early in the field."

The Rochester banks which last week turned over $250,000 in gold to the Treasury, accompanied their act with a statement in which they pat themselves on the back for "assisting" the Government. This is a mixing up of patriotism and business in a way that is bad for both. Who is the "Government" that is to be "assisted"? Why, so far as the present currency difficulties are concerned, the Government is the sovereign lawmaking power of this country — the Congress which, last winter, hooted down every law designed to put the Government beyond the need of assistance, and which, in the matter of the bond issue alone, voted with a whoop to throw away $16,000,000 of interest. Is there any virtue, any safety, in "assisting" such reckless spendthrifts? Organized charity has taught us the danger of pauperizing the poor. It is time that the danger of pauperizing the Government were beaten into the general head, especially into the heads of bankers. If the blunders and

brutalities of the last Congress in currency legislation are to be condoned, and made up for by charitable contributions, what right have we to expect anything better from the next? We must deal with a mendicant government—in the sense of shameless and mendicant lawmakers—just as we would with an old charitable-society "rounder." Before it is given "assistance," it must agree to take a bath, to quit beer and 'baccy, to live economically, and to turn its hand to any honest way of increasing its own income. If the Rochester banks really wanted legal-tenders instead of gold, as we presume they did, let them say so and stop with that. As for assisting the Government, the best way they can do that is to look out strictly for their own interests, and to insist, with the rest of their fellow-voters and fellow-taxpayers, that the Government shall do what it can to help itself before passing round the hat.

The banks should remember how easy it is for governments to come to look upon "assistance" of this kind as a vested right. It is just as it is with tramps that have been regularly fed at a certain area window: if they are ever refused, they grow ugly and threaten to stick a knife into somebody or to set fire to the house. Great accumulations of money have always been a terrible temptation to governments. They ache to get their hands on them. Why should they be saving, or lay taxes to cover their extravagance, when there is all this wealth to be frightened into coming to their rescue? This has been the huge mischief of government banking and government alliances with banks all the way down. The Government has often practically said to the bankers: "We have exercised great forbearance in letting you accumulate so much money, and now, if you do not want us to take it all, give us a part." Under a free-banking law, such fears and such favors are entirely uncalled for. If the banks vary a hair's breadth from the line of strict business in their dealings with the Government, they simply invite, first appeals for help, then threats, then hostile legislation. The next six months, in particular, will be a most important period for keeping banking and patriotism severely separate. The only way to make Congress work out its own salvation with fear and trembling is to let it see, beyond a peradventure, that the charity "lay" is no longer possible, and that it must either work or starve.

Mr. Charles C. Jackson writes to the Boston *Herald* in favor of an increase of the Government's gold reserve to $200,000,000 as a means of safe-guarding the business interests of the country, and the *Herald* endorses and advocates that policy. The argument in favor of it is that, after the shocks which trade and industry have sustained during the past two years, there can be no real stability or permanent recuperation while the gold reserve is hovering around the $100,000,000 mark, being sometimes a little above and sometimes a good deal below that mark. It is contended that if the reserve were doubled, the distrust would cease. This does not necessarily follow, but a more important question is whether it is desirable that the distrust should cease while the fiat-money system continues. The Government's legal-tender notes are a perpetual menace to business interests, whether the gold reserve be more or less. Even a $200,000,000 reserve would have been ineffectual eighteen months ago. In fact, the Government owned very nearly $200,000,000 gold in 1890 and 1891. This shows that the size of the pile is not the main consideration; but of course a large one is better than a small one to ward off panics. The main consideration, in our judgment, is to get rid of fiat money altogether, and thus relieve the Government once for all of the necessity of finding gold to redeem its legal-tender notes with. Until this is done, there will be no real security or stability, no healthy basis of trade and industry.

Mr. David Lubin of California, with his scheme for a bounty on agricultural exports, continues to be the *enfant terrible* of the protectionist happy family. At first the elders patted him on the head benevolently, and complimented him on his precocity and promise. The Protective Tariff League was, we understand, for a time particularly gracious to him. He was a youth to be encouraged and aided. But this was before the sages of protection had read his arguments. When they did read them, it was only by the narrowest squeak that they escaped apoplexy. The fellow was actually contending that the farmer was entitled to a bounty on account of the "artificial enhancement caused by protection"! With a glib facility in handling figures which McKinley might envy, Lubin gives as a "conservative estimate" of the cost of the protective system the "grand total" of $1,035,000,000. That ended it. The *American Economist* was no longer "at home" to Lubin, and the *Home-Market Bulletin* eyed him thenceforth with a stony glare. Even the thinking editor of the *Press* (one-cent protection) began to refer contemptuously to the curious fellow from the "wild and woolly West." On this subject, we are informed, Mr. Lubin has his own opinions. He has seen the wild and woolly West in its own lairs, and he is prepared to maintain that there is more wildness and woolliness in the *Press* office than in any equal area on this hemisphere.

The better-class Republicans of New Jersey won a noteworthy victory at Trenton on Thursday, and one that will make for good government, whatever may be the verdict of the people at the polls. There would have been no doubt of Mr. Griggs's nomination for many weeks if there had been no doubt that the wishes of the people would be allowed free expression in the convention. He had been accepted as the natural leader in a campaign in which State abuses were to be the main issue, and in which the candidate for Governor ought to be a man thoroughly conversant with State affairs, free from all entanglements with State-house rings and ringmen, and possessed of the kind of courage which a political office so severely tests. Knowing that the party boss in the State had another choice, the smaller politicians assumed that Griggs's nomination was an impossibility, and they did not change their opinion until the choice of the convention was announced. There was less open pressure to defeat the popular will than usual, but the successful expression of that will encourage the belief that the end has indeed come to such bargainings and pilferings as have made the government at Trenton so long a disgrace. The platform is wisely devoted almost entirely to State issues, and the campaign will be very literally a State campaign. Here again the convention showed its good sense. Printing jobs and corrupt State-house contracts cannot be checked and punished by appeals for woollen duties.

The proposal by Dr. Parkhurst of an attempt to secure a better understanding between the cities and the rural districts of this State suggests an inquiry as to how the population of the commonwealth is divided between them. The State census taken in 1892 showed 6,513,343 inhabitants, of whom 1,801,739 were in New York city, while Kings County, all of which is now within the limits of Brooklyn, had 995,276, Buffalo 278,727, Rochester 144,834, Albany 97,120, and Syracuse 91,944. Nearly 28 per cent. of all the people were thus found in the metropolis, and the addition of the city at the other end of the bridge made 43 per cent. of the whole population within a comparatively few square miles on each side of the East River out of a total area of 49,170 square miles. Join with New York and Brooklyn the cities of Buffalo, Rochester, and either Albany or Syracuse, and more than half of the people were settled within five municipalities. With the steady growth of the cities at the expense of the country, there is no doubt that already the four largest places in the State have above 50 per cent. of the population, and it is not unreasonable to expect that, before the twentieth century is far advanced, half of the State's inhabitants will reside in the one great city that will include the two counties of New York and Kings.

The differences in the character, education, and habits of the people found in

the large cities and those in the rural districts are as marked as the contrast in the number of inhabitants. In New York males of voting age who were born abroad exceeded in 1890 natives of the United States as 269,069 to 177,729, and a good percentage of the latter, though born here, had foreign parents and have been brought up in foreign ways. Foreign-born male adults exceed the natives by a few hundred in Brooklyn, and by more than 3,500 in Buffalo, while in Rochester four out of every nine were born abroad. On the other hand, there are rural counties where a foreigner is still a good deal of a rarity. For example, Greene County, comprising the Catskills, has sixteen natives to every foreigner; Warren, in the lower Adirondacks, ten to one; and many others, six or eight to one. Of course, the people of such rural counties cannot have the faintest conception of the conditions that exist in a great city where a large majority of the voters were born abroad, and instruction such as Dr. Parkhurst proposes must be of the greatest value.

A new phase of that "American Sunday" which the Republican League clubs favored is brought to light by a controversy in the State of Washington. The town of Pullman has a "Sunday-closing" question that is altogether different from what is usually understood by that term. It appears that it has been the custom in Washington during the harvest season, when the farmers are unusually busy and cannot well afford to stop work on a week day for a trip to town, to postpone the journey until Sunday, on which day the regular purchase of meat, groceries, and machine supplies is made. The practice has been in violation of the law, but the authorities have not interfered. Recently, however, the City Marshal of Pullman notified all the business houses of the place that hereafter their doors must remain closed on the first day of the week. But there is the same discrimination in the enforcement of the Sunday law in Washington as in New York. As in this State the excise law is applied rigorously in New York city, but allowed to be violated by the authorities across the bridge in Brooklyn and by the government of every other large city, so in the Northwestern commonwealth the stores in Pullman are kept closed,but the authorities in other towns in the neighborhood permit trading to go on as usual. The incident is of interest as showing how wide are the variations in the matter of Sunday observance in different parts of the United States, such a thing as the opening of stores in the towns on Sunday for the benefit of the farmers during the busy season being altogether unknown in this part of the country.

Amid the deepening gloom which enshrouds Hawaiian annexation, what with the cholera and the sudden coolness of Republican platforms, one bright ray comes to cheer the islanders. Mr. Judson N. Cross, "one of the ablest lawyers of the Northwest," has written a letter to President Dole explaining how easy it would be for the Hawaiians to "annex themselves." All that they would have to do would be to "organize a State and run up the old flag," and then send delegates who "shall demand admission to the American Congress." Able Lawyer Cross puts the searching question why, if Congress can announce to the world that an act unfriendly to Hawaii will be considered an act unfriendly to the United States, the Hawaiian Congress has not "the correlative right to proclaim itself to all people and governments to be a part of the Great Republic." He forcibly argues that this would simply "round out the Monroe doctrine to its logical conclusion," and urges the Hawaiian Government to be the first to exercise the inalienable right of all American countries "to annex themselves." How Lodge and the other Monroe doctors would meet this we cannot guess; to us it seems an irrefragable inference from their own principles. Anyhow, the idea is received with much favor in Honolulu, and is discussed by eminent Hawaiian jurists with great gravity. One of them admits that it is not the "regular way," but that the proposition may lead to "important results." For our part, we hope to see the two Hawaiian Senators and one Representative promptly on hand at the opening of Congress. No Republican committee on credentials could reject men coming in the name of the Monroe doctrine, America for Americans, the key of the Pacific, the cause of missions, a sugar bounty, and a concession for a cable.

The criticism of the management of the ocean steamers which is now in the air should not cease without some comment on the reluctance or inability of captains to check rowdyism. The Fourth of July is a favorite day for the American rowdy to make himself a nuisance to men of other nations, and he too often avails himself of his privileges by getting drunk, howling in the night time, and making things what he calls "lively." A spree of this kind occurred on one line on the last Fourth, which was marked by great drunkenness and disorder, and the fun consisted to some extent in throwing the passengers' chairs overboard, which was done for some time without interference. An appeal to the captain met with no response, and it was only a threat of legal proceedings which compelled the culprits to apologize and pay damages in the morning. Things do not always go as far as this, but the Fourth of July has on the ocean steamers ceased to be very welcome to foreigners of very creditable to Americans. The fact is, that as the steamers have grown in size, and the multitude of the passengers has increased, the ship's officers have grown more and more reluctant to exercise any police powers, and have retired more and more into the seclusion of navigation. This is doubtless a reaction from the old régime, when captains used to flirt with the ladies, gamble with the men, and read prayers on Sunday, and there is good in it; but it has gone too far.

Emperor William's violent railing at the German Social Democrats on Sedan day seems to have done them a good turn, and in the nick of time. They were just then incurring great unpopularity on account of the resolutions passed by some of their committees against the national celebrations of the war of 1870, on the ground of the "solidarity" of the interests of the people in France and Germany. But fiery Wilhelm's denunciation of them as unworthy to bear the name of Germans, and his practically calling upon the Guards to enter upon a war of extermination against them, at once caused a reaction. People reflected that the Social Democrats, when all was said, polled a vote larger than that of any other German party. They reflected, too, it is probable, that a good part of that large vote was due to the growing disgust of the German nation with the antics of their war-lord, and that it was a grave question in many minds whether it was not more important to put a straight-jacket on him than to go to shooting the Socialists. At any rate, Wilhelm seems to have rushed in most opportunely for the Social Democrats, and to have done all in his power to rescue them from an awkward situation.

The Glasgow experiment in the municipalization of street railways has been watched with great interest, and its complete financial success confidently announced. From the working accounts submitted for the eleven months ending May 31, 1895, such an announcement would appear to be justified. The tramway committee of the corporation of Glasgow report that they are able to turn over to "the common good" profits amounting to $41,000. But along came an expert accountant a month ago, who had had exceptional experience in analyzing tramway accounts, and showed, in the London *Times*, that the apparent profit was really a deficit. From the very figures published by the corporation he asserted, and appeared to prove, that there had been "a net loss of not less than $100,000." The trouble was the old one of not writing off enough for working expenses or depreciation. Thus the actual loss on live-stock was $10,000 more than allowed for in the accounts, working expenses of $65,000 were not charged at all against the revenue, etc. The Glasgow men have not thus far made any reply to this damaging analysis, though one would seem to be urgently demanded.

THE CONSULAR REFORM.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has partially atoned for the "Quincy debauch" by the order which he has just issued subjecting applicants for consulships or commercial agencies, the income from which is not more than $2,500 nor less than $1,000, to examination as to fitness. That is to say, all such vacancies are to be hereafter filled either

"by a transfer or promotion from some other place under the Department of State of a character tending to qualify the incumbent for the place to be filled; or (b) by appointment of a person not under the Department of State, but having previously served thereunder to its satisfaction in a capacity tending to qualify him for the place to be filled; or (c) by the appointment of a person who, having furnished the customary evidence of character, responsibility, and capacity, and being thereupon selected by the President for examination, is found upon such examination to be qualified for the place."

The peculiarity of this order is, that it takes the matter out of the hands of Congress altogether as to about one-half the consular service, and proposes to deal with it by executive authority solely. It must be examined in the light of the history of the attempts to purify the consular service as reported by Secretary Olney. In 1864 Congress provided for thirteen consular clerks, who were supposed to be persons in training for the consular service; but if they ever came into existence, nothing has since been heard about them by the public. In 1866 the Department of State issued an order requiring all applicants for consulships to present themselves for examination at the department; but if this order is still in force, Mr. Josiah Quincy never heard of it, and at all events only one examination was held under it. In 1872 another order of the same kind was issued, but what effect it had appears to be unknown to everybody. Another order in the same year put the consulates under the civil-service act of 1871, and made candidates examinable by a board composed of three persons serving in the State Department. This system lasted two years, but perished owing to the refusal of Congress to make any appropriation for the execution of the law. The present order is issued again under the act, and it is to be hoped that it will have a better fate than its predecessors.

It is to be observed about it, therefore, that it will owe its force and permanence, like its predecessors, to executive discretion. If appointments should again be made from persons outside the three categories prescribed by President Cleveland, or if the Missouri colonels and Arkansas editors should find the examinations at the State Department a mere form, there will be no remedy, any more than there was for the Quincy debauch. But we think the chances that this reform will be genuine and will last are now better than they ever were before. In the first place, the need of fitness for subordinate offices has taken hold of the public mind as never before, and the merit system has now been working successfully for some years in most branches of domestic administration. In the next place, the Quincy debauch called more attention than anything of the kind had ever done before to the condition of the consular service under the spoils system; and, though last not least, the steady growth of our foreign commerce, and the increasing desire to compete in foreign markets, is more and more impressing people with the need of competent consular agents.

There has been growing of late in Europe a strong belief in the childishness of the American people, fostered in part by the mode in which our journalistic youths discuss public questions in the newspapers, in part by the ravings of some of our crazy men about the currency. It is helped even by the talk of some good men, for there is something very juvenile about the applause heaped on the "patriotism" of people who lend gold to the Government, and about the demand that, instead of going to Europe, we should all stay at home to help the Treasury to keep the currency at par. All this savors a little of the well-conducted kindergarten, and startles foreign investors. They do not like to lend money to people who appear to be so immature.

But nothing probably has done more to damage our national business character than our foreign consuls. That any people rich enough and civilized enough to have consuls at all, or to feel the need of them, should have *such* consuls as ours, puzzles foreigners extremely, and the only explanation which Americans have to offer—the condition of our home politics—is too long and tedious to have any value. A practical people, as we love to consider ourselves, would, they say, pay the salaries to these men in some capacity at home, and not make a display of their weakness or incompetency to strangers, whose good opinion they are apparently sent abroad to cultivate. As a general rule, even the wildest democrats in Europe and the most eager spoilsmen try to present a good front to the foreigners, by allowing only fit men to represent the nation, but we have had in this point what may be called a droll shamelessness. The way we manage to dismiss from our minds, after we have got the colonel or editor off our hands, the kind of figure he will cut as a consul in a foreign city, is one of our oddest peculiarities.

It is to be observed, however, that when Americans arrive on the ground, visit him in his office, contrast him with the commercial agents of other countries, and find where he stands socially in foreign capitals, the absurdity of our consular system does come home to them. An increasing number of Americans have this experience every year. When our system is seen on the spot under hostile eyes, and before sneering critics of our character and manners, its weaknesses become more glaring and the desire to get rid of it stronger. This is one of the great uses of European travel. It gives many thousands every summer a new point of view. From thinking of consulships as a means of travel for a consumptive friend, or a refuge for a drunken brother, or a holiday for a "live" party worker, they come to look on them as agencies for the promotion of American commerce, for the glorification of democratic institutions, and for the stimulation of rational national pride.

THE RIGHT OF PERSECUTION.

JUDGE HOLMES of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts delivered an opinion last June in a boycotting case which excited a good deal of sensation at the time. He laid it down that although "deliberate and combined interference with a man's business by persuading others to have nothing to do with him" was actionable, yet this applied only to malicious interference, or interference for pure mischief or harm's sake. Such interference, if made for "a good purpose," such as to compel an employer to accept the strikers' schedule of wages by using "persuasion, advice, and social pressure" to prevent other men taking their places, would, he held, be justifiable, although "the weight of judicial opinion was the other way."

A case has recently occurred in England, before the Queen's Bench Division, in which the whole matter was thoroughly argued, and the plaintiff obtained an injunction restraining the defendants from doing the things which Judge Holmes said they might lawfully do if their motives were good. The defendants were the managers of a trade-union of plasterers, and they had a difference with a master plasterer named Peek, and withdrew their men from his employ. As he was engaged on a contract, another master plasterer named Wright lent him some men. The union then attacked Wright by endeavoring to get his men to leave him, and to induce people to break their contracts with him, and by printing and circulating libels about him. They did procure the breach of certain contracts with him, and did prevent his getting employment. He sued for libel, and asked for an injunction. The defence set up was substantially Judge Holmes's—that there was no malice, that the union's motives were good, and that they acted from a sense of duty.

The Judge, Baron Pollock, laid it down that

"No man had a right to do that which injured another man unless by acts he had a legal right to do. In this country every one had a right to express his opinion clearly with reference to the questions of the day. But if an individual, in order to enforce his particular views, did an act knowingly and intending to inflict an injury upon another, the law did not allow that to be done. Nor could a man say, 'If you don't employ a certain class of people, we shall do certain things which will injure you in your business.'

The question was, Did the defendant say to himself, 'I will go to these people and will write such letters as will prevent them from employing Mr. Wright, and then he will be obliged to come to our terms and not to exercise any free will of his own'?"

He then left the following questions to the jury:

"(1.) Do you think that the course of conduct pursued by the defendant with regard to the employment of the plaintiff Wright was improper in the sense of being malicious—*i. e.*, with the intention of injuring him? (2.) Do you think that the letters which were written were written with an improper motive to injure the plaintiff, or were written bona-fide and with the honest intention of discharging a duty?"

The jury found that there was malice, and gave $2,500 for the libels and $1,500 for the damages caused by the breaches of contract which the defendants had brought about, and the court granted an injunction restraining the defendants in all their operations against Wright.

The reason of all this is obvious enough. Civil society could not go on if any voluntary combination of persons were armed with the power of keeping anybody they chose to disapprove of from following a lawful calling in his own way, or preventing his forming or sustaining the relations with others by which he gained his livelihood. The excuse, too, which Judge Holmes supplies, that they meant well, has been used to justify every form of organized tyranny and oppression by which man has vexed his fellow-man. The Inquisition burnt and tortured with the best of motives, and the very worst governments the world has seen have professed high aims in harassing people. It is only bands of brigands who acknowledge that they are operating for pure mischief.

The claims put forward both by the Massachusetts strikers and by the English plasterers are fresh illustrations of the tendency of the modern labor movements, particularly when they take a socialist form, towards some sort of slavery. Their main business is, in fact, coercing people, putting some kind of restraint on their liberty, and compelling the individual to substitute somebody else's will for his own in regulating his life. One day they are engaged in subjugating the laborer, the next in subjugating the employer, but every day in pursuing somebody with penalties and threats; and all in virtue of an authority drawn solely from force.

The hostility to employers to which most of this is due, and which is exerting a disastrous effect on the business of more than one country, owes its origin to the doctrine which Marx has done most to spread, but which fills hundreds of thousands of heads that have never heard of Marx, viz., that things get their value from the labor spent on them, and that they therefore rightly belong to the man who has made them. Innocent and plausible as this idea seems, it has proved in its practical influence on the working-classes of Europe and this country almost a doctrine of devils. Bishop Potter made an effort last spring, by some timely remarks on the part which markets play in production, to arrest its ravages among the clergy. For the bitter truth is that value comes, not from labor, but from demand; that the laborer labors in vain unless he can find some one to buy his handiwork. The most valuable man in industry, the man to be cherished and encouraged and protected, is, therefore, the man who finds out what people will purchase, and finds the purchasers—or, in other words, the capitalist or employer, whose daily care it is to produce, not the good thing, but the thing for which he can get cash or bills. And yet this is the man whom the clergy, the philanthropists, the legislators, and sometimes the judges seem bent on persecuting and harassing and hunting out of one country into another. No more ingenious device for his annoyance and destruction could have been concocted than the doctrine that any men he once employs he must keep in his service on their own terms as long as they choose to stay, whatever may be his opinion of their worth or their influence on the market value of his commodities; and that, should he show any dissatisfaction with this arrangement, they would be justified in reducing him to submission by any means short of assault and battery, or physical injury to property.

COLLEGE ENGLISH.

The visiting committee on Composition and Rhetoric of Harvard College, whose report made such commotion three years ago among the teachers of the preparatory schools, have reported again, and have fortified their rather lugubrious conclusions by copious extracts from the college entrance examination papers. They drew attention in the former report to the well-known fact that translations from the Greek and Latin into "free, original, and idiomatic" English have long been relied on by the schools as a test of the student's command of his mother tongue. They printed a considerable number of these translations from the examination papers, most of which showed that the translations were really not English, but a close approach to gibberish, and were, of course, neither free, nor original, nor idiomatic.

Since then things have apparently not improved. In 1893, Prof. Goodwin of Harvard, commenting on the committee's report, in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, said:

"Many good people who read the committee's report will believe that our mother tongue is singled out for neglect and contempt by the preparatory schools; and some will think that the neglect of English is justified by the high standard of scholarship in Latin, Greek, and mathematics which (as they suppose) the college exacts of its candidates for admission. Nothing can be farther from the truth than both of these ideas. . . . A similar test applied to any other department would disclose a state of things in the lower ranks of scholarship which would be proportionally disreputable. . . . It cannot be doubted that a similar depth of ignorance of geometry, algebra, physics, or history might easily be disclosed."

With the view of ascertaining by actual observation what advances, if any, have been made in the three years, the committee have taken up, at random, some of the examination papers in advanced Latin of the year 1894, and print sixteen extracts from the translations. If we called them a low order of comic literature, we should not greatly exaggerate. Here is a bit of prose which is neither better nor worse than the others:

"And this Macedonia even when neighboring nations were conquering and barbarians hemming in, peaceful itself by its own efforts, and quiet, we watched over with a slender guard and small army even without a chief command, but by legates, by the very name of the Roman people; but she now is so harassed by the consular power and army, that she hardly can recuperate herself during a long peace. Nay who has not heard this, who does not know that the Guelph used annually to pay a great fortune to L. Piso, that the whole tribute and customs of the Dyrrachines were turned over to the supervision of this one man, that the city of the Byzantines most faithful to you and this empire has been harrassed after the fashion of an enemy, how he when he could screw nothing out of the poverty-stricken could tear away nothing by any violence from the wretched sent his cohorts into winter-quarters; he placed over them men whom he thought would be most diligent satelites of his crimes, ministers of his cupidity."

And here is a bit of poetry of equal merit:

"Behold however the bull smoking under the hard ploughshare fell and threw out from his mouth blood mixed with froth and stifled his last groans. The sodden yeoman departs unyoking the bullock sorrowing at his brother's death, and leaves his implements fixed in the midst of his work. Nor the shades of the lowering groves, nor the soft fields can move his mind nor the which flying over the rocks seeks the field by the streamlet (but his sides are shaken with sobs [but the depths of his sides are loosended]) and stupor presses upon his fixed eyes, and his neck by the bending weight looks toward the earth."

The ignorance of Latin and ignorance of English are here displayed in about equal proportions. In fact, no improvement is visible in these pages. Apropos of this state of things, Prof. Goodwin says:

"There is no conceivable justification for using the revenues of Harvard College, or the time and strength of her instructors, in the vain attempt to enlighten the Egyptian darkness in which no small portion of our undergraduates are sitting. The college must do something to redeem herself from disgrace, and to put the disgrace where it belongs; but she must no longer spend time, strength, and money on the hopeless task which she has recently undertaken."

The committee has not hitherto singled out any particular school as responsible for these renderings, but the report intimates that the committee will in their next publish the examination papers of candidates for admission to Harvard College coming from one or two schools of the first rank.

Prof. Goodwin's remarks touch on one of the gravest sides of this matter, when he alludes to the enormous waste in America of college funds and professorial talent in attempts to teach youths who are totally unprepared to profit by collegiate instruction. This unfitness may be equal-

ly great in other branches than English, but its most striking, most lamentable, and most readily appreciated display is in the English department. That so many of the youths of the country to whom the art of expression ought to come easiest should, at the age of eighteen or nineteen, find their mother tongue completely unmanageable when they pass outside the phraseology of every-day life, must be considered little short of a national calamity. The schools have, it is true, some little excuse in the general popular carelessness of speech even in families of some cultivation, but this does not cover the general indifference of parents to the English of teachers and the teachers' indifference to their own English. We believe the cases are rare where a teacher's English speech helps or hinders him or her in getting employment. One may go into half the schools of this city and find children taught by twangy, slangy, slipshod speakers. The whole subject of English speech and writing in the schools is attracting more and more attention. The present instruction is most discreditable, but nowhere so discreditable as in the schools which prepare for college. We are the one civilized country to-day where a man's speech does not indicate what his opportunities of training have been and what kind of social place he fills.

THE BURDENS OF THE WEALTHY.

THE heavy weight of taxation borne by the French people is at last directing general attention to the details not only of public but of private expenditure. As to the expenditure of the Government, it has notoriously increased at a startling rate, and it is not surprising to find that, as in the case of our own democracy, pensions are responsible for much of the increase. It used to be said that privileges and pensions were aristocratic abuses, but experience has shown the fallacy of this contention. On the contrary, it seems that the great danger of democracy is from the multiplication of offices and the grant of pensions, bounties, and other gratuities. An industrious investigator has recently been at the pains to look into the particulars of the French system of pensioning civil officers, and he shows that under the republic the amounts paid have advanced at an alarming pace. Between 1876 and 1895 the number of office-holders under the republic rose from 189,000 to 235,000, and their compensation from 305,000,000 fr. to 470,000,000 fr. But the amount paid in pensions has risen in forty years from 8.7 per cent. of the salaries paid to more than 12 per cent. The total has increased from 23,000,000 fr. to 63,000,000 fr. The meaning of these figures is that there is an increasing number of persons rendering no productive service who are supported out of the revenue of the community. It should be observed that these figures do not include military pensions, and that if the officers of the departments and communes are reckoned in the computation, the number of office-holders in France equals the effective force of her army and navy.

The effect of this increased governmental expenditure on private fortunes is, of course, serious. A communication was lately presented to the Statistical Society of Paris in which the budget of a well-to-do private family was carefully analyzed. The family consisted of a father and mother, three sons, aged from nineteen to fourteen, two daughters of sixteen and eleven, and two female servants. The total expenditure of this family in 1894 was 20,700 fr. The particulars were set forth with the greatest fulness, and the taxes on each item of expenditure computed. The expense of the family habitation was 3,111 fr., and the taxes were 29.45 per cent. of this. On food the taxes were 20.65 per cent., on heat and light 27 per cent., on transportation 23 per cent., on clothing 11 per cent., on entertainments 63 per cent. Upon 14,117 fr. expenditure the average tax was 23 per cent. Upon expenditure for repairs, domestic service, doctors, education, and wages, which amounted to 6,555 fr., no attempt to compute the rate of taxation was made, and it seems quite proper to regard these items as belonging to the budgets of other families, so far as the incidence of taxation is concerned. It would seem, therefore, that not far from one-quarter of the income of a well-to-do bourgeois French family goes to meet the exactions of the Government.

The publication of this budget aroused journalistic comments similar to those which were heard in this country when the income tax was under discussion. A few journals exclaimed at the weight of the burden of taxation; the rest took the position, "Only give us the income and we will gladly pay the tax." But it cannot be denied that the showing is calculated to excite alarm. It is quite possible that the ratio of taxation may have been in some cases estimated too high; it is fallacious, for instance, to assume that articles upon which there is an import duty are necessarily increased in price by the amount of the duty. But these errors are offset by others on the opposite side; and if we take the total governmental expenditure of France from the official statement of 1893 as 3,475,000,000 francs, we see that it amounts to over 90 francs per head of population. If the total revenue of the French people is estimated at twenty milliards, the expense of the Government would be 17½ per cent.; so that it is fair to say that the tax-gatherer takes one franc out of every five francs of income, if not one out of every four.

The tribulations of the "debtor class" have been of late very loudly proclaimed; but these computations show that the position of the creditor class is not altogether enviable. There are other features of the economic situation which make the future still more anxious for people of property. In addition to the incessant imposition of new taxes, those who have money to invest are confronted with a steady fall in the rate of interest. Twenty years ago 7 per cent. was generally obtained on mortgages in New York city. Now it is 5 or 4½ or 4 per cent., and this decline measures the general diminution of the rate of return on investments. In this country there are still chances for enterprising young men to start out without capital and make their fortunes; but in France both natural conditions and social habits prevent. In that country the class depending for their support to a great extent on the income from accumulated property is very large. Young men, on account of military service and a system of prolonged professional examinations, do not expect to start out in life before they are twenty-six or twenty-seven years old. But if the family income is to be much further reduced, many young men will be unable to command the means of education. There can be no further economy in reducing the size of families; the limit has been reached there. If the exactions of Government are to be increased, and the rate of interest is still to decline, the disposition to accumulate will inevitably be checked. What is the use of saving money if it will bring in only 3 or 4 per cent., and if income and inheritance taxes are to be piled up in the future? Who can expect to put by enough to enable himself to live on his income? and if he must continue to work for a living, why should he not spend as he goes on, and either dispense with children, or give up trying to accumulate for them property which will produce little income, and which a paternal government will fine them for receiving? Parsimony was once an economic virtue, to be encouraged by the state; but its results have been so exuberant that those who do not directly share them have become envious, and demand that the state shall reverse its policy. But the ultimate results of discouraging saving will prove more disastrous to the poor than to the rich; for if the accumulation of capital should be checked, employment would diminish and the wages of labor would decline.

ALASKA REVISITED.—VI.

AUGUST, 1895.

IN closing these notes on the Territory, a comparison between the Alaska of twenty or thirty years ago and that of to-day naturally suggests itself. How have the hopes and anticipations of that earlier time been fulfilled or missed fulfilment? What future is promised for this vast and to many still mysterious region?

As regards its inhabitants a complete change is conspicuous. Some thousands of white fishermen, hunters, miners, and prospectors are now scattered along the coast and rivers—on the whole, a hard-working, orderly set, with here and there a rascally whiskey-smuggler or a stranded gentleman. Apart from a few mining camps, the parasites who live by the vices of oth-

ers are few. A country where he who would live must work is not attractive to them. Cut off from direct contact with the rest of the United States, Alaska is really a colony and not a frontier Territory, in the sense usually understood. As such, its needs should have been the subject of study and appropriate legislation, the neglect of which by Congress so far is bitterly and justly resented by the entire population. In fact, this aspect of our relations to Alaska illustrates clearly the worst defects of our Government as at present administered. Into political matters I shall not enter, but must observe that among the numerous ill-paid officials few are well prepared to handle the difficult questions presented in such a community; and the executive, such as it is, is without the legal authority or the proper facilities for governing or even visiting the greater part of the region it is supposed to control. The state of the law is uncertain, the seat of authority obscure, divided illegitimately between naval officers, the revenue-cutter service, and a powerless Governor, who, whatever his wishes and intentions, is not permitted by the law to control anything. If it were not for the orderly character and good sense of the white population, the Territory might easily become a pandemonium. This condition of things is disgraceful, and reform is urgently needed.

The change in the native population of southeastern Alaska has been remarked upon in a previous letter. In a general way a similar change has taken place all over the Territory. The primitive condition of the natives has almost wholly disappeared. The turf-covered hut has given way to frame shanties; log houses are rarely built. The native dress has disappeared, replaced by cheap ready-made clothing, shabby even when new. Native manufactures, utensils, weapons, curios, all are gone, or made only in coarse facsimile for sale to tourists. The native buys flour and tea, cooks his salmon in a frying-pan, and catches his cod or halibut with a Birmingham hook and a Gloucester line. In the whole of southern Alaska, thanks to the schools, the children and many young people speak fairly good English. If the present influences continue, another generation will see the use of English universal and the native languages chiefly obsolete. The day of the ethnological collector is past. Southeastern Alaska is swept clean of relics; hardly a shaman's grave remains inviolate.

In other parts of the Territory the same is more or less true. The native population is focussing about the commercial centres; the people gather where work and trade afford opportunities; and I have seen more than one pretentious church standing empty among the abandoned houses of a formerly prosperous village. There is some admixture of blood in marriages between the often attractive "Creole" women and the incoming settlers. These marriages are often very fruitful, but the pure-blooded natives seem to be diminishing. The Aleuts, whose census is accurately made annually by the Greek Church, are distinctly losing ground, and will doubtless pass away in a few generations. The same is probably true of the Tlinkit people. As we approach the arctic region, changes of all sorts are less marked, and civilization has had less effect. The introduction of tame reindeer, if successful, will prove most important for the people of this region. Their natural food supply has been practically destroyed by the whites and by repeating firearms, of which the natives have many. The whales are almost extinct, and the whaling-fleet itself is nearly so. The walrus preceded the whale, and the hair-seal has never been sufficiently abundant in this region for a sole resource. The chief salmon streams are, or soon will be, monopolized by the whites, near the sea, and the natives of the Upper Yukon will go hungry. The present law allows unrestricted fishing to the natives, and a close time of one day a week for the whites. The latter hire the natives to fish during the prohibited day, and so the salmon have no close time. Where a salmon stream is monopolized by one firm, they do not usually cut their own throats by taking all the salmon, but, where there are several competing firms, there is little respite for the fish.

The codfishery was formerly carried on by two competing firms, who have now composed their differences. They had salting stations on shore, and bought fish at so much a thousand from fishermen who used small sailing-vessels or dories and fished near shore. Now it is found cheaper, and for other reasons preferable, to return to the older system of fishing in the open sea from a seagoing vessel, as on the Banks at the East. The preparation of the Alaska fish has often been hasty, careless, and inferior to that done in the East, so Alaska codfish, originally of equal quality, are less esteemed commercially than the Eastern cod. For some reason I do not understand, the Pacific Ocean at best offers but a small market for fish under present conditions; and so I look to see the codfishing industry develop slowly, and perhaps be the last, as it is in my opinion the most substantial and important, of the resources of the Territory. At present the salmon are commercially more important, but, unless more effectively supervised and regulated, they will meet with the same fate as the fisheries of California and the Columbia River. There should be a resident inspector at every important fishery; and as the business is carried on for at most two or three months in the year, a vigilant inspection by a cutter or fisheries vessel told off for this especial work would counteract any tendency to bribe the resident inspector. I have seen 3,500,000 pounds of canned salmon taken in one season from one small stream, representing at least 5,000,000 pounds of eatable fish, and it seems that an annual supply of the best fish-food, like that, is worth preserving. But if the work is to be put into the hands of the lowest class of political appointees instead of intelligent experts, making the offices will not save the fish.

In the matter of furs we may regard the fur-seal fishery as doomed. It is probable that few of the pelagic sealers will pay expenses after this season, and two or three years are likely to see the end of the business. It is costing us much more than the catch is worth now, and the most sensible way of ending the matter is generally felt to be the destruction at one fell swoop of all the seals remaining on the islands and the abandonment of the business.

The continental furs, owing to competition between traders, are now selling for nearly their full market value, and little profit can be expected from them. They are also growing more and more scarce, as the high prices stimulate trapping. The natural and satisfactory offset to this would be the establishment of preserves, such as the "fox farms" of which I have previously spoken. Many of these have been started, and the multitudinous islands offer opportunities for many more. But the business is hazardous, since there is no protection against poachers, and a very ill judged attempt has been made, I am informed, by the Treasury, to impose, in addition to the annual sum for which the island is leased, a "tax" of $5 on each fox killed, over twenty, from each "farm." It is doubtful if the Treasury is entitled to tax anybody without the explicit authority of Congress, and a tax of 50 per cent. on the gross value of the product not only is oppressive and exorbitant, but will put a stop to a business which should be encouraged. This is probably another instance of the "government by Treasury clerk" from which Alaska has suffered, lo! these many years.

The timber of Alaska, though by no means insignificant, is not likely to be much sought for, except for local purposes, for many years. I may point out, however, that there are millions of acres here densely covered with the spruce best suited for wood pulp, and plenty of water power for pulp mills, so that this resource is not without a future.

A forthcoming report of the United States Geological Survey will treat of the existing and prospective mining industries.

To sum up, it may be said that the whaling and sealing industries of Alaska are practically exhausted; the fur trade is in its decadence; the salmon-canning in the full-tide of prosperity, but conducted in a wasteful and destructive manner which cannot long be continued with impunity. The cod and herring fisheries are imperfectly developed, but have a substantial future with proper treatment. Mineral resources and timber have hardly been touched. No business-like experiment with sheep or cattle on the islands has been tried by competent hands, while the introduction of reindeer, though promising well, is still in the experimental stage. Socially, the Territory is in a transition state, the industries of the unexploited wilderness are passing away, while the time of steady, business-like development of the more latent resources has not yet arrived. The magnificent scenery, glaciers, and volcanoes make it certain that Alaska will in the future be to the rest of the United States what Norway is to western Europe, the goal of tourists, hunters, and fishermen. Agriculture will be restricted to gardening and the culture of quick-growing and hardy vegetables for local use. The prosecution of most Alaskan industries being in untrained hands, failures and disappointment will no doubt be frequent; but, when the pressure of population enforces more sensible methods, the Territory will support in reasonable comfort a fair number of hardy and industrious inhabitants.

W. H. D.

CENTRALIZATION IN FRANCE.

PARIS, September 10, 1895.

THERE are some people who never speak of our French administration without saying "that administration which Europe envies." I do not know how much truth there is in this phrase, which has become almost proverbial. In France, what is called the administration has an army of defenders; you may count by thousands those who belong to it. This work of the Revolution, completed by Napoleon, has survived all the revolutions that have taken place in our century. It is characterized by simplicity, and affords such a powerful instrumentality to the Government, whatever its name may be, that all successive governments have used without attempting to change it. Under the Second Empire, during the long years of oppression and of silence which my generation knew, there arose at Nancy, the ancient capital of the Duchy of Lorraine, a school which called itself the school of decen-

tralization. This school published pamphlets, even books, and delivered lectures on the necessity of giving more individual life to the French provinces and to the great French cities. As the school was not composed of open enemies of the imperial system, the Emperor Napoleon III., who was not inimical to new ideas, addressed a letter in 1863 to his Council of State, urging it to prepare legislative measures having in view to diminish or to remove the defects of the system of centralization. The Council of State was invited "to consult public and private interest by allowing all possible protection to the first, to the second, all desirable liberty."

There is a curious continuity in history, and it is not impossible to find much resemblance between the powers of the Roman governors in Gaul, of the intendants of Louis XIV., and of our prefects of the nineteenth century. M. Fustel de Coulanges, author of an important work under the title of 'Histoire des institu tions politiques de l'ancienne France: La Gaule romaine' (1891), speaks with eulogy of the centralization introduced in Gaul by the Romans. "When the Roman Senate," he says, "organized the empire, towards the year 27 of our era, it conferred upon Augustus the proconsular power over one-half of the provinces and a right of supervision of the governors of all the others. This innovation, in which some saw perhaps an attack against liberty, was the germ of a new administrative system. It turned out, in fact, that the chiefs of the provinces, instead of being real monarchs governing in their own name, were only the agents, the lieutenants, of the Prince. This fact, so simple and apparently so insignificant, was what introduced into Europe administrative centralization." M. Fustel de Coulanges does not doubt that the people looked upon this centralization as a great benefit.

After the Frankish conquest of Gaul, we come upon an era during which any attempt at centralization became futile, and, in order to find anything resembling it, we must go back to the first efforts made by the French monarchy towards national unity. The history of the intendants may be found in many recent works. These officials were at first only like the "missi dominici" under the Carolingian monarchy, like the "Enquêteurs" under Saint Louis, like the "Réformateurs" under the first Valois—commissioners sent from province to province for the execution of the King's orders; but by degrees they came to hold permanent posts. In the *pays d'élection* (France was divided between the *pays d'élection* and the *pays d'états*, like Brittany, Languedoc, Burgundy, which had diets), forming the greater part of the kingdom, the intendant administered under the direction and control of the secretaries of state and of the King's Council. In the *pays d'états*, the diets voted, under the name of *don gratuit*, the annual budget. Under the Regency which followed the long reign of Louis XIV., the intendants had become so powerful that Law could say to D'Argenson: "Know that the kingdom of France is governed by thirty intendants. You have neither parlements, nor States, nor governors; thirty *maîtres des requêtes* attached to the provinces have in their hands the happiness or the misfortune of these provinces, their abundance or their sterility."

Tocqueville passed a judgment almost as severe on the system of centralization in his 'Ancien Régime et la Révolution.' His work is a sort of commentary on the words of Law. More recent historical works have shown that the intendants have been judged with too much severity, and that, as representatives of the monarchy and of the general interests of the country, they were often very useful instruments. The phrase "provincial liberty" or "municipal liberty" often covered a multitude of abuses. In many provinces the incidence of taxation was very inequitable. In Béarn, for instance, M. Louis Lacaze tells us, in a work on the provincial liberties in Béarn, that the intendants were "the initiators of right." "Who," he asks, "created, so to speak, the South of France by the opening of roads? Who proposed the works of public utility—bringing before the diets a project for dyking the Gave, determining the construction of a bridge in Pau, organizing a sort of insurance against the periodical epidemics among cattle, and liquidating the communal debts? It is hard to acknowledge, but it was the intendant." There may be some exaggeration in the part thus attributed to the intendant, but we must remember that in Languedoc the *canal du Midi* was undertaken by virtue of an edict of Louis XIV., under the direction of Colbert, and that the diets of Languedoc at first tried to refuse their subvention to this great work.

The intendants, however, had become as unpopular under Louis XVI. as the provincial parliaments. Necker decided the King to make great reforms and to have provincial assemblies. M. Léonce de Lavergne wrote in great detail the history of these 'Provincial States under Louis XVI.' This work was severely judged by Tocqueville and is now well forgotten. The intendants were allowed to remain, but they were made powerless. The new organization was not even fairly tried, and soon there came a great cry for the States-General. The Constituent Assembly laid the foundations for a new centralization. It abolished all privileges. It divided France into departments, all subject to the same laws. It is certainly singular, but it is quite certain, that the provinces did not make even the semblance of a fight for their old privileges, traditions, and delimitations. The new territorial and administrative unity was accepted without any resistance.

The Constituent Assembly worked, however, unconsciously. It had in view the creation of department assemblies; it abolished the intendants, and left almost nothing between the department assemblies and the central power. But, in order to make its work a most perfect instrument of centralization, nothing was needed but the reëstablishment of the intendants under the name of prefects; and this change could be done in a moment and by the stroke of a pen. The system organized by the Constituent Assembly could produce only anarchy. The Convention felt the necessity of strengthening the central powers: its commissioners had unbounded powers; they were the connecting link between the intendants and the prefects. After the convulsions of the Terror, France had, so to speak, no more institutions; the laws of the year viii. were the first new definition of the relations of the State to the departments and to the communes. The State assumed the right to protect the citizens, to levy the taxes; it established the hierarchy of the prefects, the sub-prefects and mayors.

Pasquier, speaking of this Constitution of the year viii., says in his memoirs:

"The consequences of such a change were great. The principle of unity of action in the midst of all the territorial divisions, the well-established responsibilities, promptly introduced order into the Government. . . . What was more appreciated than anything was the satisfaction caused by the disappearance of a number of small functionaries, without any merit or capacity, who for ten years had become masters of the administration in the departments and the arrondissements. Most of them issued from the lowest ranks of society, and they were all the more inclined to have the weight of their authority felt. It seemed that a great gain was made when people had to deal with only one representative of authority, who, in order to maintain himself in an important post, would find it to his interest to gain the esteem of those over whom he administered."

Under the Empire, the members of the councils-general, of the arrondissement councils, and of the municipal councils were chosen by the prefect from a list of notabilities drawn up by the electors. The deliberations of all these councils were controlled by the central power. Under the Restoration, it was proposed to take away this power from the prefects; but this change was accomplished only after the Revolution of 1830. The laws of March 28, 1831, and of July 18, 1837, on the communes, of June 22, 1833, and May 10, 1838, on the departments, gave to the commune and department the right to choose directly their representatives in the municipal councils, the arrondissement councils, and the councils-general. But as the mayors, besides representing the communes, are the agents of the State in all matters of general interest, their choice was reserved to the sovereign or to the prefects, according to the population of the communes. They were, however, always to be taken from among the municipal councillors directly chosen by the people.

M. Ancoc, one of our authorities in all questions relating to administrative matters, has made himself the advocate of this régime in various publications. He has been bold enough to attack M. de Tocqueville, who, in his famous works, assumed the defence of a complete municipal autonomy: "It is in the commune," said Tocqueville, "that the strength of a free people resides." M. Ancoc maintains that the central power, without treating the commune as a minor, has a right to control its decisions and to see that they are in conformity with general legislation. The prefect is not absolute, and his decisions can always be impugned before the Council of State, which is the supreme administrative court. Much may undoubtedly be said in favor of the greatly abused centralization, and of the ordered hierarchy of powers and attributions which it creates; but, in this case as in many others, the old proverb, "Tant vaut l'homme, tant vaut la chose," is truly applicable. There is no doubt that, with eighty intelligent prefects, independent of all local interests, France would be well administered. Under Louis Philippe, the prefects remained many years in the same department, learned to know all its wants, were independent to a great extent of the Deputies from their departments; now they have become their nominees and their slaves. France is really administered at the present hour by the Deputies and the Senators. They will say to you very quietly "mon préfet," "mon sous-préfet." As soon as the prefect does not do their work, or refuses anything to their electoral agents, they turn to the Minister of the Interior and ask for his removal; and, in our present state of parliamentary equilibrium, the Minister of the Interior dares not refuse anything to the Senators and the Deputies, who have his fate in their hands.

Taine, who was not a friend of centralization, said that at any rate it had one advantage: it preserved us from democratic autonomy. He was mistaken; the system, as it

works at present, works entirely for the benefit of the electoral agents, and our democracy is a great machine, worked by them for the satisfaction of very narrow interests. Administrative centralization can produce good effects only if its principal agents, who are the prefects, are very independent, and can assume the character of arbiters in all questions where private interests and the general interest are in conflict.

Correspondence.

RALEGH'S 'DISCOVERIE.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Two weeks ago you called attention (pp. 170–171) to the probable existence of three distinct editions, bearing the same date, of Sir Walter Ralegh's narrative of his expedition to America, entitled 'The Discoverie of the Large, Rich, and Bewtiful Empire of Guiana,' London, 1596. All three of these contemporary editions are to be found in the New York Public Library, among the early books on America gathered by Mr. James Lenox, and deposited by him in the Lenox Library building.

The book was entered for publication by Robert Robinson, in the Register of the Company of Stationers, on the 15th of March, 1596 (1595 O. S.), and each edition bears his imprint. While they agree almost line for line throughout, there are typographical differences on every page. For the information of antiquarians, and as a means of bringing to light still other possible editions, a few of the peculiarities of the Lenox copies may be noted:

Red Morocco Copy.—The title, in the 5th line, begins *Empyre;* the 6th line ends *Citie;* the 7th line has the reading *Spanyards;* and the 15th line, *Stanneries.* Page 2, line 25, begins *monlie;* page 12, line 12, reads *to Spayne;* page 25, line 12, ends *grew dailie;* page 41, line 18, ends *VVa-;* page 55, line 25, has the reading *pretie knots;* page 76, line 9, begins *ble;* page 77, line 18, ends *displant me, if;* page 88, line 27, ends *dovvn the riuer;* page 95 ends *carrie su-* in line 22, and *which* in line 23; page 103, line 5, ends *Spanyards;* page 104, line 3, begins *Spanyardes;* and page 112 has the readings *Spanyard* in line 4, *discouerie* in line 5, and *Siete bocas* in line 8. So far as can be judged by the title, this seems to be the edition described in the British Museum catalogue with the press-mark C. 32. g. 25, and perhaps it is also like the Grenville copy, which has the press-mark G. 7169. (1.)

Blue Morocco Copy.—The title, line 5, begins *Empire;* line 6 ends *City;* line 7 has the reading *spaniards;* and line 15, *Stanneries.* Page 2, line 25, begins *commonly;* page 12, line 12, reads *Spaine;* page 25, line 12, ends *grew dailie to;* page 41, line 18, ends *Wara;* page 55, line 25, has the reading *prittie knots;* page 76, line 9, begins *mable;* page 77, line 18, ends *displant mee;* page 88, line 27, ends *dc wne the riuer;* page 95 ends *carrie suger, gin-* in line 22, and *which the west* in line 23; page 103, line 5, ends *Spaniardes;* page 104, line 3, begins *Spaniardes;* and page 112 has the readings *Spaniard* in line 4, *discouery* in line 5, and *Sciete bocas* in line 8. This seems to be the edition reprinted by the Hakluyt Society in 1848.

Half Russia Copy.—The title, line 5, begins *Empire;* line 6 ends *Citie;* line 7 has the reading *spanyards;* and line 15 *Sannerries.* Page 2, line 25, begins *monly;* page 12, line 12, reads *to Spaine;* page 25, line 12, ends *grew daily;* page 41, line 18, ends *Wa;* page 55, line 25, has the reading *prettie knots;* page 76, line 9, begins *dable;* page 77, line 18, ends *displant me;* page 88, line 27, ends *down the riuer;* page 95 ends *carrie sugar* in line 22, and *which the* in line 23; page 103, line 5, ends *Spanyardes;* page 104, line 3, begins *Spanyards;* and page 112 has the readings *Spanyard* in line 4, *discouerie* in line 5, and *Sciete bocas* in line 8.

Wilberforce Eames.

New York, September 18, 1895.

A JEFFERSON LETTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I find quoted in the August number of a magazine, the *Arena*, p. 441, more than half of the Jefferson letter which was published by Mr. Ford in your issue of July 25. Reference is given to Bancroft's 'History of the Constitution,' pp. 463-465, which is not accessible to me here, so that I cannot verify the quotation or say whether the whole letter is there published or not. It would seem, however, that Mr. Ford was at least partially incorrect in asserting that the letter had been "never yet printed."

There are several verbal differences, pointing to carelessness in the quoted text; as, for example, the following. . . .

Respectfully, James H. Dillard.

Harrisburg, Va., September 9, 1895.

[We are informed by Mr. Ford that he looked in the index of Bancroft's History, and found that there was no letter to the Rev. James Madison entered, and so took it for granted that it was not printed in his collection, whereas Bancroft in fact printed it as a letter to the other Madison, changing the date as if to make it more unrecognizable. We omit our correspondent's list of discrepancies because Mr. Ford has compared his copy anew with the original and satisfied himself of its correctness.—Ed. Nation.]

"GRASS-WIDOW."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since I touched on this term in your issue for March 23, 1893, a good deal of matter connected therewith has been published, in the London *Notes and Queries* more especially. What we now know of it can be summarized in a few words.

Grass-widow, for which, in East Anglia, we sometimes hear *grace-widow*, has, besides its ordinary higher sense, the lower sense of 'an unmarried mother,' and also, though rather rarely, that of 'a harlot.' But, so far as appears, no one gives it more than one of its senses.

As to its etymology, we may at once dismiss the notion of its connection with the vulgar *grouse*, 'to rape,' instead of which, it has been stated, *grass* is used locally in the United States. For no proof has yet been brought forward that *grass-widow* anywhere bears the meaning of 'a girl who has been ravished.'

The existence of the German *strohwittwe*, the Low German *graswedewe*, and the Swedish *gräsenke* certainly suggests that it is somehow akin to them. That our expression was, originally, *grace-widow*, representing the medieval *vidua de gratia*, 'a divorced woman,' has been asserted, indeed, but has not been supported by any authority.

In the sixteenth century, *grass-widow* signified 'a mistress,' or something even more disreputable:

"In fayth, quod your frend, I thynke saynt Powle ment not so. For thē had wyuys ben, in his time, lytel better thā *grasse wydowes* be now." Sir Thomas More, *A dyaloge* (1529), fol. 86 *v.*

Had we, of old, both *grace-widow*, an ecclesiastical technicality, and *grass widow*, in one or other of its present senses? Again, is the first, as a rendering of *vidua de gratia*, anything but an invention of the other day, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, as an actual rusticism, anything but a phonetic corruption? Here in Suffolk, *grass*, particularly in *spear-grass* and *water-grass*, often has the sound of *gress*, or one so nearly like it as easily to be mistakable for that of *grace*. F. H.

Marlesford, England, September 5, 1895.

Notes.

The Lothrop Publishing Company, Boston, are to publish 'The Book of Athletics,' by Norman W. Bingham, jr., and 'Child Sketches from George Eliot,' selected by Julia Magruder, with illustrations.

A 'History of the Nineteenth Century' is the ambitious undertaking of Eugene L. Didier of Baltimore. The story will be told in decades, of which the first is now ready.

Bismarck's biographer, Charles Low, has taken in hand 'The German Emperor, William II.,' with Frederick Warne & Co. for publishers. The same firm have in preparation a new pocket edition of Milton's Poetical Works, in four volumes; a wholly new edition, with some unpublished addenda, of the Poems of Eliza Cook; 'Lancashire Idylls,' by J. Marshall Mather; and 'Chess Novelties,' by H. E. Bird.

Ginn & Co. announce 'Problems in Differential Calculus,' by Prof. Wm. E. Byerly of Harvard, and 'Outline of the Philosophy of English Literature—Part I: The Middle Ages,' by Greenough White.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will soon issue 'The Journal of the Countess Krasinska in the Eighteenth Century'; 'Beatrice of Bayou Teche,' by Alice I. Jones; 'Life and Love,' by Miss Morley; and 'Means and Ends of Education,' by Bishop Spalding.

Spon & Chamberlain publish immediately 'An Elementary Text-book on Steam-Engines and Boilers,' by Prof. Kinealy, and 'Polyphase Electric Currents and Alternate Current Motors,' by Prof. S. P. Thompson.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, will publish early in October a novel entitled 'Confession,' by Elizabeth E. Evans. It is a story of New England life, the scene being laid in a mountain village of Vermont.

The calendaring of the Records in the House of Lords proceeds surely, though slowly, as must necessarily be the case with a work of such magnitude. Mr. Felix Skene is performing this work for the Commission upon Historical Manuscripts. It will be good news to Americans in general, and to Pennsylvanians in particular, that among the documents which have been passing through Mr. Skene's hands are some, hitherto unknown, concerning William Penn and the early history of Pennsylvania. It will be a considerable time before the calendar dealing with this important "find" will be published, and, even

after such publication, special authority from the House of Lords itself will be necessary before copies can be made by searchers.

The statement of a Leipzig journal that the late Prof. Heinrich von Sybel had left *druckfertig* a complete manuscript of the eighth volume of 'Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I.,' is unfortunately not true. Equally incorrect is the notion, generally current, that the work was to end with the seventh volume, which contains a narration of events from the opening of the Diet of the North German Confederation in March and the meeting of the Customs Parliament in April, 1868, to the declaration of war by France in July, 1870, and the futile efforts of Napoleon III. to form offensive and defensive alliances with Austria and Italy. It was the intention of the distinguished historian to write an eighth and concluding volume, describing the war of 1870 and its political culmination in the proclamation of the German Empire, just as, in the fifth volume, he had described the war of 1866 and its results in the reconstitution of the German States and the formation of the North German Confederation; but the execution of this plan was prevented by his sudden death in the seventy-eighth year of his age. Indeed, this final volume, so far from having been completed, was not even begun; only a few memoranda referring to the subject were found among his posthumous papers.

During the recent celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Franco-German war, German newspapers and periodicals filled their columns with reminiscences of the terrible conflict, many of which are extremely interesting and permanently valuable contributions to contemporary history. Such, for example, are the extracts from the diary of the deceased Lieut.-Col. Bronsart von Schellendorff, who served as Chief of Division on Moltke's staff, and was sent, September 1, 1870, to the fortress of Sedan to demand the surrender of the French forces; and the stenographic report taken by Count von Nostiz of the negotiations between the French commander, Gen. Wimpffen, and Gen. Moltke and Count Bismarck on the night of September 2, published in a recent number of the *Militär-Wochenblatt*. After the capitulation, as Napoleon, on the morning of September 3, drove away into captivity escorted by a squadron of hussars, while Bismarck and Moltke watched the scene from a window, the latter remarked, with his usual sententiousness: "Voilà une dynastie qui s'en va." It was on the same day that the famous dinner took place in the headquarters of the army at Vendresse. For the first time since the beginning of the campaign champagne appeared on the table. King William filled his glass and drank the memorable toast to the health of his brave army, to the Minister of War, Roon, who sharpened the sword, to Moltke, who wielded it, and to Bismarck, whose conduct of affairs had raised Prussia to its present proud eminence. Moltke then turned to Bismarck and offered him a pinch of snuff. This act of polite appreciation called forth from our diarist the pertinent and punning comment: "Voilà la *prise* de Sedan."

The newest reprints on our table embrace an additional volume in the Messrs. Putnam's uniform edition of the Baroness Tautphoeus's works, namely, her historical novel, 'At Odds.' This makes a timely appearance in the midst of the Napoleonic revival. It is in two neat volumes. Turgeneff's 'Fathers and Sons' takes on the unfamiliar title of 'Fathers and Children' in Constance Garnett's version (Macmillan). Of the quality of the translation in this series we think we have already said enough. It is left not to Stepniak but to Edward Garnett to appreciate the novel and define the Nihilist hero, in the Introduction. "What, then, is Bazaroff?" he asks; and answers, "He is the bare mind of Science first applied to Politics." Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie furnishes a graceful introduction to Miss Edgeworth's 'Ormond' redivivus (Macmillan); and Thackeray's praise of Marryat's 'Jacob Faithful' is made the keynote of Mr. Hannay's introduction to this companion volume in an admirably chosen series, openly and handsomely printed and well illustrated. 'Great Expectations' and 'Hard Times' make one volume in Macmillan's series of Dickens reprints —at first following first editions, now following the one corrected by the author in 1869; and the novelist's namesake supplies the unfailingly interesting account of the work, biographically and bibliographically.

The Harpers have collected into a neat volume the articles 'About Paris,' by Mr. Richard Harding Davis, which have appeared in their magazine during the past year, and publish them under that collective title. Mr. Davis gives, in his bright and readable style, a picture of the tourists' Paris, but he has seen or recorded little of the Paris of those who live there. The Boulevards and the Bois and a dash at the more notorious night resorts make up most of what he shows us. It is a Paris without the Seine and its quays and bookstalls, without Notre Dame and the great museums, without its old gardens or its Latin Quarter. Mr. Davis's remarks about Americans in Paris, in spite of their jaunty self-sufficiency, contain a good deal of salutary truth. The volume is embellished with Mr. C. D. Gibson's clever drawings, and is prettily bound. It is a pity, however, that the designer of the cover did not take the pains to get the arms of Paris right. The chief with the fleurs de-lys should be blue, not white, and the galley should be gold.

The illustrated catalogue of the first exhibition of posters, at the London Aquarium (Brentano's), would hardly call for notice but that it is convenient to have an alphabetical list of the artists who devote, or lend, themselves to this branch of art in England and France. The half-tone prints of selected examples are numerous and characteristic. A well-known American archæologist, Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, furnishes a brief introduction.

The *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September gathers up all that its space permits of Commencement doings and sayings, in addition to the customary news of classes, clubs, schools, marriages, and deaths. Every one who heard must be glad to read over Sir F. Pollock's oration before the Law School Association, with which the number opens. Mr. Winsor briefly outlines the nature of the remodelling of the Library building now going on. Judge Chamberlain sketches the life of a Federal idol, Fisher Ames, whose portrait from the Harvard collection is the third in a valuable series of reproductions. We note further the founding of a Wendell Phillips Memorial Scholarship for the advantage of students who, when the junior year is reached, have given proofs of oratorical talent worth cultivating.

The *Psychological Review* for September contains several articles of general interest. Prof. Royce writes on "Anomalies of Self-consciousness," endeavoring to find in the recent work in child-psychology which emphasizes the social influences present in the development of the child's sense of self, the reason why derangements of the sense of personality in adults so often have a distinctly social reference. He also thinks that it is by reason of the associations formed in the early years between organic sensations and social experiences—in the complex make-up of the self-notion—that the variations of organic conditions get their remarkable influence in producing all kinds of anomalies of self-consciousness. Mr. Havelock Ellis of London reports cases of "Dreaming about the Dead," and shows their bearing on certain anthropological theories. The paper by R. Meade Bache on "Reaction-Time according to Race" also suggests an interesting hypothesis. He supposes that higher culture, by putting emphasis upon the deliberative processes, tends to impair the automatism and celerity of the lower and more reflex functions, and proposes to test it by investigating the reaction-time of subjects of different races. He carried out the research upon ten individuals each of whites, negroes, and North American Indians. His results seem in the main to confirm the hypothesis, except that the reaction-time of the Indian is shorter than that of the negro, while the opposite was to be expected. The whites, however, gave, as he anticipated, the longest time of all. The author accounts for the Indian's short time by his method of life; while the negro, he thinks, has a slower reaction than is normal to him in consequence of the hereditary influences of slavery, by which he has been made servile and sluggish. The subject is interesting enough to be pursued further. The "Discussion" and "Literature" sections of the *Review* are full and able as usual.

Capt. F. D. Lugard gives a graphic account of his successful race with a French expedition to Borgu on the Niger, in the *Geographical Journal* for September. Though mainly concerned with the incidents of the journey, he sketches briefly the history of the Bariba, the inhabitants of Borgu, a warrior race who have thus far maintained their independence against both African and European invaders. They are also inveterate raiders and robbers of caravans, so that the trade between the interior and the colonies of France, Germany, and England, of which their country is the Hinterland, has been almost destroyed. Capt. Lugard, the first white man to reach Nikki, the principal town, was hospitably received by the king, and negotiated a treaty with him which throws the country open to the British. Whether this will be an advantage or not depends largely upon the success of the attempts now being made, with the powerful support of the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, to restrict the liquor traffic which strangles legitimate trade and ruins the native races. Mr. J. T. Last's "Notes on Western Madagascar" are rather disappointing, for, after a somewhat detailed account of his collecting excursions in the northern and central coast region, he gives but a few words to an expedition into the little known Antinosi country in the south. Referring to the prevalent impression that the Hovas are practically masters of the whole island, he says that probably not half the natives are subjects of the queen, the independent tribes being those living south and west of a line drawn from Mujanga in the northwest to Fort Dauphin in the southeast.

The annual report of Mr. E. H. Hankin, bacteriologist to the Government of the North-western Provinces, as summarized by the London *Times*, contains some very interesting and surprising conclusions. Numerous investiga-

tions show that the four great rivers, including the Ganges, afford "a purer drinking supply than European rivers comparable in size." This he attributes to the fact that, being composed largely of melted snow, they contain little organic matter, and that the intense sunlight, acting at a high temperature, is peculiarly destructive to microbes. In proof of this he says that while a cubic centimetre of water at the bathing and washing places at Allahabad contains over 90,000 microbes, "at a distance just sufficient to be beyond immediate contamination, only 360 microbes could be detected in each cubic centimetre of water." In regard to the supply from wells, he has come to the conclusion that the caste restrictions and prohibitions, especially those forbidding strangers or men of lower castes to touch their drinking vessels or to draw water from their wells, are not, as has been supposed, the outcome of cruel and irrational prejudice, but are founded on a basis of sound sense and a knowledge of sanitary laws learned by centuries of experience. The plea of caste contamination acts as a defence against well-pollution.

The translation of the Bible into different languages and versions goes on with almost accelerated rapidity. From the ninety-first annual report of the British and Foreign Bible Society it appears that "the editorial subcommittee have had to deal with over one hundred versions during the year 1894." There is now passing through the press the first Pushtu Bible in the language of the people of Afghanistan, and a marginal-reference Bible in Malagasy, while versions for natives of Africa, New Guinea, Japan, the Himalayas, and Assam have recently been published.

With the opening of its new McMahon School of Philosophy on October 1, the Catholic University at Washington, D. C., will admit all properly prepared applicants. Hitherto the courses of this University have been open only to those who had taken holy orders in the Roman Catholic Church; hereafter there will be no discrimination made against either laymen or women who may desire to take the courses in science, philosophy, and arts. But while women students will be admitted to the lectures and studies in both the regular and special courses, they will not be permitted either to matriculate or to receive degrees.

We touch elsewhere on the report of the Committee on the English Department of Harvard University. Copies of this document can be obtained gratuitously on application to J. Bertram Williams, Publication Agent of the University, Cambridge, Mass.

"S." writes to us from Boston: "I sympathize with your correspondent who asks your aid to save the name of Deer Isle from extinction through the substitution of Deer Island. Deer Island to a Bostonian suggests, as Blackwell's does to a New Yorker, crime and poverty, having been a locality for similar institutions for years." We may add still another argument, namely, that a Deer Island lies adjacent to the coast of Maine in Passamaquoddy Bay.

—A number of interesting points are brought out in Mr. Alexander McAdie's paper on "Protection from Lightning," just published by the Weather Bureau at Washington. He quotes the well-known answer of certain Glasgow manufacturers when urged by Lord Kelvin, the foremost physicist of our time, to put up lightning-rods, that "it is cheaper to insure than to do so." Careful search by means of reliable statistics reveals the fact that in the United States for the five years, 1890 1894, lightning caused the death of 1,120 persons, practically all between April and September; June and July showing the greatest number. In the United States, during the nine years ending in 1893, there were 4,175 fires caused by lightning, nearly all east of the Rocky Mountains, with an aggregate loss of considerably more than fourteen million dollars. From these figures and other information, the author proves that it is certainly worth while to erect protective apparatus. As to the kind of buildings struck, the same years show 2,679 barns, 129 churches, and 831 dwellings. The statistics for 1894 are noteworthy for the number of lives lost and the amount of property destroyed. Dr. Oliver Lodge states that "almost any conductor is probably better than none, but few or no conductors are absolute and complete safeguards." This is largely because of the heretofore incompletely understood character of lightning as an oscillatory discharge. Interesting observations are recorded with regard to the kinds of trees most frequently struck, the varieties of soil peculiarly favorable to such action, and the influence of running water. Paragraphs upon the proceedings to be at once taken in case of apparent death from lightning and upon the efficiency of conductors follow, while the paper closes with fine photographs of destructive lightning flashes, and illustrations of their effects upon certain trees and monuments.

—Both Sparks (vol. vii., pp. 66 to 73) and Bigelow (vol. ii., pp. 291 to 299) give Franklin's letter to Peter Collinson of May 9, 1753, without its concluding portion, which is said to have been wanting in the copy from which it had been taken. A correspondent of the *Nation* has found among the Shaftesbury papers (section x. 24) preserved in the Public Record Office, London, a copy of the letter *in extenso*, which gives the concluding portion in the following words:

"[I do not think you are generally become such slaves to your Vices, as to draw down that *Justice* Milton speaks of when he says that] sometimes nations will descend so low from Reason which is Virtue, that no Wrong, But Justice, and some fatal Curse annex'd deprives them of their outward Liberty

"Their inward lost.—Parad. lost.

"In History we find that Piety, Publick Spirit, & Military Spirit, & Military Prowess have their Flows, as well as their Ebbs, in every Nation, and that the tide is never so low but it may rise again. But should this dreaded fatal change happen in my time, how should I even in the midst of the Affliction rejoice, if we have been able to preserve those invalueable Treasures, and can invite the good among you to come and partake of them! O let not Britain seek to oppress us, but like an Affectionate Parent endeavour to secure Freedom to her Children; They may be able one day to assist her in Defending her own—whereas a mortification begun in the Foot may spread upwards to the Destruction of the nobler Parts of the Body.

"I fear I have already extended this rambling Letter, beyond your Patience, and therefore conclude with requesting your Acceptance of the inclosed Pamphlet from

"Sir,

"Your most humble servant,

"B. FRANKLIN."

—In the year 1808, the *Correio Braziliense*, a prominent Brazilian journal, drew attention to the disadvantages likely to result from the establishment of the seat of government at a seaport, inaccessible from many parts of the country, and exposed at any time to the attacks of a hostile navy. Not until recently, however, have active measures been taken towards transferring the capital from Rio Janeiro to some point in the interior. The constitution of 1890 provides for the reservation of 9,000 square miles in the "Central Plateau" of Brazil, and the founding of a new capital. Accordingly, in 1892, a commission of twenty-one scientists was appointed by the Minister of Public Works, with Dr. Luiz Cruls as chief, with instructions to explore this region and to define the boundaries of the portion to be set apart as a new "Federal District." The results of the exploration, which was undertaken in the summer of 1892, have been published in a quarto volume of 365 pages, in Portuguese and French, illustrated by numerous excellent heliogravures. The report of the chief of the commission describes the methods employed in the scientific investigations, and gives an account of the journeys of the different divisions and a summary of the work accomplished by the expedition. Following this are special reports on the geology, meteorology, botany, and zoölogy of the Plateau by different members of the commission. An atlas, containing plans of the route-surveys and maps of the country traversed, accompanies the report. The future Federal District lies in the neighborhood of the Pyrenneos in the State of Goyaz, about 750 miles from the coast by the railway which is projected. It contains the head waters of the important rivers Tocantins, São Francisco, and Paraná. The mean altitude is 3,600 feet, and the climate is salubrious, the average temperature being 67 degrees Fahr., so that European immigrants would not experience the discomforts of acclimatation. Water is abundant and of excellent quality, and the supply of stone and wood for building purposes adequate. The topographical features of the territory are such that no difficulty would be met with in selecting a site for a great city. The growth of Brazil has hitherto been confined to a limited portion of the coast and some of the southern States, but it is now found that there exists in the interior a region abounding in natural advantages, only awaiting development to become an important commercial and industrial centre, and a powerful factor in the prosperity of the republic.

—In *La Révolution Française* of August 14 M. Cl. Perraud prints nine hitherto unpublished letters of Mme. Roland, which he has discovered while engaged upon an edition of her correspondence. These letters were written in 1791 to Champagneux, a Lyons municipal officer. Mme. Roland was at the time in Paris with her husband, who was trying to persuade the Constituent Assembly to incorporate into the national debt certain expenditures of Lyons ordered by the royal power and for its needs. The letters do not bring to light new facts about the period, but they give vivid impressions of the state of feeling among Mme. Roland's friends and their party associates during the eventful summer of the Flight to Varennes and the Massacre of the Champ de Mars. The radicals were evidently anxious to be rid of the Deputies of the Constituent Assembly, who, according to Mme. Roland's letter of May 27, were tired and "usés." She thinks them much enamoured of power, and that, if not promptly turned out, they may reenact the drama of the Long Parliament. Her July letters reveal the panic into which her friends were thrown by the Massacre of the Champ de Mars. She even goes so far as to declare that more circumspection was required than in the days when the Bastille was still standing. Another curious remark was made under the influence of the news that Roland, whom she always calls "notre ami," had been defeated in his candidacy for the Legislature

from the department of the Rhône-et-Loire. After expressing the hope that other departments will not act like theirs, she says: "Mais croyez que nous n'aurons pas de législature sans un parti de l'*opposition*, qui sera toujours celui des honnêtes gens et de la minorité." She would hardly have subscribed to this statement a year later, when the Convention was in session, or even during the last months of the Legislature. The friends of Danton and Robespierre would have had no difficulty in doing so, however.

—In the winter semester of 1894–95, Dr. Theobald Ziegler, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Strassburg, delivered a course of seventeen academical lectures, which have been just published in a volume entitled 'Der deutsche Student am Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts' (Stuttgart: Göschen). Two centuries ago the famous jurist and humanitarian reformer, Christian Thomasius, gave a series of discourses in the newly founded University of Halle "On the Wretched Condition of Students," which, as the title implies, portrayed the life and character of the *civis academicus* of that day in a not altogether rosy light. Since then hodegetics, as the general subject is pedantically termed, has become a distinct discipline and more or less prominent branch of study in the University curriculum. In rare cases the topic has been treated with such breadth of view and superior force of intellect as to acquire a national importance, as, for example, in Fichte's 'Vorlesungen über die Bestimmung des Gelehrten' (Jena, 1794), which aimed to inspire the youth of his time with a nobler conception of the mission of the scholar, Schelling's 'Vorlesungen über die Methode des akademischen Studiums' (Stuttgart, 1803), and Erdmann's 'Vorlesungen über akademisches Leben und Studium' (Leipzig, 1858). Prof. Ziegler's lectures differ from those of Schelling and Erdmann, and are similar in scope to those of Thomasius, inasmuch as they are addressed exclusively to students and touch only incidentally upon the functions of professors and other features of academical life and study. The old scholastic conundrum "Quid est studio*sus* sine studio?" serves as an appropriate text to his severe discourse on the character and career of the *fin-de-siècle* German student, who regards academical freedom as a release from moral laws and obligations, and uses it as a license for laziness and licentiousness. In order to correct this false and fatal notion of academical freedom he discusses its real nature, and gives a brief sketch of its mediæval and essentially monastic origin and its historical development until it was gradually restricted and finally abrogated as a legal privilege.

—In civil and criminal suits the university student of to-day is amenable to ordinary courts of justice; he is also subject to the same police control as the common citizen; the most despised *Philister* is his peer in matters of judicial punishment. The only exception to this rule is the right of the student in Prussia to be confined in the university "Carcer" if he has been condemned to not more than a fortnight's imprisonment. Academical freedom, in its original juristic sense, is an institution of the past, and there remains only academical discipline administered by the rector and senate of the university, who, however, do not possess absolute authority, even in this limited sphere, since they are forced to expel any student upon whom a judicial penalty has been imposed involving the forfeiture of civil rights. Academical freedom, as now understood, is partly social, but chiefly intellectual. After twelve years of strict pedagogical supervision, ending with a rigorous examination, the youth enters the university, where he is at once freed from all constraint as to the choice and pursuit of his studies. It is assumed that, having been compelled to do regular work during this plastic period of his life, he will continue to do so from sheer force of habit after the compulsion ceases. All that the university requires of him as a matriculate is, that he shall make a selection and be inscribed as an attendant of at least one course of lectures each semester; whether he actually attends them or not, is his own affair. In general, this theory may be said to work fairly well, and the great majority of students make a proper and profitable use of their academical freedom; only in exceptional instances does a young man, after a dozen years of coercive studiousness, assert his newly acquired liberty and show his appreciation of it by doing nothing or worse than nothing, thus answering to the definition given by the learned and facetious Balthasar Schupp, more than two centuries ago: "Studiosus est animal aut nihil aut aliud agens." Prof. Ziegler's defence of unrestricted *Lehr- und Lernfreiheit*, the scholar's perfect liberty in searching after truth and in publishing the results of his investigations, is vigorous and timely. Equally judicious and pertinent are his remarks on drinking, duelling, ostentation, and extravagance, sexual immorality, factitious conceptions of honor, corps and clubs, associations in and out of the university, the student's relations to the social question, politics, religion and the Church, science, art, and literature, academical instruction, professional study and general culture, intercourse with professors, use and abuse of vacations, graduation, and examination for the public service. The little volume may be read with profit by the American as well as by the German student. It is already in the fourth edition.

DEAN STANLEY.

The Life and Correspondence of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley. By R. E. Prothero. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THERE are only two kinds of biographies which it is comparatively easy to write—those of persons whose career is interwoven with great events, and those of persons who, being themselves remarkable, have left records of their thoughts and purposes, of their experiences of life and their opinions of their contemporaries abundant enough to approach the peculiar charm of faithful self-portraiture. In the case of Dean Stanley neither advantage is present. Though he played always a worthy, and sometimes a conspicuous, part in the ecclesiastical struggles which marked the history of the Church of England from 1838 till 1880, these struggles do not keenly interest the present generation of Englishmen, whose minds are already filled by new questions and hopes. Though his letters, judging by the extracts given in these volumes, were bright, candid, and vivid, they relate mostly to passing events, and do not (except those which contain impressions of travel) embody quite enough that is exquisite in form or of permanent value for the student of life and thought to make them literature in the sense in which that name may be applied to the letters of Gray or Cowper, of William von Humboldt, or Carlyle, or Macaulay. Had the Dean kept a personal journal, it would probably have been of great interest, not only autobiographically, but historically, for he had a quite remarkable power of seizing the salient points in current history, and perceiving analogies between them and those of other times and countries. But it would appear that no such journal exists.

The Dean's present biographer is under two other disadvantages. He seems to have had only a very slight personal acquaintance with the man of whom he has had to write, eminently one of those whom it was hard to understand except from personal acquaintance. And the fourteen years which have passed since the Dean's death have so much changed the face of English society, the character of the Church of England, and the topics which occupy men's minds in England, that a good deal of what is recorded in these volumes seems already to belong to a comparatively remote past, and to have no very close bearing on the problems of to-day. We say "seems," for the real change is perhaps less great than people think it; but, for the purposes of the general reader and his interest in the book, seeming amounts to the same thing as reality.

Allowing for these difficulties, Mr. Prothero has done his work extremely well. He is almost invariably precise and accurate. He is impartial in dealing with controversial matters, whether ecclesiastical or political. He has been scrupulously careful to avoid the sins of Mr. J. A. Froude and of the biographer of Bishop Wilberforce, and has admitted nothing which could either needlessly pain the living or damage the reputation of the dead. Of Stanley himself he has taken a just and worthy view, not concealing his weaknesses—they were indeed venial weaknesses—and not unduly lauding his merits, but seeking so to relate the facts that his character and conduct should speak for themselves. His sympathy is unobtrusive and his admiration discerning. The book is well planned and agreeably written; and we have little to regret except the absence of that vividness of presentation which only intimate knowledge could have secured. We think, however, that a somewhat too sparing use has been made of Stanley's own correspondence. Especially in the second volume, which is largely occupied by an account of the various ecclesiastical controversies in which the Dean's love of freedom and unselfish courage involved him—controversies in themselves of comparatively slight interest—the full account given of their details should have been abridged to make room for more letters than we find; and the letters presented should have been given more in full, instead of in the sometimes scrappy extracts to which want of space appears to have reduced the biographer. Perhaps he may correct this in a future edition; though we infer that enlargement will be given only in the separate volume of letters already announced. There are, we believe, many of considerable charm and interest from which no extracts, or only very short extracts, have been made.

Stanley was a most characteristic product of the Church of England, and much might be pardoned to her if she produced such men in greater number. There is no country of Continental Europe, Protestant or Roman Catholic, in which such a man could have grown up—no Roman Catholic country, for in them an ecclesiastic is almost necessarily an ecclesiastic through and through, obliged to think so much of his church that he must put his country, his literary or scientific tastes, his personal friendships, in the second or third

line; no Protestant country, for in none of them does a pastor enjoy the same social status, the same quasi-political position of authority and dignity, as the holder of a bishopric or a great deanery has in England. A distinguished professor at a famous university in Germany or Scandinavia affords the nearest parallel; but in those countries the universities have not the independence and wealth which still belong to them in England. Oxford and Cambridge have saved the Church of England from being too clerical, by associating the clergy on the one side with learning and literature, on the other with the upper classes and political life. Stanley was thus throughout his life quite as much a university man as a clergyman, and would, perhaps, have had both a happier and a more widely and permanently effective life had he remained at Oxford instead of going to be Dean of Westminster. He was not exactly a great teacher, in the sense of having a genius either for discourses or for exposition. His learning was not profound, nor was it accurate in details. His mind was not systematic. But it was incessantly active, and its alertness made it extremely suggestive and, in that sense, fertile. Everything interested him, and his interest communicated itself to others. One never met him in the street and talked to him for five minutes without hearing something which, if not remarkable, yet seemed worth remembering—something which no other person would or could have put exactly in the way he put it. This was a gift invaluable to him in his university, for it made his teaching stimulating and his personality attractive to his pupils. Oxford, however, was in his day much more of an ecclesiastical and political battle-ground than it is now, and less a place where many teachers prepare men for examinations and a few devote themselves to minute or abstruse studies. There was then far less examining, and also, it is fair to add, less learning. But there was a very brisk and bracing atmosphere which did more for most men than the present system seems to achieve.

Stanley was the life and centre of every academic movement and every ecclesiastical struggle. He was full of fight and courage, and wrote and preached like one who felt himself always making history, not from personal vanity, but because his imagination expanded everything it touched, and made the University seem an image of the mighty world. He was so little of a dogmatic theologian that his enemies—and his only enemies were to be found among those who did not know him personally—accused him of unconscientiousness in remaining within the pale of the Church of England. Unconscientious he certainly was not. There were certain propositions in the Thirty-nine Articles which he probably did not hold, or at any rate set very little store by. But his was not the kind of mind that actively disbelieves and feels it is disbelieving. His delight in all things was to discover resemblances and extenuate differences; and his attachment to the historical Church of England was so profound that he would have felt himself far more substantially at variance with any other Christian community, even if in abstract points of doctrine he might have come nearer to it than he did to the opinions of ninety-nine one-hundredths of the Anglican clergy. The historical Church of England, he loved to say, was built upon compromise, and her history had been one of compromise; and he would have thought it a great injury to her comprehensiveness for any one to leave her because he did not agree with the current interpretations of her formulas, or even with the literal construction and original sense of portions of those formulas themselves. This attitude of mind was that of some of his most eminent Broad Church contemporaries, and though it may be pushed to excess, and could not so well be defended in a country of many free churches, all based on creeds which they have settled for themselves, the circumstances of England still commend it to some men who differ more widely from the Thirty-nine Articles than Stanley did.

The personal charm which endeared the Dean to his friends is not easy to describe. He had a good deal of reserve, and admitted very few persons to real intimacy. But he had an immense capacity for interesting himself in and helping those whom he thought worthy, even when they had no claim on him; and this help was rendered in such a cordial and ungrudging way that it gave a pleasure to the recipient that might be disproportionate to the magnitude of the service. There was also a sort of freshness and brightness about him, an unslaked and unslakable curiosity and eagerness, which made his society extremely stimulating. He seemed to be always getting out of life the most it could yield; and in his company one felt infected by this keenness of perception and enjoyment, and became for the time able to discern in passing events more than they meant to ordinary observers. He had that delightful gift of being unlike any one else which does so much to make people interesting, and he added to it a grace of manner and a quickness of sympathy which dispelled the shyness young men felt in approaching a person of such eminence. Few men have mixed so much in the world or lived so much in the air of a court, and yet contracted so little of worldliness or the faults of the courtier. In the society of London he filled a place which has remained empty ever since, and those who knew him well still, after fourteen years, miss the slight little figure that darted about like a fire-fly, and seemed, though so short sighted that he could not recognize a face at ten yards, to perceive and grasp and judge all that was passing, and feel regretfully how often they would like to know what Arthur Stanley thought of this or that event.

TWO ARCHITECTURAL WORKS.

The Cathedrals of England and Wales. [*The Builder* Series.] London: *The Builder.* 1894.

Architecture for General Readers: A Short Treatise on the Principles and Motives of Architectural Design. With an Historical Sketch. By H. Heathcote Statham, Fellow of the Institute of Architects, Editor of *The Builder.* With illustrations drawn by the Author. London, New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THE literary part of 'The Cathedrals of England and Wales' consists of a brief essay upon each of the thirty-two cathedrals named. These essays are sometimes signed, as the preface is, by the initials of Mr. H. H. Statham, editor of the weekly London journal the *Builder.* The article on Lincoln Cathedral is by Canon Venables, that on Gloucester by the architect, F. S. Waller, that on Carlisle by the architect, C. J. Ferguson, and that on Ely by Mr. A. Beresford Pite. The majority, however, are not signed, and all are probably taken from the columns of the *Builder.* They are of mixed character, containing history and criticism; and each one, as a brief record of the cathedral building and its fortunes, is of great interest to a student of architectural antiquities. Illustrations are given in the columns of the text, sometimes as many as six or seven to a single notice, and these generally deal with details of the interior. In the great deficiency of easily accessible accounts of these buildings, the present series of notices is valuable. It is to be desired that they should be printed in a small and inexpensive volume.

In the present heavy folio they are the accompaniment of thirty-two general plans and thirty-two views, all reproduced by one or another photographic process from original drawings. The plans are of the greatest value, and are a real accession to the existing material of architectural and archæological study. They are on a large scale and very complete in detail, and we are fully prepared to admit the claim of superior and hitherto unattained accuracy which is made for them in the preface. The reproduction of them is only moderately successful, and in some cases the lettering is much too small, or too confused with the dotted and broken lines of the vaulting-plan to be easily read. This imperfection of the process is not, however, so marked as to destroy the value of the elaborate distinction made by the tinting of the section of walls and piers, whereby the different epochs of the building are denoted, though this device is of but a limited utility. It gives the dates of the substructure, but cannot hint at the supremely important changes which have taken place above, where fifteenth-century vaulting springs from thirteenth-century piers—and greater changes than that. All this weighed and considered, the plans remain a really prodigious gain to all students, and put the study of English mediæval architecture on a new basis. The text illustrations, above cited, have all the appearance of perfect trustworthiness, and are very exact so far as we have been able to test them; they are fairly well reproduced, and are often even pleasing in themselves. One longs for a larger supply of them. A thousand such pictures, with these plans to elucidate them, how valuable a set would that be! For these subjects are often hard to reach with the camera; in any event, photographs of such details are hard to come by, and it is photographs of such details that the student most desires

As for the general views in the volume before us, the pains and labor and thought which have gone into these large drawings are not to be ignored, but the method is out of date for representing architectural effect. Studies of building and of the way in which parts are put together are best in line-work, as Viollet-le-Duc has shown, and as the studies in the text of this very book help to show; but for the artistic result let us take such work as that in 'La Normandie Monumentale,' in the 'Épidaure' of MM. Defrasse and Lechat, in Fritsch's 'Deutsche Renaissance,' in Dohme's 'Barock- und Rococo-Architektur,' in Uhde's 'Baudenkmaeler in Grossbritannien,' in Gotch's 'Architecture of the Renaissance in England,' in Enlart's 'Architecture Gothique en Italie,' or in Gonse's 'Art Gothique.' Architecture that exists and that needs not, as Greek temples do, to be recreated from measurement and calculation, requires the photograph, and not the slow and disguising hand of the draughtsman, overweighted as he must be by the general mass of a great cathedral. Why should the mind of the artist who draws be thrust in between the work of the artist who builds and the student? Moreover, the greater number of these large pictures are of the most unsuccessful character in the combination of draw-

ing and reproduction. Some of them are phantoms of buildings, in which neither are general masses well shown nor details at all made evident. It is with regret that we are compelled to make the same remark concerning the greater number of the illustrations in Mr. Statham's 'Architecture for General Readers'; they are disfiguring to his pages and often really hard to understand. And yet Mr. Statham is an artist of real force, as two of his drawings found in the smaller book very sufficiently show.

The second book on our list is by the same Mr. Statham who appears as editor and part author of the 'English Cathedrals.' It is altogether a book for the general public, being a very well imagined handbook of the simpler and more obvious principles of architecture, and of its practice among the chief races of builders, except that the people of India are rather too hastily barred out (pp. 202 and 289). The account of theory and practice is arranged in two forms, first, in chapters on general principles, on simple building with pillars and walls supporting beams, on building with arches, and on ornament of different kinds; and, second, in an historical sketch, which occupies the last third of the volume. In the first chapter, architectural working-drawings are explained, though not, perhaps, with complete success. It is very important to add some elucidation of the *section*, and the full significance of a section taken on a line A B or C D of the plan is left uncertain; moreover, the perspective sections 23 and 24 are not working-drawings at all, and that should be made clear. In questions of design Mr. Statham is exceedingly naturalistic, an unhesitating champion of common sense and logic as opposed to mere tradition. We have nothing but approval for such an interpretation of architectural art as that to be found on pp. 20, 21, 28, and 29, and generally throughout these chapters. The analysis of styles is commonly adequate. Differences of opinion apart, it is hard to see how the essential peculiarities of each of the great styles could be better explained in the space allotted to it. The chapter on "Architecture in relation to Cities and Landscape," too, deals with a subject that is generally neglected. The brief hints given, pp. 174 to 180, on the use in cities of vistas, openings to distant views, foliage, placing of monuments, and the like, are excellent.

We have spoken of differences of opinion, and the many places in the book where another writer would interpret differently and criticise from another point of view need not be specified. In writing so briefly as Mr. Statham has done, only general conclusions can be stated. One point, however, should be made: the unfortunate use (so common in English) of the word Renaissance to cover, in architecture, all the Italian work from A. D. 1425 on, and all the work in the North which agrees with Italian work in being related closely to classical models, leads to an erroneous fashion of looking at the work of the fifteenth and that of the eighteenth centuries as in the main one and indivisible. The French way of limiting the use of the word to the fifteenth century for Italy and to the reigns of Louis XII., Francis I., and perhaps Henry II. for France, allows of and leads to a more accurate way of reasoning. The Italians, too, discriminate, though less carefully, between the Risorgimento, the Classicismo, and the Decadenza; or, following another line, between the Quatrocento and the Cinquecento. On p. 321 of the book before us we are told that the most notable single buildings of the Renaissance are St. Paul's at London, St. Peter's at Rome, the Palace of Versailles, and the Escurial; no one of which is a Renaissance building according to the French or the Italian nomenclature. This in itself is perhaps of small importance—how the limits of the Renaissance are to be marked out is matter of opinion; but the resulting or coincident inaccuracy of historical view is important. In pages 318-321 is contained the brief notice which Mr. Statham allows to the classical revival, but there is in them no hint that any changes took place, any development and decay, during the three and a half centuries following 1425. It is clear, of course, that the author does not wish to give much space or much attention to the revived classic styles, but still it is unnecessarily misleading to leave the reader ignorant of the vast difference in purpose and aim of, say, Bramante or Fra Giocondo, Pierre Lescot or Pedro de Ibarra, and Sir Christopher Wren or Jules Hardouin Mansart. These men represent not one style but three styles, and there are as many more styles which those four centuries brought into being. We cannot afford to believe that they are all "Renaissance" together.

A notice which is meant to be favorable and even laudatory must not end with fault-finding. Let it be repeated that the styles which the author undertakes to analyze and explain are well understood, and that architectural ornament as well as construction and the resulting forms is better set forth and more clearly brought to the comprehension of beginners than in any popular work we have met with in any language.

Four Years of Novel Reading: An Account of an Experiment in Popularizing the Study of Fiction. Edited, with an Introduction, by Richard G. Moulton, M.A., Ph.D., Professor of Literature in English in the University of Chicago. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

THE experiment of eliminating the reading of fiction from our list of amusements and adding it to that of serious occupations has filled "The Backworth Classical Novel-reading Union" with a pride that naturally expresses itself in a printed book. Hitherto the whole of America may be said to have dwelt in ignorance of Backworth, and an Introduction which shows it in the act of despoiling us of a joy is perhaps not the happiest conceivable. The medium of public advertisement of Backworth's effort towards self-culture is Prof. Moulton of Chicago, until recently an eminent University Extension lecturer in England. He feels strongly about the educational value of fiction, and boldly advises young persons of limited leisure for reading to go straight to the great imaginative writers, even if presumably veracious historians and biographers be utterly neglected. He says the study of fiction must be set about because it "is in its highest form the study of life," and he believes that careful training in youth "will determine whether fiction shall be a dissipation or a mental and moral food." An abiding faith in the contrariness of human nature leads us to forecast results from such a system not anticipated by Prof. Moulton, such as the spectacle of youth trained on Scott and Dumas either taking to Freeman's 'Outlines' for recreation in maturity, or misspending old age in devotion to shilling shockers.

The value in life of a love for good literature contracted in youth admits no argument, but whether that can be forced by a deliberate training which necessarily modifies pleasure, is by no means so certain. Prof. Moulton recognizes the difficulty of persuading the multitude to approach fiction in his own grave if not prayerful spirit, and the object of this publication is to show how that difficulty is in the way of being overcome in Backworth. The Secretary of the Union describes its inauguration and methods, adds a list of novels read and of points discussed during four years, and then follow a few essays as concrete examples of culture. The Secretary's report is charmingly naïf and sincere. Recognizing a possible vagueness in the public mind as to the whereabouts of Backworth, he begins with an exact geographical statement, and then, with admirable local enthusiasm, indicates the superiority of his own village to other villages similarly abandoned to the coal-mining industry. His picture of the awakening of Backworth to the "great educational value of literature" accomplished by a course of U. E. lectures in 1890, prompts reflection on the slow emergence of England from the dark ages, and prepares us to fancy the simple Backworthians forming a society for the study of classical fiction "with an appreciation closely allied to enthusiasm." They make a strong appeal to imaginative sympathy, even the backsliders, those who insisted on having two months in which to read their novel, and those "who refused to do any work until they had read the book," no matter how much time was required for that performance. We are glad to learn that these honest, ingenuous souls were not turned out of the Union, and that compromises were effected whereby they were enabled conscientiously "to do work" on the sound basis of knowledge.

It does not surprise us to hear that the methods of a literary society with members of that mettle have already been adopted "at such places as London and Exeter." We cannot help thinking that they would have done just as well without the "suggestion by experts" of subjects for discussion, which suggestions Professor Moulton says are of the first importance. What largely distinguishes our classical fiction from the rest is the clearness of its message, the saliency of its points; and the people who take the trouble to study it had best be left to grasp and interpret for themselves. The suggestions given from literary experts (hateful phrase!) are not uniformly creditable to their expertness, and we hope that the next publication of the society will include essays from untrammelled Backworthians only. Thus may be avoided the fatuity of discourse on why Dickens is more famous than Reade; the futility of comparison between great but totally different writers, and, perhaps, the shock of such startling information as that Reade shows "the male side of the quality whose female counterpart produces *Keynotes*, *The Heavenly Twins*, and *Trilby*"!

Thinking, Feeling, Doing. By E. W. Scripture, Ph.D. (Leipzig), Director of the Psychological Laboratory in Yale University. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent, The Chautauqua-Century Press. 1895. 12mo, pp. xii, 304.

THIS book is an offering—a very spicy one—on the altar of that bellicose faction in psychology whose shibboleth is Wundt. The author mentions him, in a quiet way, with the best faith in the world, as the greatest of psychologists. Everything that is of value in modern material civilization (in which the author includes our "tall buildings"!) is due, he says, to "experiment." It is owing to the "late introduction of experiment" into the mental sciences that they are in a "mediæval condition"—

"two hundred years behind the physical sciences"; that the "old" psychology consists of "volumes of vague speculation and flimsy guess-work," an "arm-chair science" "which anybody could teach"; that ethics is but "a conglomeration of maxims," and "philology nothing more than a history of word changes without an attempt to explain the causes."

"The difference between the old and the new [psychology] is not one of material: the subject is the same for both, namely, the facts of mind. The difference lies in the carefulness with which the information in regard to these phenomena is obtained. Instead of careless observation and guess-work, the utmost care and self sacrificing labor are expended in the laboratory in order to obtain single facts. This method of careful scientific work is unintelligible to men of the old school" (pp. 282–3).

"Hypnotic exhibitions," "thought-transference follies," and "the so-called psychical-research experiments" are "amusements," says our author, "as unrelated to scientific experiments as clairvoyant healing or faith-cure to the science of medicine" (p. 26). And in the margin, as the paragraph summary, he has written, "Quack experiments." Every little counts!

There are a good many pages in the book composed in this tone, sauced with a touch of swagger. It is a relief to turn from them to the chapters of exposition—the "old" psychologist in especial will find it so; there is much in them to console him. They give the "results" up to date of the "new" psychology, and tell briefly how those results were reached. Even admitting them to be "results" properly so called (and many of them are still in dispute—a fact which the author omits to mention), they hardly justify Dr. Scripture's flourish of trumpets; they hardly supply that "lack of information on the most vital questions" of which, he declares, we are "dying." They consist largely in the trivialities of reaction time, and in the verification, with an infinite waste of pedantry, of conclusions that the "old" psychology had reached and proved time out of mind. One doesn't need a laboratory and a lot of apparatus and experiment to prove that small objects are more likely to escape notice than big ones—a needle than a haystack (p. 93), or that "the degree of attention paid to an object depends on the intensity of the feeling aroused" (p. 96). And as for "vague speculation and flimsy guess-work," see Dr. Scripture's remarks on the connection between spruceness on a man-o'-war and duty and discipline:

"Cleanliness is not the only reason why a man-of-war is kept in a high degree of polish. The furnishings could be just as clean if painted with black asphalt; but the effect on the officers and men would be quite different. *It is impossible* to get full attention to duty and discipline in a dingy vessel."

It gives one a certain sense of security to go back to one's James or Mill.

Vita del Barone Bettino Ricasoli. By Aurelio Gotti. Florence: Le Monnier.

THIS book is a great disappointment, and the fault lies not with the subject, but with the author. A biographer who succeeds in making a tedious book about Ricasoli has mistaken his calling, for Ricasoli was not only one of the most striking personalities of his time, but also a leading actor in Italy's regeneration. Had he never carried Tuscany through the crisis of 1859, or been Prime Minister of Italy after the calamity of Cavour's death in 1861, and again during the perplexities of 1866, he would still be a figure worthy of being painted by a master's hand.

His present biographer, Signor Gotti, is favorably known as the author of a Life of Michelangelo, published about twenty years ago, and as the editor, with Tabarrini, of the ten volume edition of Ricasoli's correspondence. He cannot plead inexperience, therefore, nor lack of information; the trouble seems to be, on the contrary, that he is simply swamped by his material. He is at the further disadvantage of being unable to forget that he is writing the "official" biography of the Tuscan statesman, so that he moves with hardly more freedom than do the writers of campaign biographies of Presidential candidates. Not that he falsifies—he states Ricasoli's limitations fairly enough; but he has no sense of proportion. He gives thrice as much space, for instance, to Ricasoli's instructions to one of his farmers about planting a certain field as to the cause of Ricasoli's resignation of the premiership in 1862. Signor Gotti assumes throughout that the reader is familiar not only with Italian history, even in its most intricate political minutiæ from 1840 to 1880, but also with the ten volumes of Ricasoli's letters and documents. So he quotes without supplying dates or explaining references; and he fails to produce upon us the impression of sequence or advance. His chapters are like the radial wings of a penitentiary, which have no outlet at the further end, so that you have always to return to the central point if you would traverse a new corridor.

In so many of his methods is Signor Gotti old-fashioned that we are amused to observe how closely, in others, he resembles the most approved exponents of one modern school of historical students. He, too, like the most zealous of the young Stubbses whose monographs drop periodically with dull thuds from the historical seminars of many of our colleges, has learned the virtue of the art of dumping. Would that he had imitated some of the good qualities of those same young Stubbses. He has issued a book of nearly 400 closely printed octavo pages without an index, without titles to chapters, without headlines, so that the unfortunate student who has to refer to it for facts must be prepared to waste much time. Such an occupation will have the tedium and chill, without the excitement, of climbing a glacier from top to bottom in search of a lost object.

Meanwhile, Bettino Ricasoli awaits a fitting biographer. His character was as individual as that of the elder Cato, with additional traits which make it more interesting; for in him were strangely mixed the feudal lord and the modern philanthropist, the aristocrat and the democrat, the soberest reasoner and the man of faith. If ever any man stood firmly on his feet and walked straight through life along the narrow path his unswerving conscience marked out for him, the late Baron Ricasoli was he.

New Studies in Literature. By Edward Dowden. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

IT is always a pleasure to receive a new volume from the pen of Mr. Dowden. His wide and exact knowledge of modern literature is under the control of a true taste, and he has at his command a facile and often eloquent style, to which one cheerfully pardons some lack of compression. He is a good interpreter, and the amiable temper of his criticism is always engaging. The contents of the volume before us consist of *Fortnightly Review* papers ranging from Goethe to Fabre d'Eglantine, and from Dr. Donne to Mr. Robert Bridges. They are mostly expository, and in some instances furnish excellent introductions to the study of the authors discussed. The last paper is the only one that was not worth reprinting. It is "an introductory lecture to [Mr. Dowden's] college class," to whom it was no doubt both agreeable and instructive; but it has little to say to the world at large. Perhaps, however, the British public have not been so pestered as the American public with educational journals and summer conventions. The papers on Goethe, five in number, are fragments of a more extended study not yet completed. Though this study may not contain much that is new to persevering sifters of the huge heaps of material which idolatrous industry is constantly piling up in Germany, English readers will look for its completion with expectancy. It is interesting to see that the author has arrived at a view of 'Wilhelm Meister' which, as he himself points out, coincides with Hettner's, though it was not derived from the German critic. "One can hardly hope to say a new word in studying a foreign literature," says Mr. Dowden modestly; "it is perhaps enough if one says a true word."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Alden, Henry M. A Study of Death. Harpers.
Alexander, Rev. J. M. The Islands of the Pacific: A Compendious Sketch of Missions in the Pacific. American Tract Society. $2.
Baird, Prof. H. M. The Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. 2 vols. Scribners. $7.50.
Baldwin, James. A Guide to Systematic Readings in the Encyclopædia Britannica. Chicago: Werner Co.
Beatty, Gen. John. An Answer to "Coin." Columbus, O.: S. K. Donovan. 25 cents.
Bella, Edward. A Collection of Posters. London: Royal Aquarium; New York: Brentanos. 50 cents.
Benecke, Ida. Heine on Shakspere: A Translation of his Notes on Shakspere's Heroines. London: A. Constable & Co.
Bennett, Prof. C. E. Appendix to Bennett's Latin Grammar. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 80 cents.
Bernard, V. F. Le Français Idiomatique. W. R. Jenkins. 50 cents.
Broughton, Rhoda. Scylla or Charybdis? Appletons. $1.00.
Caine, Hall. The Bondman. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
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Crockett, S. R. A Galloway Herd. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Crosse, Victoria. A Woman Who Did Not. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Cureton, Elizabeth. Beautiful Thoughts on Life Eternal. Merriam Co. 75 cents.
Daniell, Alfred. A Text-Book of the Principles of Physics. 3d ed. Macmillan. $4.
Dawson, Sir J. W. The Historical Deluge. F. H. Revell Co. 25 cents.
Defoe, Daniel. Colonel Jacque. 2 vols. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Defoe, Daniel. The Plague in London. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Dickens, Charles. Great Expectations and Hard Times. Macmillan. $1.
Donaldson, Prof. H. H. The Growth of the Brain: A Study of the Nervous System in relation to Education. London: Walter Scott.
Dowson, Ernest. Dilemmas: Stories and Studies in Sentiment. London: Mathews; New York: F. A. Stokes Co. $1 50.
Doyle, A. C. The Stark-Munro Letters. Appletons. $1.50.
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Fontaine, C. Racine's Athalie. W. R. Jenkins.
Greer, Rev. D. H. The Preacher and his Place. [Lyman Beecher Lectures on Preaching.] Scribners. $1.25.
Griffis, W. E. Townsend Harris. First American Envoy in Japan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hall, W. E. A Treatise on International Law. 4th ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hall, Rev. John. "Light unto my Path": Being Divine Directions for Daily Walk. Brentanos. $1.50.
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Hope, Anthony. Half a Hero. Harpers. $1.
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Jenks, Prof. Edward. The History of the Australasian Colonies. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
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Shakspere, W. Hamlet. King Henry VIII. [Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Shenstone, W. A. Justus von Liebig, his Life and Work. [Century Science Series.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Tautphoeus, The Baroness. At Odds. 2 vols. Putnams. $2 50.
Thompson, Francis. Sister-Songs. London: John Lane: Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Thompson, J. G., and T. E. Fairy Tale and Fable for First-Year Pupils. Boston: New Century Educational Co. 42 cents.
Thompson, Prof. D'Arcy W. A Glossary of Greek Birds. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Thompson, Rev. H. M. The World and the Wrestlers. [Boblen Lectures, 1895.] Whittaker. $1.
Trevor-Battye, Aubyn. Ice-Bound on Kolguev: A Chapter on the Exploration of Arctic Europe. London: A. Constable & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $7.
Van Dyke, Rev. Henry. Responsive Readings. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
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Weyman, S. J. The King's Stratagem, and Other Stories. Platt & Bruce.
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No. 2, September, 1895.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 3, 1895.

The Week.

Ex-President Harrison has the reputation of being an astute politician, and so has Gen. New, his "manager." The latter's authorized interview, therefore, in which he asserts, in the name of his chief, that Mr. Harrison is "not a candidate," though it is "absurd to say that he has withdrawn," but that he would advise against the nomination of either Reed or McKinley, was doubtless well-considered and is to be regarded as an important political move. It means that there is to be open warfare between the three from this time on. In this sense Gen. New would probably regard it as an "aggressive" stroke. No more secret intriguing and subsoiling, no more McKinley embassies to Indiana to say that, of course, Harrison will have the vote of his own State on the first ballot, but, when the break-up comes, why, just look over the border. It may be doubted, however, if Messrs. Reed and McKinley will be more pained than pleased by the Harrison announcement that they are not to be his residuary legatees. If his political estate is to come into the Surrogate's Court at all, that is the main thing. They will be willing to take their chances of getting a good slice of it, with or without the good wishes or consent of the testator. Why Harrison should dislike Reed is intelligible on the ground of giving as good as he gets from that quarter. But his stroke at McKinley seems scarcely magnanimous. He effusively signed the McKinley bill, and made an unexampled collection of clippings from the obscure English press bearing on that wonder of statesmanship, and worked them off in his letter of acceptance and final message to Congress. It shows, at any rate, that Gen. Harrison's courage is rising. Perhaps Gen. New will yet tell us what his man, who is not a candidate, thinks about free silver.

The financial plank in the Syracuse Democratic platform marks a step in advance toward the only rational settlement of the currency question. The corresponding plank of the Saratoga Republican platform was excellent also, although not so advanced as the other. We presume that a majority, indeed a large majority, of both parties in the State of New York are in favor of retiring the greenbacks and relieving the Government of all responsibility for the ultimate gold reserve of the country, yet the Democrats have been the first to say so, and they are entitled to credit for so much. The plank is in these words:

"(14.) Sound money; gold and silver the only legal tenders; no currency inconvertible with coin; gradual retirement and extinction of the greenback currency; no free and unlimited coinage of silver."

This plank is not unlikely to foreshadow the policy of the Administration at the coming session of Congress, but upon that point we have no information. No policy could be more timely or more certain to win in the long run. If the Republicans should put themselves in opposition to it, they would fight a losing battle. Enthusiasm for the greenback as a veteran of the war and a relic of patriotism has nearly worn out. The public have had a good deal of light on this subject in the past two years, and are now prepared to listen to purely financial arguments. Whenever the time comes that the question is to be decided on financial grounds exclusively, the greenback will be sent, in one way or another, to its final resting-place, and the country will once more have peace. Of course there will be a demand for some other paper circulating-medium to take the place of the greenback, but when public attention is once seriously fixed upon this problem, the necessary means will be found.

Mr. Perry Belmont's speech at the Syracuse convention was acute in its analysis of the financial troubles which beset the country and of their origin and cure. They are all traceable to the greenback. They are the direct progeny of that mischievous and mistaken "war measure." This was a Republican measure, as Mr. Belmont points out, but no political capital can be made out of that circumstance adverse to the party, because all war measures, however mistaken they may have been, are now held to be sacred. When we come to later times, we shall find that the Democrats have no call to boast over their opponents in devotion to sound money or in the display of wisdom in discerning what sound money consists of. Here Mr. Belmont's speech is open to criticism. He tries to segregate the Democrats of New York for the purposes of praise, ignoring the party in other States *pro tempore*. It is true that the party has had a good record in New York in this respect. The names of Seymour, Tilden, Manning, Belmont, and Cleveland (easily chief) are not to be surpassed, perhaps not equalled, in the Republican party in this State or in any other. It is true, nevertheless, and will be accepted as such by most people without proof, that the Republican party as a whole has been sounder than the Democratic party as a whole. It is susceptible of proof, too, that the most mischievous errors the Republican party has committed since the war have been those to which they were driven by the Democrats—by the Democratic desire and purpose to do something worse. This is especially true of the Sherman act of 1890. The Democrats wanted to pass an act for the free coinage of silver, and did pass it through the Senate. The Republicans passed the Sherman act as a lesser evil. It is true that the Republican party was then in power and was chargeable with the mischievous consequences of that act. Yet when we "take the temperature" of the two parties at that time, we certainly do not find any occasion for boasting that the Democrats were then the sounder of the two.

Senator Sherman made an *ad captandum* speech at Springfield, Ohio, the other day, which furnishes a mark for Mr. Belmont to shoot at, and, in fact, he hits it pretty near the centre. Mr. Sherman said that "the Republican party during thirty years of power furnished for the first time a truly American currency." What is meant by a truly American currency? If it is any advantage to a currency to be truly American, as Mr. Sherman implies, that advantage was shared by the Continental currency, for nothing could be more truly American than that was. No foreign nation had anything to do with it. They would not even accept it in payment for goods. The only essential difference between Continental money and greenbacks was that the latter were eventually made equal to gold. But gold is not peculiarly American. There is much testimony to be had, from the followers of Bland and from the readers of 'Coin's Financial School,' that gold is foreign. Therefore the specie-redemption act, which Mr. Sherman had something to do with in 1874-'75, could not have been the thing which he had in mind when he told the people at Springfield that the Republican party had for thirty years furnished, *for the first time*, a truly American currency. What did he have in mind? The Republican party has furnished during that interval several different kinds of money, such as greenbacks, silver dollars, silver certificates, Treasury notes, and national bank-notes. Are all of these equally American? If so, why have we discontinued the supply of that portion of them consisting of silver or resting upon it? Is not silver sufficiently American?

Senator Hill is said by his admirers to be in a somewhat perturbed, if not dejected, frame of mind over the political outlook in this State. He is opposed to having the committee headquarters established in this city, preferring Albany as both a cheaper place and one more remote from local quarrels which disturb party serenity. We should suppose, after his experience in "personally conducting" the last two campaigns,

that of Maynard and his own, that he would enter upon a third with some gloom. He made a tremendous fight for Maynard in 1893, and lost the State by 101,000. He made another tremendous fight for himself in 1894, and lost the State by 156,000. In both these campaigns he struck the "keynote" in a speech which his admirers declared to be "masterly," but it was clear from the way in which they voted subsequently that the people of the State had not taken stock in it. He has sounded the "keynote" again this year, but there are no signs that the people have paid much heed to it. The simple fact is that they are tired of Mr. Hill. They have had ten or eleven years of personal experience with his kind of politics, and they do not care for any more.

New Jersey citizens are going about with the bewildered air befitting men who are confronted with two first-class nominees for Governor. The thing is so unprecedented that their special wonder is pardonable. Shut up, as they have usually been, to a desperate choice of evils, it will take them some weeks yet to get accustomed to the idea that, whether it be Mr. Griggs or Chancellor McGill who is to be given the governorship next month, the interests of the State will be in the keeping of an intelligent and firm and incorruptible man. Such nominations draw the fangs of partisanship. No respectable Democrat has a word to say against Mr. Griggs, or doubts that he would make an able and honest Governor; no respectable Republican has aught but praise for Chancellor McGill personally. The latter's bearing has certainly been admirable. He has attended strictly to the business of his court, and will continue to do so, saying that he must give all his time to the important cases pending before him. He can dispose of them all by January 1 if he is elected Governor, and if he is not, he says it will not matter. The only condition he is known to have insisted upon as indispensable if he was to take the nomination was the retirement of the discredited chairman of the Democratic State committee; and accordingly that functionary withdrew from the scene on Thursday, with much muttering and cursing. This speaks well for the Chancellor's boldness and determination, and argues, as indeed his whole career and character argue, that the shattered remains of the old Democratic ring will have nothing to hope from him as Governor.

Rhode Island had an election last week —or, at least, it went through the forms of one, for so few people took any interest in the matter at issue that the vote was absurdly small. The question to be decided was whether the Constitution should be so amended as to substitute biennial elections for the annual system, but unfortunately it was complicated with provisions regarding the composition of the Senate and the method of electing Representatives that were objectionable to many who favored the idea of fewer elections. A three-fifths vote is required in Rhode Island to carry an amendment to the Constitution, and the proposed change fell far short of a majority, while the total poll was only 17,696, as compared with over 43,700 cast for Governor last April, and over 54,800 at the State election in 1894. In addition to the opposition caused by the subsidiary features of the amendment, there was a lack of interest in the subject, and also, according to the Providence *Journal*, a general "unwillingness to give up every other year the opportunities to make a dollar, honestly or otherwise, on election day"; this last form of opposition being most conspicuous in the distinctively "boodle" towns of the back country. The force of tradition in favor of frequent elections is also perhaps stronger in Rhode Island than anywhere else, as the original custom in that State made them only six months apart.

For some time past, the same spirit that made Knownothingism sweep like a flood across Massachusetts forty years ago has been reviving in that State under the guise of the A. P. A. movement, and public men were notified that anybody who dared to stand up in the Republican party against the introduction of religious proscription into our politics should be punished. A few weeks ago the golden jubilee of a highly respected Roman Catholic archbishop took place in Boston. Governor Greenhalge was invited to attend as the representative of the State, and he declined to evade the issue by the convenient plea of a previous engagement or any other such device. Bringing, as he said, the "greetings of the Commonwealth," he paid official and personal tribute to the Archbishop, "as a man of God and a citizen of Massachusetts"; declared that "we have been growing together," and that "a spirit of liberalism has brightened every sect, every denomination, every party, every race"; and added that "the fifty years of godly, righteous, and sober life which you have met to recognize, is something which comes home even to the narrowest bigotry and to the narrowest mind"—a rebuke to religious spite which provoked "tremendous applause" from his Catholic audience and aroused the intense indignation of the Protestant "bigots" in the Governor's own party, from which the A. P. A. organization draws its chief strength.

Governor Greenhalge is now serving his second term. Custom in Massachusetts gives a satisfactory executive three terms. If the incumbent had remained a "regular" of the type of "Rising Sun Stove Polish" Morse, for example, nobody would have thought of opposing his renomination this year. But having turned out so much of a Mugwump, the baser elements in the party resolved to secure his defeat. The disappointed machine politicians whose bill to extend the policy of State control of municipal police he vetoed in the cases of Holyoke and Woburn; the spoilsmen who could not forgive him even though his veto of the "veterans' preference bill" had not been sustained in the Legislature; the bigots who cannot bear the idea of treating a Catholic as a citizen of equal rights with a Protestant, joined hands to elect delegates in the Republican caucuses who would insist upon the nomination of some other man. The caucuses were held last week, and the result was most encouraging to all believers in decent politics. The combination against the Governor utterly failed, and his renomination by a large majority in this week's convention is assured. A great triumph for independence is thus achieved, the more striking that it is won for a man who has risen to this higher plane from the lower level of hide-bound partisanship on which he began his public career.

A striking illustration of the carelessness with which legislators do their work is afforded by the present situation in Texas. Some years ago that State permitted prize-fighting upon payment of a $500 tax for every encounter. Later a law was passed prohibiting such fights, and imposing heavy penalties for a violation of the statute. Then a revision of both the civil and the penal codes was made by the last Legislature, this work being completed last April. When the projected fight at Dallas a few weeks hence was announced, the discovery was made that the new civil code contains the old provision legalizing prize-fights upon payment of a tax, while the new criminal code includes the section prohibiting and punishing them. This raised the question as to which of the conflicting laws should prevail over the other, and this in turn the question as to which became law the earlier, the issue being complicated by the fact that neither code received the Governor's approval, and that the one which got through the Legislature first happened to be presented to the executive last. So inextricable was the tangle that there seemed no way out of it except by calling an extra session of the Legislature.

The proposition to insert in the new Constitution of South Carolina a restriction of office-holding to white men recalls the now generally forgotten fact that the fifteenth amendment to the federal Constitution, as originally reported to the Senate, included the right "to hold office," as well as "to vote," as one which "shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude," but that the office-holding clause was stricken out before it finally got through Congress. Senator Howard of Michigan, a leading Re-

publican, opposed the suggestion as by a plain implication giving to Congress authority to fix and establish religious tests for office. He held that the right to vote did not necessarily cover the right to hold office, and that each State ought to have power to set up such restrictions upon the latter as it thought wise. As this office-holding clause was originally reported and after full discussion stricken out, it may be argued that a State may make a particular color or nationality a bar to office-holding without violating the federal Constitution; but even the Bourbons of South Carolina see so clearly the injustice and impolicy of such a course that they voted down the proposition to exclude the black man from eligibility to office.

There seems to have been a lack of clear legal proof against the Cubans tried in Wilmington, Del., for organizing a military expedition against Spain in violation of our laws. Their acquittal was therefore justified, though it is plain from the spirit in which the case was conducted—the temper of the press and the public, the address of counsel, the wild hurrahs in the court and on the streets with which the verdict was received—that an acquittal would equally have followed much stronger evidence. Our solemn national obligation to enforce the neutrality laws and live up to our treaty with Spain would have, we fear, little weight with a jury in many parts of this country. In this particular case there does not appear to have been a miscarriage of justice; but one might easily result in another trial of the kind, which would be a national shame. One can scarcely imagine a hit-or-miss jury sensitive on a point of national honor. Happily, the authorities at Washington are acting as if they really believed a government was as much bound as a gentleman to keep plighted faith, and we are sure they will not relax their vigilance in preventing us from having an *Alabama* case thrown back in our faces.

The law of nations had a bad time of it in Chicago Monday night, at the meeting to free Cuba by resolution. Two speakers openly "defied" it, and a Congressman, the Hon. W. E. Mason, "wanted an immediate repeal of that law, which was only intended to prevent one nation from interfering while another was committing depredations of some kind." He will doubtless introduce a bill for that purpose early in the next session, and will include in it, we hope, while he is about it, provisions for the repeal of international exchange of currency and mails, payment of international debts, extradition of criminals, foreign travel, and all the other odious and insulting relations which foreigners would thrust upon this proud and free people. Mr. Mason is only comic; but what about the leading Chicago clergymen who lent their presence and voices to what was, in substance, a meeting to encourage international lawlessness? Had they any trustworthy evidence upon which to base their charges of "unspeakable cruelty" against the Spanish troops in Cuba? We venture to say not a scintilla, except the exaggerated reports of lying newspapers. How do they know that the course of the Cubans is "more humane"? The Cubans themselves boast of the ravages and desolation which they are making with torch and dynamite. When religious leaders are thus violent in their ignorance, when a Protestant bishop declares his willingness to aid in "raising an army to help these people win their independence," we get some idea of what the wild passions of the mob would bring on us if we had a great navy eager to execute their behests.

Free Trade, we regret to say, has again been guilty of "astounding frauds," "amazing exaggerations," and "absurd inflation." The way of it was this: In a newspaper identified with neither Free Trade nor accuracy, it was asserted on Labor Day (note the peculiar malevolence of this) that the wages of 420,000 men had been increased under the operation of the Wilson tariff. But the *Tribune* was able to see, "almost at the first glance," that the lists given were "a body of most glaring frauds," and on Monday, after keeping up its glances for a month, proceeded to "strip" the record of the year of the "frauds and falsehoods" with which Free Traders have tried to cover it. Truly it is a painful, a most humiliating exposure. You dare assert that the wages of 420,000 men have been increased, do you? Well, what will you say, where will you hide, when you learn from the *Tribune* that the real number is only a beggarly 336,840? Democratic platforms are trying to deceive the people about advancing wages. But mark how the *Tribune's* plain tale shall put them down. In March, it says, 15,000 men got increased wages, in April 77,490 (but after Congress had adjourned, "and not before"—put that down), in July 77,000, and "since less than 40,000 per month." Free Trade will scarcely survive this. The wages of only 336,840 men increased, and the increase now going on at the rate of less than 40,000 per month!

A Treasury surplus of $3,000,000 for September may be a good thing for the country, but it has had an alarming effect on the expert whom the *Tribune* keeps at Washington to expose our wretched tariff law and the more wretched officials who administer it. The vision of free-traders "exulting" over this surplus has been too much for the poor head of this unfortunate gentleman, and he fills the air with shrieks about "a sham," "a false pretence," "an attempt to deceive the country," "a forced balance." His only comfort is that there will be a tremendous deficit this month, and a still bigger one in November. For the sake of this pitiable victim of the mania for protection statistics, all good Christians will hope there may be. One more surplus would finish him. Meanwhile, the prosaic business world, with a cruel indifference to exulting free-traders or ululating protectionists, will reckon the surplus as simply one of many signs of improving business. In their heart of hearts, Republicans themselves, except the McKinley faction, are devoutly praying that the existing tariff may produce sufficient revenue. If it does not, they will have to devise some new taxes; somebody will have to pay those taxes; in that way votes may be lost, and how then can the country be saved from the horrors of Democratic rule?

The anthropological section of the British Association had a lively discussion at Ipswich on the question of "Interference with the Civilization of Other Races." Prof. Flinders Petrie led off, and only those who had had actual experience in uncivilized countries took part in the debate. It was generally agreed that the complacent Briton, the German, the Frenchman, who had undertaken to make Matabeles, Samoans, and Hovas altogether such as they are themselves, in dress, manners, and morals, had shown but a dim idea of the real problem before them. Even granting the best intentions on the part of European colonists and administrators, their ignorance, their cool assumption that their own civilization must appear as charming to everybody else as it does to themselves, lead continually to outrages on native feeling, to exasperation, often to revolt. For example, as Prof. Haddon remarked, great evil has been wrought in savage lands by the persistence of excellent Englishmen in "confusing clothing with morality." One traveller declared that the self-denying and energetic missionaries in Australia "neutralized their efforts by insisting upon the natives wearing clothes," in a country where the amount of clothes had absolutely no relation to the amount of morality. This is but an instance of the harm wrought by the lack of a sympathetic imagination, which is required to put even the best-intentioned administrator in a position to do anything of permanent value for the natives. They do not want to be civilized at all, in the bourgeois British sense; the manners of the superior race seem to them shockingly immoral; they are able to see few blessings of condescending European rule except the loss of their property, increased taxes, and decimated numbers. This is a painful but necessary truth for those to consider, in this country as well as in Europe, who are so benevolently bent on forcing superior laws and morals upon feeble races. They can easily make themselves hateful and horrifying, while the good they aim at is rendered very problematical.

READY FOR ACTION.

THE two "great parties" in this State—a somewhat cumbrous way of designating Dave Hill and Tom Platt, which we observe because it is the usual form—have now "cleared the deck for action," and an opportunity is afforded for comparing the principles for which they stand in the approaching campaign. As everybody knows, there was really only one issue which was pressing for solution when the two party conventions met, namely, that of the excise laws. Both bodies were asked to say where they stand upon this, and it was thought possible that both might meet it in the only really intelligent and rational way, by favoring the submission of it to the people of each city, town, or village for solution. This is the principle of home rule or local option. The Republicans met it by saying, under compulsion, that "we favor the maintenance of the Sunday laws in the interests of labor and morality." There is no local option in that, but a distinct refusal to declare for local option. If the declaration means anything, it means the maintenance of the present excise laws unchanged, and their rigorous enforcement.

The Democrats regarded this Republican resolution first as a "dodge," and second as a declaration in favor of a "Puritanical Sunday." They were sure it was a defiance of the foreign-born vote, and they were voluble in promises of a manly declaration in favor of home rule and local option when their convention should meet. They put forth their platform on September 24, and the excise plank in it is as far ahead of the Republican plank, considered as a "dodge," as the mind of the political man could conceive. It favors "enforcement of all laws," a "proper observation of a day of rest, and an orderly Sunday," "modification or repeal of laws unsupported by public opinion"; opposes flatly "blue laws," and calls fearlessly for the "recognition of the fundamental principle of freedom of conscience." Having thus approached cautiously the question of the hour, it declares for "home rule in excise as well as in other matters," but qualifies that instantly by adding, "within reasonable limitations established to protect the interests of temperance and morality." No harm done thus far. The Republican declaration in favor of the "interests of labor and morality" is thus fairly and neatly offset with the "interests of temperance and morality." This achievement so encouraged the platform-builders that they went ahead boldly and finished this plank by declaring in favor of "an amendment of the excise and other laws by the Legislature of the State which shall permit each municipality expressing its sentiments by a popular vote to determine, within such proper legislative restrictions as shall be required by the interests of the entire State, what may best suit its special necessities and conditions." Done into plain English that means: "We favor just so much local option as the people of the whole State, acting through the Legislature, are willing to grant." It pledges the party to no action in the Legislature which will offend the sensibilities of the country voters.

The simple truth is, that both conventions were afraid to favor local option through fear of the voters outside the large cities. No sooner had the Republicans adopted their plank in convention than the leaders of their party in the cities began to explain that it had no application except in the country districts, that in the cities the party was in favor of local option. The Democrats have tried to gain a point on the Republicans by drawing a resolution which would put them on the Sunday-observance side in the country and on the local-option side in the city: and to persons below the ordinary level of intelligence their hodge-podge may be read in those two ways, according to personal taste and bias. It is delightful to read after it a "scathing" denunciation of the Republicans for "hypocrisy and dishonesty" on the excise issue designed to "deceive the people." That is *the* gem of the platform, next to the rousing call for the "intelligent and liberal promotion of agriculture."

What the two conventions have done, in fact, is to eliminate the excise issue from the State canvass and relegate it to the legislative districts. This is where it really belongs, and in the separate districts it can be fought out most satisfactorily. In the so-called rural districts there will be no difference of opinion on the subject between the two parties. All the candidates will be against local option, as they are uniformly against all home rule for cities. In the city districts both parties promise now to be in favor of local option. The only course for voters to follow who wish for more liberal laws, or for the granting of local option, is to vote for those candidates who can be most surely depended upon to keep their pledges. It is a safe rule to follow that no Tammany candidate's pledges are worth anything on this or any other issue. Whatever change there may be in future in the excise laws, nothing of the desirable kind will ever come through Tammany aid. The present laws are of Tammany origin, and they represent Tammany desires in this matter—that is to say, they furnish a basis for blackmail and corruption. It should be borne in mind also that even if Tammany were to succeed in the next election, it would be powerless either to change the excise laws or to mitigate the rigor of their enforcement, for Gov. Morton will remain in office till January, 1897, and the present Police Board is not likely to go out of office or to change its policy before the expiration of Mayor Strong's term on January 1, 1898. What good can the dissatisfied German or other voters accomplish for themselves, therefore, by voting with Tammany this year? Their only hope of accomplishing anything in the way of relief is through the election to the Legislature of men of their way of thinking.

As a general principle, it is better to vote for a Republican than for a Democratic legislative candidate, unless the latter be a man who is squarely pledged to favor municipal and other reform measures, and whose character is such as to give assurance of his keeping his promises. It is always possible to force a Republican member who is not inclined to do his duty to yield to the force of public opinion and to favor reform measures, but a Tammany member is invariably for Tammany, and a Democratic member is rarely or never found voting with reformers. Not a single Democratic member of either house last year voted in favor of one of the reform measures for this city. From the beginning to the end of the session the entire Democratic membership stood side by side with the Platt men against reform measures of all kinds. This is the deadly record against them, and it must be kept in mind by every voter who wishes to secure desirable legislation, on excise or any other subject, at Albany next winter.

JINGO MORALITY.

THERE is a Jingoism which is as ignorant as a horse, and which snorts and paws and falls into panic fear like that noble animal. Ex-Congressman Finerty gave a fine example of this at the convention of Irish societies in Chicago last week. He professed a fine disdain for "neutrality laws": what were they as against a nation's freedom? He respected American laws as much as any man, but he would "hail the superb vision of a hundred thousand armed men breaking the neutrality laws to liberate Cuba, or of a half million breaking them with England in behalf of Ireland's independence." Jingoism of this comic, ranting description we laugh at, as most people did at ex-Gov. Campbell's display as Jingo low comedian in Tammany Hall on July 4. When Finerty wants so passionately to shed his blood for Cuba, or Campbell his for Venezuela, the American people are not so easily gulled as to take them literally. "What office is he after now?" is the common and sufficient comment.

But there is a Jingoism which comes to us in quite another guise. It is clad in the soft raiment of an attractive literary style and wears an appearance of high philosophy. In fine Hegelian phrases it talks about a nation coming to self-consciousness, suddenly awaking to the fact that it has international duties as well as international rights, and preparing to go forth with lofty benevolence, like a knight of the Round Table, to redress wrongs and establish justice the world over. Capt. Mahan is, of course, the leading exponent

of this refined Jingoism, and his article in the October *Harper's*, on "The Future in relation to American Naval Power," exhibits his cast of mind completely. He appears to be so amiable and cultivated, and has such a delightful way of running off under cover of a lot of vague phrases just when you think he really means to tell you what the danger is, whom we have got to fight, and why we must have no end of big ships and guns, that it is hard to take offence at him. Yet the moral drift of his doctrine crops out here and there in spite of himself, and it must be said that his international morality, as thus revealed, is substantially the same thing as that of Finerty.

Capt. Mahan explicitly denies that there is any moral quality whatever about an act of international aggression, provided the aggression be undertaken by a superior race or system against an inferior race or system. His chosen example is the British occupation of Egypt. To discuss the morality of this, he says, is "as little to the point as the morality of an earthquake." It was for the benefit of the world at large and of the people of Egypt—no matter what the latter might think about it, or how they would have voted about it—and that is enough. Tacitly, he makes the same doctrine apply to the great expansion of the foreign power of the United States, which he foresees and for which he wants a navy "developed in proportion to the reasonable possibilities of the political future." What those possibilities are he nowhere says, and he gives the reader no chance of judging whether they are reasonable or not. But he speaks again and again of the development of the nation and of national sentiment as a "natural force," moving on to its desired end, unconscious and unmoral. What he says of British domination over Egypt, Capt. Mahan would evidently and logically be ready to say of American domination over any inferior power—that it has no more to do with morality than an earthquake.

Of course this really means the glorification of brute force. The earthquake view of international relations does away at once with all questions of law and justice and humanity, and puts everything frankly on the basis of armor and guns. Finerty could ask no more. No one could accuse Capt. Mahan of intending this, yet he must "follow the argument." He speaks approvingly of international interference with Turkey on account of the Armenian atrocities. But has not the Sultan a complete defence, according to Capt. Mahan's doctrine? Is he not an earthquake, too? Are not the Turks going blindly ahead in Armenia as a "natural force," and is anybody likely to be foolish enough to discuss the morality of a law of nature? Of course, the powers tell the Sultan that he is no earthquake at all, or, if he is, that they will bring to bear upon him a bigger one which will shake him into the Bosphorus. But if there is no question of morality involved, the argument and the action are simply so much brute force; and that, we say, is what Capt. Mahan's doctrine logically comes to.

Another inadvertent revelation of the real implications of his views is given where he is dwelling on the fact that "the United States will never seek war except for the defence of her rights, her obligations, or her necessary interests." There is a fine ambiguity about the final phrase, but let that pass. No one can suspect that Capt. Mahan means to do anything in public or private relations that he does not consider absolutely just. But note the way the necessity of arguing for a big navy clouds his mind when he writes of some supposed international difficulty: "But the moral force of our contention might conceivably be weakened, in the view of an opponent, by attendant circumstances, *in which case our physical power to support it should be open to no doubt.*" That is to say, we must always have morality and sweet reasonableness on our side, must have all our quarrels just, must have all the precedents and international law in our favor, but must be prepared to lick the other fellow anyhow, if he is so thick-headed and obstinate as to insist that morals and justice and law are on *his* side.

This earthquake and physical-power doctrine is a most dangerous one for any time or people, but is peculiarly dangerous in this country at this time. The politicians and the mob will be only too thankful to be furnished a high-sounding theory as a justification for their ignorant and brutal proposals of foreign aggression and conquest. They will not be slow, either, in extending and improving the theory. They will take a less roundabout course than Capt. Mahan does to the final argument of physical power. If it comes to that in the end, what is the use of bothering about all these preliminaries of right and law? They will be willing to call themselves an earthquake or a cyclone, if only their devastating propensities can be freely gratified without any question of morals coming in. With so many signs of relaxed moral fibre about us, in public and in private life, it is no time to preach the gospel of force, even when the preacher is so attractive a man and writer as Capt. Mahan.

MISSIONS—NEW STYLE.

It was some years ago that *Punch* made its joke: "Missions, Old Style, Henry Martyn; Missions, New Style, Martini-Henry." There was then only just spice enough of truth in the fling to make it thoroughly laughable; now, we fear, the jest borders hard on the unpardonable kind which contains more truth than fun. Certainly there have been of late some extraordinary developments and utterances in connection with the relation of missions to foreign affairs, which make it seem as if powder were to usurp the old place of personality in evangelizing the heathen.

The Chinese massacres and riotings, in particular, have called forth public expressions from missionaries which are models of imprudence, to say the least, and which give one a curious idea of the motives and methods of modern missions. The London papers have printed missionary letters by the column, in which sentiments that are little short of bloodthirsty have occasionally been expressed. One Scotch missionary, for example, affirmed, as if it were the obvious Christian thing to say, that hanging was too good for the Chinese officials. The implication was, apparently, that he would like to see them drawn and quartered, after all their bones had been crushed. But nothing of the kind has fallen under our eye so truly amazing as the letter of an American missionary, the Rev. Dr. Fulton, printed in last week's *Evangelist* with editorial approval. This gentleman, whose divine commission enjoins him to be as wise as a serpent and as harmless as a dove, reviles the Chinese Government in unmeasured terms. He says of its officers, sweepingly, that they are "as despicable a set of hypocrites as ever drew plunder from an oppressed people." It would be a "righteous demand," he declares, if England and America were to insist that foreigners have "unrestricted right of residence in every foot of Chinese territory," and that the local authorities be "held personally responsible for the life of every foreigner in their jurisdiction." As it is, the heads of a few criminals and ruffians are "gladly granted by China" to appease the missionary desire for vengeance; but, says this meek and lowly missionary, "we must strike at the root, not the branch"—that is, it would seem, have the heads of the officials themselves.

Next to its unconscious repudiation of Christianity, what is most startling about this is its disregard of international courtesy and obligations and its incredible recklessness. Dr. Fulton is aware of the fact, but seems to be only the more enraged thereby, that he has no right whatever to American protection outside the "treaty ports." He goes—the Chinese Government warns him that he goes, the American minister warns him that he goes—into the interior at his own risk. No rights are guaranteed him by China, no protection by his own Government. He takes his life and his property in his own hands. Of course, a missionary has a perfect right to do this. The old missionaries to China did it, and it was their glory. But the missionary who does it must be prepared to face the consequences. Is Dr. Fulton? Hear what he says, remembering how the first Christian missionaries reckoned death among the risks of their divine work: "We are prepared for scoffing and insult and hardship, but when they see our work progressing, and in pure hatred begin to burn our homes and

murder our families, *we have reached the last limit and appeal unto Cæsar.*"

The imprudence of such public utterances by missionaries is astounding. These violent attacks on the powers that be in China are sure to be reported in that country. Is human nature, is official nature, so different in that land from everywhere else that railing at the authorities is the best way to win their favor and protection; that calling, as the *Evangelist* does, the Chinese who oppose missions "wretches, half-civilized and wholly barbarian," is the surest way to predispose them to the Gospel? Imagine a handful of Buddhist missionaries in our own country reviling the Government, calling for vengeance on their opponents, demanding foreign intervention on their behalf that they might ram their doctrines down our throats at the point of the bayonet, and some idea may be had of the way our performances must strike the Chinese.

We make haste to say that we do not for a moment suppose that Dr. Fulton and his fellow-missionaries are at all conscious of the strange appearance they present. Their motives are doubtless as unimpeachable as their zeal is consuming. Nor is their appeal to force unnatural, in view of the great figure missionary complications have cut for years in Oriental diplomacy. In Turkey, as in Egypt and Persia and China, the chief concern of our ministers has long been with the missionaries, their complaints, their privileges, their rights. It is not strange, then, that the missionaries have come to think American diplomacy and gunboats exist for their special benefit, nor that, in their appeals to them, they have sometimes taken on too imperious and truculent a tone for men in their business and with their professions. No objection can be made to such appeals. A missionary is surely as much entitled to protection as a trader. Only, if it is a question of law and treaty, the missionary must be as careful to be technically within his rights as the trader, before pushing his claim. And there ought always to be some one to warn an impetuous missionary like Dr. Fulton against rushing into print in his headlong fashion. Unwittingly, of course, but none the less surely, he gives the impression of a furious animal robbed of its prey. He has been driven from the interior. A mob stands between him and the millions of Chinamen he is burning to convert. What is his country good for if it cannot wade through blood to put him back there again, and stand by with fixed bayonets while he preaches peace on earth and good will to men? Nothing like this has been seen since Frederick I. of Prussia chased a frightened subject through the streets of Potsdam, and gave the fellow a sound caning, while he cried out, "Confound you, I want you to love me!" We very much doubt whether human nature, unregenerate or sanctified, Chinese, Turkish, or American, can stand this treatment, whether from monarch or missionary.

THE REFORM OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

An announcement in the London *Daily Chronicle*, followed by a speech from Lord Londonderry of the same tenor and effect, is producing in England the impression that the Tories are thinking of reforming the House of Lords. This is an excellent thing to talk about, but the probabilities are that it will never go further than talk. In the first place Lord Salisbury declared formally before and after the election against the Liberal desire to make "constitutional changes," and announced that his Government would occupy itself mainly with improving the condition of poor people. In the next place, the House of Lords, just as it is, is held in Tory circles to have recently rendered very important service to the country in restraining and upsetting Gladstone, and it is undoubtedly to-day popular in such circles. One of Mr. Balfour's ablest speeches during the canvass at Manchester was devoted in part to showing the very great success of the House of Lords as a second chamber, and in fact its superiority to any other chamber that ever existed. Moreover, Lord Salisbury frequently asked the Liberals before the election how they were going to reform the House of Lords without its consent, and he never got any distinct answer; and he put the question in such a way as to show that he could not answer it himself.

Then the Liberal demand for reform was fairly laid before the country at the last election without eliciting the smallest response. In fact, this particular article was the most dismal failure in the whole Liberal creed. Nor did the Liberals themselves frame any plan of reform. Half-a-dozen plans were hinted at or discussed in the magazines, but not one met with any attention or popular acceptance. The plan now talked of—the election of the legislating peers by the others, as the Scotch and Irish are now elected—was, of course, the most obvious and most talked of. Then it was proposed to revive the old royal prerogative of summoning to each Parliament such peers only as the Crown might select, and there were some vague hints of a plan for expelling the dissolute, and ruffianly, and grossly ignorant. But not one of these attracted popular attention or was discussed otherwise than academically. When Lord Rosebery announced himself as a "second-chamber man," he made no attempt to say what kind of second chamber he wanted. The other Liberal leaders were just as reticent.

What is most important of all is this, that nobody, Liberal or Tory, ever made the smallest pretence of having discovered the means of removing the principal Liberal complaint against the upper house—the permanence in it of the Conservative majority. No way of remedying this was ever suggested, or in fact could be devised, except the election of the Peers by a popular vote of some kind, in one or two degrees, like the American Senate. But this would really convert the House of Lords into something totally different from what it now is. It would be not modification, but abolition. The history of "upper chambers" in other countries gave no support to any scheme of this kind in the eyes of the English people. The only elected upper chamber in the world which can be called a success, or which has any real weight, is the American Senate, and the House of Lords might well chuckle over the accounts which Americans themselves were giving of the Senate in 1893-'94.

In fact, in looking about the world at second chambers, it is not hard for an Englishman to flatter himself that the one he has got by mere growth is quite as good as anything that constitution-makers are likely to give him. There has been no period in fifty years which seems less auspicious for a change in the constitution of the Lords than the present one. The socialistic agitation and the general decline of parliamentary bodies in other countries have produced a great Conservative reaction in England, and have ruined the Liberal party, which did not perceive the signs of the times. Then the bulk of Englishmen are rather proud of the Peers as an institution. They are every now and then provoked with them, but when they see a Peer, or go down to the gilded chamber where they sit, he must be a very radical Englishman whose heart does not soften towards them, and who does not connect them in some mysterious manner with the historical glories of the nation. They reason about them as our protectionists do about the tariff. See how we have prospered and conquered with a House of Lords, they say. Who knows how things would have gone had we not had one?

There is also a personal factor in the problem at present which is worth notice. Neither Lord Salisbury nor Mr. Balfour is a person of a constructive turn, or very greedy of work. Lord Salisbury is a born critic, and Mr. Balfour is very fond of golf and metaphysics. They will not rush on tough jobs. They will deal with questions that are forced on them, and it does not seem likely that the reform of the Lords will be one of these. Ireland alone will furnish work for all the constructive talent in the ministry for two or three years to come. Moreover, this ministry will experience no trouble from the Lords. Lord Salisbury carries the Peers in his pocket. He rules the upper house absolutely. It obeys him so implicitly that there would be a certain cruelty in his finding fault with it. Why, therefore, should he lay aside other business for the purpose of attacking it? Besides this, foreign problems have a

great fascination for him, and it is easy to distract the national attention from everything else. There are Armenia, Egypt, China, and Central Africa, all waiting to be quarrelled over with France, or Russia, or Germany; and in discussions of this kind Lord Salisbury is a master. Foreign politics is, in fact, the field in which he makes fewest mistakes and wounds fewest susceptibilities.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES AT ATHENS IN 1896.

ATHENS, September 5, 1895.

EXACTLY fifteen hundred years, almost to a month, had elapsed since Theodosius the Great forbade the further celebration of the Olympic Games, when the Athletic Congress, held in Paris in the summer of last year, decided to revive the time-honored name as applied to quadrennial international contests of modern sportsmen. As a tribute to the land which was the home of those renowned festivals of yore and to which the world owes the foundations of its civilization—as a solemn act, legalizing the new use of the name—it was unanimously agreed to hold the first of these modern Olympic festivals at Athens.

At the first announcement this unexpected honor created considerable bewilderment in Greece. Never had Athens been called upon to execute a charge requiring so many elements of success; and it is not surprising that the first voices heard were those of the pessimists, who pointed out the financial and other difficulties in the way. And truly the difficulties of the Greek state, with its public debt, the depression of trade consequent upon the failure of the currant export, and the desperately inflated condition of the national currency, were such as to make it doubtful if the necessary funds for the respectable celebration of the games could be raised. But the abuse which has of late been lavished upon the Greeks by certain sections of the European press, with regard to the inability of the public treasury to meet the coupons of the foreign loans, stung the nation into making all possible pecuniary sacrifices for this occasion, which should afford the visitors from all lands an opportunity of convincing themselves that Greece is not a land of brigands, pirates, swindlers, and knaves. It also afforded the Greek people a special satisfaction to be called upon once more to compete with other nations on the noble field of athletics, which their ancestors had made immortal; indeed, the old Hellenic fondness for athletic contests has been asserting itself once more of late years, although athletics in the modern sense are still in a very primitive state among the Greeks. All these influences combined to make the contributions to the Olympic Fund pour in so rapidly that the original estimate of 300,000 drachmae has long been exceeded. And since the gift of an additional 600,000 dr. from Mr. George Averoff, a wealthy Greek merchant of Alexandria, for the express purpose of rebuilding the Panathenaic Stadion, all pessimism has been thrown to the winds, and all Greeks, from high to low, are bound up in the success of the project. The Crown Prince and his brothers are the active leaders of the movement, and the King himself has promised to award in person the silver olive-wreaths to the victors at the games. The Greek Government has ordered the issue of special commemorative postage-stamps similar to the Columbian, the net proceeds of which shall be shared with the fund of the Olympic Committee; and thus the latter may be expected to exceed 1,000,000 dr., besides M. Averoff's munificent donation.

The preparations are now in full swing, especially in the Stadion, which is by far the heaviest part of the work, and which, covered with huge blocks of marble and resounding with the strokes of hundreds of chisels, presents a striking contrast to the peaceful solitude which has for years and centuries reigned over its grassy slopes. This scene of the ancient Panathenæan games is an artificial enlargement of a natural hollow between two of the lowest spurs of Mt. Hymettus. It is turned towards the city, and from its entrance (by the "whispering" Ilissus) a magnificent panorama is obtained, from Lykabettos and the Palace Gardens on the right to the Acropolis and distant Salamis on the left. Its embanked sides slope up to a height of 60-80 feet around a level space 670 feet long by 109 feet wide, in the form of a horseshoe (as has been ascertained by recent excavations). These slopes were once covered with marble seats, rising tier above tier to the top, and divided into sections by flights of steps. In the age of the Antonines a public-spirited Athenian—Herodes Atticus—like George Averoff of to-day, built this stupendous work entirely at his own expense, of Pentelic marble; but little of this great mass of marble has escaped the lime-kilns of the Dark Ages, and practically the work has now to be done entirely over again. Fortunately, the plan of the original builders has been thoroughly ascertained by recent excavations, so that the new Stadion will represent the exact counterpart of that of Herodes Atticus, and will doubtless be executed in much purer classic detail than seems to have been the case in the artistic decadence of the second century A. D. Of course it will not be possible to finish the entire Stadion in marble by next March. Only the circular end, in its entire height, and the three lowest tiers along the sides will be done in marble; the remaining rows of the sides will be executed in wood and painted in imitation of marble, but will be replaced gradually by marble rows. M. Averoff has signified his intention of having this magnificent arena, which is capable of seating 70,000 spectators, finished entirely in Pentelic marble at his own expense, as a permanent field for athletic contests; and certainly Athens will regain through his patriotic liberality one of her most glorious and unique monuments, useful as well as ornamental.

In the Stadion thus restored and provided with a fine running track, the field sports, footraces, and gymnastic contests will be held; here also will be the finish of the twenty-six-mile long-distance race from Marathon to Athens, for which a special *amphora* or cup will be offered, in memory of the plucky runner of old who died to bring to Athens the news of the rout of the Persians. The bicycle races will be held on grounds specially laid out for the occasion, half-way between the city and the seashore, on the Phaleric plain. The aquatic sports—swimming and rowing—are to take place in the roadstead of Phaleron, while the Saronic Gulf, locked in by islands, will form an unexcelled sailing ground for the yacht regatta, which promises to be unusually brilliant.

These are the chief items on the programme of the games proper. But as the Olympic festivals of yore were not confined to athletic contests, so the visitors who will crowd to Athens next April will find an abundance of interesting features of the celebration entirely outside of the aforesaid programme. To pass over the numerous official and semi-official banquets which will be given to athletes, delegates, foreign squadrons, and potentates, the city of Athens is organizing various special events for the entertainment of its guests, which will doubtless give the entire celebration a character long to be remembered. Among these special features will be, for instance, the artistic illumination of the great monuments of antiquity by night, a grand historical torchlight procession, representing memorable scenes from Greek history, ancient and modern, and a series of gala representations of the dramatic masterpieces of the world, beginning with a Sophoklean tragedy and ending with Wagner's "Lohengrin." A special Olympic Hymn, composed for the occasion by the modern Greek composer Samaras, is to be rendered by a monster chorus and orchestra; and a commemorative medal is to be struck and distributed. The French Archæological School at Athens is to celebrate its jubilee at the same time, and a large international gathering of savants is expected to attend; the American School of Classical Studies, the German Archæological Institute, and the British School will also hold special public meetings during the festivities. Last, but not least, the inauguration of the games on April 6 will coincide with the seventy-fifth anniversary of the Declaration of Greek Independence, and thousands of enthusiastic visitors and delegates are expected from the five or six millions of Greeks living yet under Turkish rule, and from the numerous and wealthy Greek colonies all over the world, to take part in commemorating the day. If one adds the numerous English, American, French, Italian, Hungarian, Swedish, Russian, and Belgian athletic organizations, the great British and French yacht clubs, and the Turkish wrestlers and State College athletes, that have already promised to send their champions to the meeting, the vast concourse which will be assembled in the new Panathenaic Stadion will form the most picturesque medley of tongues, races, and costumes ever seen in the violet-crowned city of Theseus.

The interest displayed by the American people in this Athenian meeting, the promised participation of so many American athletes, and the formation of an American committee in behalf of the project, under President Cleveland's chairmanship, have aroused lively satisfaction in Greek circles. The Greeks have never forgotten the generous sympathy which the American people were the first to display for the Greek cause in 1821; the stirring eloquence of Henry Clay and Daniel Webster in behalf of Greek liberty, and the material aid brought to the Greek shores by Samuel G. Howe, both in the war of Independence and in the great Cretan revolt of 1867, are given a prominent place in every modern Greek history. And although of late these sentiments have been somewhat forgotten in the political and financial troubles which have absorbed the Greek kingdom, such an occasion as the Olympic Games suffices to rekindle the old feeling of grateful remembrance and brotherhood for the great Western land and people. At a time when the frivolous policy of the best of Greek statesmen has landed the Greek kingdom in the slough of bankruptcy, and done the whole Greek race incalculable damage in the respect of the outside world, the friendly readiness with which Americans have espoused the cause of this Athenian gathering of 1896 is doubly grateful to the Greeks, long oppressed with a sense of their political isolation. For, in spite of the

international origin of the project, next year's Olympic meeting is looked upon in Athens first and foremost as a Greek affair—an act of Greek hospitality to the civilized world, and hence an occasion with whose success Greek honor is closely bound up. The games are to be international, but in a distinctively Hellenic setting—on the storied plain of Attica, surrounded by immortal monuments of fame and unmatched vistas of mountain and sea, and by living representatives from every Hellenic city and colony throughout the world. Surely such a combination need not blush before the more stately and lavish magnificence of greater cities and wealthier nations; the immortal ruins of the Parthenon and the glorious Attic sky cannot be found or matched elsewhere.

D. K.

ACROSS SIBERIA.—III.

TIUMEN, August 10, 1895.

IN 1581 the Cossack freebooter and outlaw, Ermak Timofeevitch, at the suggestion and with the help of the Stroganoff family, possessors of huge estates in the Urals, set out to conquer the unknown land beyond the mountains. Descending, with a few hundred followers, the river Tiurá, on whose banks now stands the city of Tiumén, he came to the Toból, then to the Irtysh, where he defeated the Tatar ruler, Kutchum, and captured his capital, *Sibir*, or Siberia, which has given its name to the immense region stretching from the Urals to the Pacific. Although the whole of this territory has not been acquired till recent times, if it has yet entirely, Ermak is justly looked upon as a Cortes who added a new and mighty empire to the dominions of the Tsar. This empire has, until very lately, been of slight value, a place from which furs were brought and to which criminals and vagrants were sent. Even to Russians it seemed the ends of the earth, where no one would go willingly. This may appear extraordinary enough when we consider the untold sources of wealth in Siberia, the richness and number of its mines, many of which have never been explored, the fertility of the soil in vast tracts, whose climate is no more severe than that of Moscow or Minneapolis. We must remember, however, that the distances are so great as to render communication difficult and transportation far more so, in the absence of railways. The need of a new country has been little felt by the Russians. Nearer home, to the south, there was long an abundance of land where colonists could settle, and the nation, which has still but small accumulated capital, is not noted for industrial enterprise. After all it is only within a few years that we have thought of western Canada as more than a profitless wilderness.

At the present day a new era for Siberia has undoubtedly begun. The Perm-Tiumén railway first made it easy to get from Europe by rail and boat to Tomsk in the heart of Asia. Now the Trans-Siberian must give a great impulse to activity of many kinds; indeed, although only a small part of it is completed, this impulse is already widely felt. Enormous quantities of mineral wealth and extents of good land will soon be easily accessible, while in European Russia population is beginning to press on the means of subsistence. With present Government encouragement, immigration has got to be over a hundred thousand a year, and may soon reach dimensions hard to estimate. Nor is the country so uninhabited as to be unable to supply the first wants of the settlers. Not to mention smaller places, Omsk, Tomsk, and Irkutsk, with each from fifty to seventy-five thousand inhabitants, are important centres of distribution and growing rapidly.

Tomsk, the largest and busiest of these, is situated on the river Tom, some twenty-five miles from its junction with the Ob. The city impresses one at once as an active, thriving place. There are several handsome buildings, mostly official or schools; there are also presentable shops, some good houses, the best of them owned by Jews, and building and repairing are going on in many places, giving a general air of life and prosperity. The fine unfinished cathedral resembles on a different scale the Church of the Saviour in Moscow. There are two newspapers, a public garden, with a very fair little theatrical troupe whom I saw at a clever take off on the doctrines of Tolstoi, and, above all, there is the University.

The University of Tomsk, an institution unique in Siberia and with but few rivals in all Asia, has as yet but a medical faculty. Her twenty-seven instructors hold forth to a little less than four hundred students, more than half of whom are from Europe, as, in order to attract scholars, graduates from the ecclesiastical seminaries are accepted here, whereas they are not admitted by her sisters in Russia proper. I happened to visit the University on her seventh birthday, an unfortunate date for me, as it was also that of a public holiday when everything was shut up; hence I was able to see less than I could have wished. The fine large building, with two or three smaller dependencies, is surrounded by grounds planted with birch trees. Two professors, who chanced to be on hand, showed me what they could. The laboratory instruments, most of which come from France or Germany, seemed, as far as an ignorant layman can judge, to be of the latest kinds, though not very numerous. The small zoölogical collection is chiefly made up of native animals and birds. I was particularly sorry not to see the library, for it has about two hundred thousand volumes, among them a number of valuable books that came from France at the time of the Revolution, also rare editions of Shakspere, etc., given by various people—all of which one hardly expects to find in the depths of Siberia in an institution seven years old. In general the accounts I got were optimistic. There were many difficulties at first, but they have been overcome to a large extent, the students are poor but hard-working, while the professors are better paid and get a pension earlier than their brethren in European Russia. The Government has just decided to add a second faculty for physics and mathematics.

Another interesting sight in Tomsk is the temporary home for immigrants who have come either by river or with their carts overland on their way further eastward. At the time of my visit, there were about 1,200 of them, and there have been as many as 8,000 at once. Few arrive in the winter, but in the course of last summer 40,000 received hospitality here, the great majority of them Russians, with a sprinkling of Poles, Esthonians, Tatars, etc. Most of them remain about a week, some much longer, then depart—some settling in the government of Tomsk, others going to the region of the Altai mountains—though the Government is said not to favor this—and latterly increasing numbers, especially of the large contingent of Little-Russians, have sought the distant Amur province, where special inducements are offered, and where the settlers are said to grow so lazily well off in a few years that they hire Chinamen to do their work. In theory, every emigrant must bring with him a passport with permission to leave his home; otherwise, instead of receiving an allotment of land he will be arrested and sent back. In practice, hundreds and thousands come without papers, and, if sent back at much expense, they would return again and again with that patient obstinacy so characteristic of the Russian peasant. The only thing left to the authorities is to make continual exceptions to their rules, merely trying to do it as quietly as possible in order to uphold the principle. The premises of the temporary home are kept perfectly clean, which is creditable, for this is enforced with difficulty. The buildings include a hospital, with a compartment for lying-in, another for contagious diseases, and an apothecary shop. Typhus, particularly, is not uncommon. Each man, woman, and child receives daily, gratis, a pound of black bread—and Russian bread is good—also a meal of meat, or, on fast days, of other warm food.

The journey from Tomsk to Tiumén, the gate to Europe, takes six or seven days on the passenger steamers, of which there are two or three a week, the better of them being comfortable boats lighted by electricity. The scenery on the route is monotonous, especially along the Ob, a very broad, shallow river, full of islands that are flooded in the spring time, when the stream looks like a lake. The country beyond the low banks is marshy and wooded. No wheat can grow in this inhospitable region, whose few inhabitants live by hunting and fishing. When, however, we get to the Irtysh, the soil improves, so that Russians and Tatars are numerous for the rest of the way. The only city we pass is Tobolsk, the capital of the province of that name, founded in 1587 close to the junction of the Irtysh and the Toból—an unattractive looking place of 20,000 inhabitants, with twenty churches (so says Murray; I could count but ten, and, judging by the looks, the population cannot be much over 12,000). The citadel, the cathedral, and a few other buildings are on a cliff, as is the public garden containing a monument to Ermak; the houses are below, and many of the streets are flooded in the spring. The ultimate fate of the town depends on whether, as its citizens fervently hope, the railway is prolonged here from Tiumén, which it would then supplant as a port; but it is hard to believe that in any case it can become a great centre. Here we have old Siberia, bleak and desolate; the Siberia of the future lies to the south and east, a land of promise, destined before long to be the home of millions.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

DERRING DO, DERRING-DO, ETC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In investigating the history of this curious pseudo-archaism for the 'New English Dictionary,' I have found its treatment in previous works to be more than usually inadequate. In one of the most recent attempts, it is said that "the word was adopted by Spenser in the erroneous spelling *derring-do* . . . from Chaucer; Middle English *dorryng don*, *duryng do*, etc., a peculiar isolated compound." It would be difficult to say how many misconceptions and misstatements are contained in these three lines. No "word" *derring-do* occurs in Spenser; he has indeed the two words *derring doe;* but the "word" *derring-do* (if it be a word) belongs only to nineteenth-century

pseudo-archaists. The Middle English *dorryng don* is not a compound, it is not isolated, and it is not peculiar; it is simply two words which chance to come together in their simple and natural construction. And, above all, Spenser did not adopt *derring-do*, nor even *derring doe*, from Chaucer. The origin of the expression can indeed be traced to Chaucer's *Troilus and Criseyde;* but there were intermediate links between Chaucer and Spenser which at once explain Spenser's erroneous spelling of the word *derring*, and that misconception of the construction and precise sense of the two words which he has handed on to the modern Romanticists. I have found that most of Spenser's archaisms which I have as yet had occasion to trace to their source, really come from Lydgate; at least, it was not from Chaucer, but from Lydgate's *Chronicle of Troy*, and actually from the edition of it printed in 1555, that he caught up the expression now before us, as I will now show.

The passage in Chaucer's *Troilus* V. 834–40, reads thus in the Campsall MS.:

> And certaynly in storye it is founde
> That troylus was neuere vn to no wight,
> As in his time, in no degre secounde
> In dorryng don þat longeth to a knyght.
> Al myghte a Geaunt passen hym of myght,
> His herte ay wiþ þe firste and wiþ þe beste
> Stod paregal to dorre don þat hym leste.

(MS. Harl. 2280 has in l. 837 "In duryng do," in l. 840 "to durre to do"; Camb. Univ. MS. Gg. 4. 27 has in l. 837 "In dorynge to do," in l. 840 "to dore don what hym leste.")

The exact construction is: "And certainly in story it is found that Troylus, in his time, was never second in no degree to no wight in *daring to do* what belongs to a knight. Albeit a giant might surpass him in might, his heart stood ever paregal with the first and the best to *dare to do* what pleased him."

This passage was thus imitated and echoed by Lydgate in his *Chronicle of Troy*, II. xvi.:

> And perygall of manhode and of dede
> He [Troilus] was to any that I can of rede. . . .
> In dorryng do, this noble worthy wight,
> For to fulfyl that longeth to a knyght;
> The secounde Hector, for his wort inesse
> He called was, and for his hye prowesse.

(MSS. Cotton Aug. IV., and Arundel 99, read "doring do.")

It is not easy to say whether Lydgate quite understood the construction of his master's passage; possibly he did not see that "that" after "dorryng don" was the relative pronoun = "that which," "what," and thus contained the object of "to don" (although he himself has precisely the same construction of "that" in the fourth line above). In any case, he used "dorryng do" *without an object*, "in daring to do, for to fulfil what belongeth to a knight," and thus employed a construction much more liable to be misunderstood. As the Fates would have it, moreover, what he wrote suffered at the hands of the printer. *The Chronicle of Troy* was printed first in 1513 by Pynson, and afterwards in 1555 by Marshe. In Pynson's edition the two lines read:

> In derrynge do / this noble worthy wyght,
> For to fulfylle / that longeth to a knyght.

In Marshe's (which was a reprint of Pynson's):

> In derryng do, this noble worthy wight
> For to fuuyl that longeth to a knyght.

In both it will be seen that Lydgate's word *dorryng* is changed into *derryng*.

The word *durryng* or *dorryng* is the true M. E. form of the word that we now write *daring*, being formed from the present stem *durr-*, seen in the infinitive O. E. *durran*, M. E. *dorre(n*, whence also the past tense *durste*, *dorste*, now *durst*. But by 1500 the *durr-dorr-* forms had disappeared from the present stem, being displaced by the ablaut-grade of the first and third person singular *dar*, so that we now say not only *I dare*, but *we dare*, for O. E. *we durron*, M. E. *we dorre(n*, *if I dare* for O. E. *gif ic durre*, M. E. *if I dorre; to dare* instead of *durran*, *dorre(n*; *daring* instead of *durryng*, *dorryng*. This change took place before the close of the fifteenth century; hence Lydgate's *dorryng* was an unknown word to the sixteenth-century printers, and they read and printed it *derryng*, *derring*, which no doubt appeared to them more like their actual form *daring*. Thus Chaucer's *dorryng don*, Lydgate's *dorryng do*, appeared in ed. 1555 as *derryng do*. In this printed form it was picked up by Spenser, in his course of collecting archaic words, and reproduced by him as *derring doe*. How, falling into the pitfall prepared by Lydgate's intransitive use, he misunderstood it, appears from the *Shepheards' Calendar* (October, l. 65):

> For ever, who in derring doe were dreade,
> The loftie verse of hem was loued aye

(*i. e.*, "For ever, by them who were dread in derring doe, lofty verse was loved ay"), where the "Glosse" explains "*In derring doe*, In manhoode and cheualrie." The same conception appears in another passage (December, l. 43):

> I durst in derring do compare
> With shepheards swayne,

misprinted "derring to," but referred to in the Glosse to "derring doe" as "aforesayd." Also in the two well-known passages in the *Faerie Queene*, II. iv. 42,

> Drad for his derring doe and bloody deed,

and VI. v. 37,

> A man of mickle name
> Renowned much in armes and derring doe.

It is indeed possible to argue that in all these passages Spenser knew the sense to be 'daring to do,' and used this as a poetical expression for 'daring to do anything,' 'daring to perform deeds'; but this is hardly compatible with the explanation given in the "Glosse" to the *Shepheards Calendar*, which, if not inspired, was certainly approved, by Spenser himself, and printed as part of the work, at the foot of each monthly "æglogue."

Spenser, however, kept the expression as two words; he was not responsible for the combination *daring-do*, which has beguiled poor dictionary-makers into the notion of a Middle English peculiar isolated compound. This we owe to the arch-archaist of the nineteenth century, Sir Walter Scott. Nobody, apparently, for more than two centuries, had reproduced Spenser's *derring doe* when Scott, with his wonderful application of the *omne ignotum pro magnifico* and his keen ear for a picturesque word or phrase of mysterious sound, resuscitated it in *Ivanhoe*, ch. xxix., where Wilfred is made to say, "Singular if there be two who can do a deed of such derring-do"; duly explained in a foot-note as (*Derring-do*, desperate courage). The transformation of *dorryng don* was now complete, and from the father of Romanticism *derring-do* was eagerly accepted by the whole brood of romancers and Romanticists, and became an indispensable article of romantic property. Lydgate, Pynson, Marshe, and Spenser had all been unconscious instruments in the transformation; but the Wizard of the North was the final transformer, under whose wand it became a very "peculiar isolated compound" indeed, which simple folk accept as Middle English.

The original *dorryng* reminds me of a passage in Prof. Lounsbury's *Chaucer Studies* which I have difficulty in comprehending. The Professor says (vol. ii., p. 64): "Gower, likewise, has some most pronounced instances of unusual rymes. He rymes the preterite *had* with *bed*, *leiser* with *desire*, and *dore* 'a door' with the verb *dare* in the form *dore*." What can the Professor object to in the last? It is a perfect rime—an example, indeed, of *rime riche*, or perfect syllabic identity with difference of word. The lines are (Pauli I. 256):

> And oþerwhile, if þat I dore,
> Er I com fully to þe dore;

and I need not point out to the student of Middle English that *if I dore* is the correct present subjunctive = late O. E. *gif ic durre*, and that it is perfectly identical in sound with M. E. *dore* for O. E. *dura*, dative of *duru*. And, by the way, the two other rimes cited by Prof. Lounsbury are not Gower's, but R. Pauli's, in that atrocious edition of Gower which it is a reproach to our scholarship not to have long ago placed in the *Index Expurgatorius* of books never to be quoted. The alleged rime *had*, *abed* (Pauli II. 96), reads in the MSS.,

> And priuely þe trompe he hedde
> Til þat þe Pope was a bedde,

where *hedde*, meaning 'hid,' is a well-known M. E. past tense of *hyde*, representing O. E. *hydde*. Pauli's *hadde* is merely one of the numberless atrocities with which his edition swarms. And, of course, it needs no knowledge even of Middle English to see that the alleged rime *leiser*, *desire*, is only somebody's garbling of M. E. *leisir*, *desir*. The passages containing them, as they left Gower's hand, were (Pauli II. 95)

> Somtime among a good leisir
> So as I dar of mi desir,

and (Pauli II. 242)

> That sche wiþ him hadde a leisir
> To speke and telle of hir desir.

All four instances are perfect rimes, as Prof. Lounsbury will be the first to acknowledge; and they entirely fail him in his contention that Gower was a careless rimer. The utter worthlessness and I fear charlatanry of Pauli's Gower (founded upon the 16th-c. printed text with a few MS. collations in obscure places) has been known to English scholars for some time; it is nearly ten years since I wrote that there was no more pressing need for Middle English scholarship than a faithful edition of the *Confessio*. That need is now about to be supplied; a competent scholar is preparing for the Oxford University Press an edition from the MSS., of which there are several excellent ones; and scholars must wait till that appears before they quote Gower for any linguistic purpose.

JAMES A. H. MURRAY.

OXFORD, September, 18, 1895.

EXCISE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From the universal use of the word "excise" as descriptive of Sunday-closing laws in New York, I infer that there must be some reason for it, especially as I find it in your own articles. But certainly an excise has heretofore been supposed to mean an internal-revenue tax. Have license fees got so mixed up with the whole subject of the regulation of the liquor trade as to give it their name?

Yours respectfully, Z.

BOSTON, September 27, 1895.

[So it would appear, and that our correspondent's own State began the tampering with the meaning of *excise*. Dr,

Murray, in his Dictionary, quotes Jefferson as writing in 1789: "Excise is a duty . . . paid in the hands of the consumer or retailer. . . . But in Massachusetts they have perverted the word excise to mean a tax on all liquors, whether paid in the moment of importation or at a later moment, and on nothing else." —Ed. Nation.]

MEDICAL STUDENTS AND THE A. B. COURSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is only natural that the lengthening of the course in medical colleges to four years should be met by an attempt to shorten the required preparation. Those who still believe in the theory of a good general education as a basis for work in any special line are naturally jealous of all attempts to anticipate the work of the professional school by manipulation of the elective privileges of the A. B. curriculum; but in the case of the medical students there are reasons of more than the usual weight against any short cut to the professional degree.

Most of us know that many young men, or boys, rather, are attracted towards the medical profession by motives very different from those which we wish to see in the physician whom we would call into our own houses to treat a wife or daughter. Now it is very desirable that all such unfit material should fall out by the way and not be turned loose upon the public with a medical diploma. But we cannot depend upon the medical schools to do the necessary work of expurgation, however much it may seem to be in their line. The young man who is led into the study by an unhealthy curiosity will find sufficient food for that curiosity to prevent such neglect of his work as would bar the way to a diploma. Require of him in advance, however, the work of a complete and well-balanced A.B. course, and the chances are many to one that he will fall out before this preliminary goal is reached, or that his mind will be so clarified as to make him a fit candidate for the profession. It has been a disgrace to the calling long enough that any young upstart whose head might be turned by a prurient desire to know the secrets of the dissecting-table, the operating-room, and the obstetric clinic could come forth in two or three years, regardless of any previous training or furnishing of the mind, with a legally valid medical diploma.

Granted that the average physician of fifty years ago began practice at the age of twenty-one or before, as Mr. Preston says (*Nation*, No. 1577, p. 204), he went to his work also with an average ignorance which seems almost grotesque to the better class of physicians of to-day. And the better class of physicians to day are just those who are most ready to admit that the science of medicine is yet in its infancy. Surely we have not reached the point where it is well to look for any method of lessening the mental training required for entrance upon such a work.

W. H. Johnson.

PALESTINE EXPLORATION FUND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a recent appreciative mention of the work of the Palestine Exploration Fund, the *Nation* kindly stated that subscriptions may be sent to the office in London. Perhaps you will allow me to add, for the sake of the Fund, that, as Honorary Secretary for the United States, I receive subscriptions and furnish the quarterly statements, books, casts, photographs, and all other publications of the Fund.

Theodore F. Wright.

No. 42 Quincy Street, Cambridge, Mass., September 30, 1895.

DEFIANCE OF THE LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Doubtless the *Nation* has become weary of defining what law is to its readers; but with what freshness must it return to the duty when everywhere are seen instances of wilful defiance of the law? If Tammany Hall were the sinner, we could all join in the most scathing denunciation, and vote it out of power with a vim. But what are we to do when our most enlightened citizens, so to speak, are the guilty ones? For instance, the school directors of McLean County, Illinois, met recently, denounced the "flag law," and resolved to fight it in the courts. The understanding, if not the resolution, was that the law should be disobeyed till a decision was handed down by some court. Now this law, requiring a flag to be floated on every school of every kind, is, indeed, a sorry attempt to teach patriotism, and it will cost the State some $160,000 to carry it out. But when devout men, old soldiers, Republicans, Democrats, *et al.*, determine that what they don't like in the law they won't have, anarchists may well shout for joy. And this county is the home of the Vice-President, of ex-Gov. Fifer; here David Davis lived, and other notables.

And now comes the September issue of the *Educational Review*, with a vivid denunciation of the law regarding instruction in temperance in New York, and setting forth the same old nullifying resolutions that we have heard of elsewhere, declaring what will and what will not be done till the next Legislature meets, by the teachers of New York. The law may be very bad, but its enforcement will cause its repeal if we are to believe the current remark. But everywhere at present is taught, by workingmen's bodies, by school directors, and by teachers also, it seems, that the thing to do is to rebel, go to the courts (during the time when we are not denouncing them for other decisions), and so rid ourselves of the annoyance—and likewise of any sense of loyalty to authority. Is not this disposition among us, after all, as suspicious an influence as good men are fighting? Agitation is helpful, and denunciation permissible; but open and defiant disobedience of law still remains a subject for penalty, at least upon the statute-books.

Charles M. Moss.

University of Illinois, Urbana, September 28, 1895.

SUPPRESSION BY THE PRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The action of our new Republican "reform" Mayor in the matter of the "Lake front" should be of more than local interest. That a politician, of either party, should sacrifice the interests of the city to those of a railroad corporation is nothing new, but there is a serious novelty in the fact that none of the city newspapers expose the swindle.

In the bargain made by the Mayor, the Illinois Central Railroad Company gets about ten or fifteen million dollars' worth of property in exchange for some work which it is to do, mostly for its own benefit, that will cost about one million. The railroad also conveys about six acres of land to the city; but as the land is submerged, and the road reserves the right of navigation over it, the conveyance is of no apparent value except to mislead the public.

Whatever mention is made by the press of this city of this matter is brief enough, and in vague praise of the Mayor for "settling the old controversy" between the road and the city. In brief, in the face of the facts, the newspapers have made the Mayor very popular and made his reëlection possible.

There is one question which affects the interests of the whole country: Where are the people to learn the facts about public men and public measures when great private interests are involved?—Yours truly,

Edwin Brainard.

Chicago, September 26, 1895.

Notes.

Mr. Percival Lowell will make a book of his papers on the planet Mars, and it will bear the imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., who will also bring out 'Later Lyrics,' short poems excerpted by Mr. T. B. Aldrich from his later volumes of verse.

The Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready 'Persian Life and Customs,' by the Rev. S. G. Wilson; 'Rambles in Japan,' by Canon Tristram of Durham Cathedral; and a Life of John Livingston Nevius, for forty years a missionary in China, by his wife.

In addition to Dr. Elliott Coues's reprint of 'The Expeditions of Zebulon Montgomery Pike,' Francis P. Harper is on the point of bringing out 'North American Shore Birds,' by Daniel Giraud Elliot, ex-president of the American Ornithologists' Union, with 74 full-page plates drawn by Edwin Sheppard.

Frederick A. Stokes Co. publish immediately 'A Century of German Lyrics,' translated by Mrs. Kate Freiligrath Kroeker.

The Rev. Dr. John Stoughton's 'Lights and Shadows of Church Life' will be published in this country by A. S. Barnes & Co.

A new boys' book, by Col. Thos. W. Knox, 'Hunters Three; or, Sport and Adventure in Africa,' is in the press of E. P. Dutton & Co.

The forthcoming concluding volume of Ward, Lock & Bowden's edition of Henry Kingsley's novels will contain 'The Boy in Grey, and Other Stories,' together with a biographical sketch of the novelist by his nephew, Maurice (son of Charles) Kingsley.

'The American Jew as Patriot, Soldier, and Citizen,' by Simon Wolf, will be issued by the Levytype Co. of Philadelphia.

By reason of his occasional verse, Whittier is a poet whose work lends itself readily to the compilation of a year-book such as Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have just brought out. J. Q. Adams, Sumner, Garrison, John Brown, Halleck, Bryant, Holmes, Lowell, Starr King, Bayard Taylor, Gen. W. F. Bartlett, Mrs. Child, Mrs. Sigourney, Channing, Joseph Sturge, Fredrika Bremer, Burns, Wordsworth, are some of the historic names commemorated; worthy, one might suggest, of portrait vignettes by way of decoration.

The sixth volume of Mr. Henry B. Wheatley's edition of Pepys's Diary (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) extends from October 1, 1666, to June 30, 1667, a period of the greatest disorder in the finances and discipline of the navy, ending in De Ruyter's alarming ascent of the Medway. London was

being slowly rebuilt and reformed after the great fire, whose embers still smouldered and whose fearful impression was still fresh in the minds of the anxious inhabitants. Of gossip and detraction the Diary is as full as ever, and Pepys is even more than usually indebted to the editor for a decent veiling with dots of his unbridled incontinence.

Those who believe that there is still any vitality in the Italian school of painting are apt to refer one to Domenico Morelli as a modern Italian painter who is really great. Mr. Ashton R. Willard's 'Sketch of the Life and Work' of this artist (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) may therefore be welcomed as an attempt to satisfy a legitimate curiosity. It is a thin buckram-covered volume of 67 pages, with eight heliotype illustrations, one of them a portrait. The text is mainly biographical, and is free from extravagant laudation if also from criticism. The character of the reproductions from Morelli's paintings will hardly convince the thoughtful of his greatness. To speak frankly, his work is essentially of the frivolously picturesque kind common to modern Italian art, whether in painting or in sculpture. The head of the "Dying Christ" is as brutally realistic in conception as Bonnat's, while it has nothing of the redeeming accuracy, force, and solidity of drawing and modelling of the Frenchman's work. The Italian is formless and flabby, and his highest qualities are a tricky facility of handling, a brilliancy without depth of color, and, sometimes, a sugary prettiness of sentiment.

Did Heinrich Heine during his twenty-five years' residence in Paris become "un écrivain francisé," as Henniquin calls him; or did he, during this long period of voluntary expatriation, remain an essentially German author? This question has often been discussed, and sometimes with no little acrimony. Saint-René Taillandier, Édouard Grenier, Alexandre Weill, and other eminent authorities have asserted that, so far from being "Frenchified," he never acquired even a tolerably correct literary use of the French language. This statement has been resented by some of Heine's admirers as a characteristic expression of Gallic conceit and hypercriticism. The recently published volume of Louis P. Betz entitled 'Heine in Frankreich: eine literarhistorische Untersuchung' (Zurich: Müller) gives an entertaining and quite exhaustive account of Heine's life in Paris, and contains specimens of letters written by him in French nearly every line of which is marred by unpardonable blunders.

The thirtieth annual volume of the 'Jahrbuch des Schweizer Alpenclub,' edited by Dr. Dübi and published by Schmid, Francké & Co., at Berne, is an illustrated octavo of 500 pages. The text is not confined to records of adventure, but contains some valuable contributions to science, such as "Was ist Föhn?" by Blumer-Zweifel, and "Die freien Bauern im Algäu," by Meyer von Kronau. A supplement contains six large views of high mountain scenery, and a list of recent additions to the library of the club.

'Lebensbilder aus dem Zeitalter der Reformation,' by R. Voss (Halle: Niemeyer), is the title of No. 23 of *Schriften für das deutsche Volk*, published by the Verein für Reformationsgeschichte. The brochure is a biographical sketch of Dr. Lucas Geizkiofer, a native of Sterzing in the Tyrol, and gives a curious picture of the beliefs and customs prevailing among German Protestants in the sixteenth century, some of them quaint and harmless, and others fanatical and cruel. It was not uncommon in those "good old times" for a traveller to make the acquaintance of an apparently respectable householder who had lost his wife, and to learn on further inquiry that she had been recently burned as a witch.

A ten-cent catalogue of English fiction, French fiction, and juvenile works has just been issued in good style by the Public Library of Peoria, Ill. The French fiction fills but a page. The juvenile section is classified.

The attention of readers and buyers may be directed to the 'Catalogue Raisonné of World-Literature,' edited by Ernst Lemcke for B. Westermann & Co., the first two sections being German and French literature respectively, for the classics and belles-lettres. The appreciations of each writer whose works are enumerated are sufficient, if brief. The best translations into English are noted.

Number nine of "Münchener Beiträge zur Romanischen und Englischen Philologie," edited by Profs. Breymann and Koeppel of Munich and published by Boehme in Erlangen, is an English dissertation of 160 pages, entitled "Methodism in the Light of the English Literature of the Last Century," by Dr. J. Albert Swallow. A succinct historical survey of the rise and early growth of Methodism, with brief biographical sketches of John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield, is followed by quotations from contemporary plays, poems, magazine articles, essays, published letters, and novels, showing the drift of popular opinion concerning Methodists and their teachings, more especially during the latter half of the eighteenth century. As the adherents of the new sect were strongly opposed to the theatre, the stage naturally took revenge by satirizing and caricaturing their persons and principles and holding them up to ridicule, as, for example, in Samuel Foote's "Minor," "A Trip to Calais" and "The Author," Henry Fielding's now-forgotten farce "Miss Lucy in Town," R. Hill's "The Gospel Shop," which was "suppressed at the particular request of some eminent divines," and "The Methodist," a low catchpenny comedy, published anonymously and advertised as a sequel to Foote's "Minor," but really written by a certain Israel Pottinger. The Methodists were also caricatured by Hogarth in the engraving "Credulity, Superstition, and Fanaticism," representing the interior of a conventicle with a ranting preacher and a sanctimonious audience. There are citations from Sterne's 'Tristram Shandy,' Richardson's 'Sir Charles Grandison,' Smollett's 'Humphrey Clinker,' Fielding's 'Joseph Andrews,' and minor works of fiction now deservedly consigned to oblivion, as well as from the periodical literature of that time. Dr. Swallow has made a diligent if not exhaustive study of the subject. Theological writings are not considered.

The New Century Educational Company, Boston and New York, sends us three boxes of cards figured to show certain domestic animals, leaves, and national flags, with and without inscription, for childish instruction. The leaves, having a photographic or zincographic origin, seem to us the best of the series.

The third of the series of articles on new British markets, now in course of publication in the *Nineteenth Century*, is by Capt. Lugard, whose subject is tropical Africa. This region presents an entirely different problem from China and Thibet, the countries previously treated. There the question is how to break down the barriers which prevent more or less dense populations, partially civilized, from buying British goods in exchange for their own products. Here the resources of countries sparsely peopled but easily accessible are to be developed. The two great obstacles at present to the expansion of trade are the gin-traffic on the west coast and slavery on the east coast. In reference to the latter, Capt Lugard quotes from a very recent report of the Consul General at Zanzibar to the effect that the plantations are almost invariably heavily mortgaged to British-Indian traders, and that the nominally Arab owners are in reality only managers. The true owners in this way escape from liability, as British subjects, to a criminal process for owning and employing slaves. The products of which there is the greatest promise in Eastern Africa are cotton and coffee, the soil and climate of districts of vast extent being apparently admirably suited to their cultivation. The coffee of the Shiré highlands, introduced only sixteen years ago, ranks among the highest-class coffees in the market, the maximum price being nearly twice that of Brazilian coffee.

The principal article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September is a description of Iceland from the point of view of a volcanist, by Dr. J. Johnston-Lavis, Professor of Vulcanology in the Royal University of Naples. While most of it is purely technical, there is an interesting passage on the influence of the winds in denuding the soil. In exposed places if but a small hole is made in the turf and left unstopped, the field and perhaps the farm is doomed. The frost scales up a layer of earth which on drying crumbles and is carried away by the wind, and the hole gradually increases like a corroding ulcer, until, in a year or two, a fertile meadow is reduced to a bare rock surface. The greatest need of the Icelander, he concludes, is good roads, by which he might easily send to the trading-ports his abundant dairy products, meat, and fish, and receive in return wood for building, coal, and flour.

A new departure at the University of Pennsylvania is the addition of an astronomical observatory. Its erection is already begun. When completed, it is designed to furnish better facilities not only for instruction, but for original research as well. The new edifice is two miles from the limits of Philadelphia and about five miles from the university buildings. The instruments are an eighteen-inch equatorial, with spectroscope attachment, by Brashear of Allegheny, and a meridian circle and zenith telescope each of four inches aperture, also by Brashear. The mountings are by Warner and Swasey of Cleveland. This institution will be known as the Flower Observatory, and its director is Prof. C. L. Doolittle, formerly of the Lehigh University at South Bethlehem.

Mr. Veeder of Lyons, New York, presented at the Springfield meeting of the American Association a careful table showing the connection between magnetic storms and sun-spots. The authority for faculæ and sun-spots fully formed or in process of formation at the sun's eastern limb is obtained from the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, and the record of magnetic disturbances is the result of tracings recorded by the declination magnetograph in Washington. Every evidence of spot formation, and every group of faculæ recorded at Greenwich, and the extent of every magnetic perturbation recorded at Washington are taken into account. While this information is supplemental in various ways, and the table is intended (so far as it goes) to be authentic beyond dispute, rather than comprehensive in respect to every detail, its results are undoubtedly suggestive, and may have the effect

of leading to improved methods of statement and publication of the data requisite for a better comprehension of this intricate subject, which so far is understood in only the most general way.

The first annual report of the Pasteur Institute in Stuttgart, which has been just issued, states that in 1894 the laboratory produced and distributed matter for the inoculation of 12,266 domestic animals as a preventive of *Rothlauf* (St. Anthony's fire) in swine and *Milzbrand* (gangrene) in sheep and horned cattle, resulting in the reduction of the cases of death from these diseases from 30 and even 40 per cent. to ½ per cent.

—The fact of William Penn's imprisonment in the Tower of London, in early life, is well known. A correspondent of the *Nation*, now in England, who has recently had access to the records of the Privy Council Office, Whitehall, sends the following extract, made by him, from the minutes of the proceedings of the Council, upon consideration, at the Board, of a petition from Admiral Sir William Penn, with reference to his son's "late ffaylings." Unfortunately, the petition itself is not preserved at the Privy Council Office :

Minutes of the proceedings of the Privy Council, held at the Court at Whitehall, the 31st March 1669.

Present
The Kings Most Excellent Maty
&c &c &c &c

Bishop of London to proceed in ye Examinacon of Pen's scandalous Booke.

The humble petition of Sir William Penn being this day read at the Boord, setting forth that ye late ffaylings of His Son William Penn by his departure from ye Protestant Religion hath been, & still is his very great Affliction, the Education he bestowed upon him being such as could have no tendency to those Courses by which he hath incurred his Maty's Displeasure, yet for as much as the Petr is not without hopes that God will in due time reclaime him, and being confident, that he will act nothing to ye Prejudice of His Maty's Government : and being informed, That he hath given reasonable good satisfaction to those worthy persons who were appointed to examine him, He most humbly prayed that His Maty would be graciously pleased to give Order for his Liberty, which His Maty having taken into Consideration, and also that the Booke printed & published by the said William Penn Intituled [Sandy ffoundations shaken, &c.] conteyneth in it severall dangerous & blasphemous Haeresies to ye scandal of ye Christian Religion, Did this day Order & require the Rt Reverend Father in God the Lord Bp of London to take cognizance & to proceed to ye Examination and judging of ye said Haereticall Opinions according to such Rules & fformes as belong to ye Ecclesiasticall court by the Lawes of this Kingdome, & in such manner as hath been formerly accustomed in like cases. And to that end It was further Ordered by His Maty That Sr John Robinson, Knt. & Bart Lieutenant of ye Tower of London be, and he is hereby required freely to permit Citations & Processes to be served upon the said William Penn within ye Tower of London, wch shall be issued out by the Bp of London in this Cause of Haeresy & also to suffer ye said William Penn in company of a Keeper & sufficient Guard to make his Appearance in ye Consistory of ye said Bp.

—The new volume of Mr. Douglas Brymner's report on the Canadian Archives (1895) has a special interest for historical students. It contains a very full calendar of the papers in the English records relating to Nova Scotia, and develops the intimate connection between that province and New England—a connection, it must be admitted, which savored more of disconnection, by reason of the intensely bitter feeling displayed against the French. The fisheries first attracted attention to the possible importance of the coast, and these fisheries were enjoyed by English, French, and New England fishing-vessels. As early as 1711 the promise of copper, fur, feathers, masting, and naval stores was held out as an inducement to settlers; but fur and fish were the staple products, and even they gave no ground for settlement, as all supplies were brought at so great a cost from Boston. This mercantile interest, added to fishing-profits, whetted the desires of New England to enjoy a monopoly of the region, and so we find the Boston representatives occasionally proposing to "take a tour to humble the villanous French inhabitants," as they are "snakes in their bosoms," and much more to the same effect, where humiliation really means pounds, shillings, and pence, or, even more openly, plunder. The rich collection of papers relating to the expedition against Louisburg, and the later history of the Loyalist settlements, gives material for the history of the United States. Mr. Brymner deserves high praise for his energy and intelligence in planning and executing a series of reports of so rich a nature. Who was the Lieut. John Washington, at Annapolis Royal in 1721, who "most impudently endeavored to bully and blacken" the reputation of the Governor and garrison by a "multitude of false and vilest Assertions and Insinuations," and by "malicious, scandalous, and vile underhand and unwarrantable representations"? He must have been an interesting character.

—"'Tis forty years since" Mommsen's 'History of Rome' first appeared in the German. It seems now strange enough that a book which has become so familiar should ever have needed the formal introduction and recommendation of a German (Dr. Schmitz) which was prefixed to Dr. Dickson's first English translation of it in 1861. Two years earlier, Freeman had already pronounced that it was the best history of Rome in existence, and his dictum still remains as true as ever. Dr. Dickson's translation, revised in 1868, is now again revised from the eighth German edition (New York: Scribners). The numerous corrections, transpositions, and additions in this (probably the final) form of the work show that the hand of the master has not wearied in spite of his years. This fact is well exemplified by the present shape of the chapter on the early constitution, where the treatment of the infant community with the distribution of its clans, and the study of their functions, have been thoroughly reëxamined. In the etymologies, too, suggested for the oldest words, such as *Ramnes* and *Quiris*, there are great improvements, and the topography also has been brought well up to date of the latest investigations (though *Roma Quadrata* still figures as the name of the Palatine city). Nor has the translator been idle. Although some of his sentences are still too long to please an English ear, nevertheless Dr. Dickson, in this version, has succeeded better than before in transmitting to us the delightfully familiar and often almost colloquial style which is one of the charms of the original work. The index is greatly enlarged, and the five handsomely bound and well-printed volumes are a credit to the publishers.

—'Jean Jacques Rousseau et les Origines du Cosmopolitisme Littéraire,' by Joseph Texte (Paris : Hachette), is a book which no reader, however wide his reading or however settled his opinion concerning Rousseau, will lay aside without a modified and heightened sense of his marvellous genius. The origin of the exotic, cosmopolitan tendency in modern French literature is traced beyond the Romantic movement to Rousseau, "the man who did most to awaken in France the taste, the need for the literature of the North." Boileau had to learn from Addison that there existed such a thing as English poetry; Louis XIV., having some curiosity as to whether England possessed authors and scholars, was informed by his ambassador, Cominges, that "a certain Miltonius" had rendered himself infamous by his dangerous writings. Such was the ignorance of the leading minds in France with respect to English letters late in the seventeenth century. By the middle of the eighteenth century the social and intellectual influence of England had grown very strong in France. Anglomania had reached its height when the 'Nouvelle Héloïse' appeared. The working of this change through the religious refugees, through Muralt, Prévost, Voltaire, forms the contents of the first section of M. Texte's book. Jean Jacques shared the admiration of his contemporaries for England; he had been strongly influenced by Muralt, from whom he often borrows. Five chapters are devoted to the various channels by which his mind was filled with English ideas, beginning with the close relations, especially in the last century, between England and Geneva, and the native element in Rousseau, which made him the most powerful bond between the genius of the North and that of the South of Europe. That from this fertile union in the person of Jean Jacques of the Latin genius and the German genius the literary cosmopolitanism in France was born, our author endeavors to show in the last third of his volume. The work bears proof of the soundest scholarship and of a thorough familiarity with the literature both of England and of France in the eighteenth century; and no student of either can afford to neglect it. We doubt whether a better presentation of Richardson's influence has ever been made. As a contribution to the study of comparative literature the book occupies the highest rank and will be of permanent value.

—The Bavarian Minister of Public Instruction, Herr von Landmann, recently addressed to the rectors of the humanistic gymnasia an official circular, in which he urged that some efficient means be devised to diminish the number of young men who seek admission to these institutions, but who are utterly unfit to pursue the course of study prescribed. At present the lower forms are crowded with pupils who have neither taste nor talent for classical learning, and who for the most part fail to reach the ninth class, or are fatally plucked at the end of it. They are thus intellectually crippled for life by a specious and superficial culture, and become, as is truly said, a "public calamity." The minister would seek to remedy this evil by imposing more rigorous conditions of admission, showing less indulgence in granting dispensations from studies and from the payment of tuition-fees, and especially by enlightening the minds of parents as to the best interests of their children. It is highly improbable, however, that these measures would bring the desired relief. In the first place, certain families deem it due to their rank or social position that their sons should enter the humanistic gymnasium, no matter what their mental endowments or natural proclivities may be. In the second place, the Government encourages this tendency by attaching certain privileges to the pursuit of a course of study in a humanistic gymnasium both as regards the military and civil service. If Bavaria would abolish these privileges, as

Prussia has already done to a considerable extent, an abatement of the evil complained of would be at once perceptible, and the thousands who now throng the portals of the gymnasium as the surest way to preferment, would turn into less frequented and more useful paths of life. The same is true, although perhaps in a less degree, of the German military academy. Many parents, especially those of noble blood, think the only career possible for their sons is that of an officer in the army. When the young man has reached the grade of lieutenant, or often not before he has been promoted to that of major, he is found to be devoid of the proper qualities, and is therefore retired from active service and placed on the pension list. Thus hundreds of men, in the full vigor of their physical powers, become comparatively useless members of society and a burden to the state. The root of this evil is the traditional prejudice against commercial and manufacturing pursuits and other occupations supposed to be plebeian.

—There are now, in all, probably two hundred Koreans studying in Japan. One party of 113 arrived in Tokyo in May, and it is said that the whole number officially chosen to go to Japan for study amounts to three hundred. The Korean Government is evidently encouraged in this by the authorities in Tokyo, the amount granted to each student being but fifteen yen per month, though even this amount, or about eight dollars in gold, is fairly liberal for a Korean. Most of the lads are sons of noblemen. Almost all these students go into Mr. Fukuzawa's famous school; the "grand old man," the "intellectual father of one half of the young men in the Government offices" in Japan, being a great favorite with the Korean Liberals. In the second contingent, the appointees are to be chosen on account of abilities irrespective of birth. On their journey by steamer and rail to the Mikado's city, the tunnels seem to have impressed them most. In her attempted reforms, Korea suffers, as Japan did not, from not having, as Japan did, a large body of educated men who, by the weight of their opinion and power of intelligent action, were able to swing the nation out of the Chinese into the Western world of ideas. Korea is now attempting to raise up such a class out of the materials at hand. Of scholars, pure and simple, of bookmen, professors, cloistered readers, and intriguing nobles, she has no lack. It is to be seen whether she has statesmen and patriots.

RECENT NOVELS.

Philip and his Wife. By Margaret Deland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Story of Christian Rochefort. By Helen Choate Prince. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Vengeance of James Van Sittart. By Mrs. J. H. Needell. D. Appleton & Co.

Fidelis. By Ada Cambridge. D. Appleton & Co.

How Thankful Was Bewitched. By James K. Hosmer. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The Adventures of Captain Horn. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Peak and Prairie. By Anna Fuller. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

MRS. DELAND'S novels remind one of the child who asked, "If bulls were not made so that red made them mad, would a bull get angry when he saw red?" Her problems are as intricate as this, and of equal bearing on actual life. Sometimes it is a man who repudiates his wife because she does not believe in damnation; again it is a father who will not let his daughter marry because we must all die; and again, as on the present occasion, it is a man who wishes a separation from his wife, not chiefly because he has ceased to love her, nor for the sake of the welfare of his child, but for the salvation of his own soul, "for the honor of marriage"—asserting his conviction "that this preservation of their individual integrity would in the end, by its effect upon her character, more than compensate Molly [the child] for any pain and embarrassment which would come to her." No one will deny that Cecil was a most injudicious mother. The trouble seems to have been that she had "the passion, not of motherhood but of the mother—the dam," and that Philip "was a man capable of sustained ecstasy" and "lived upon a high plateau of noble idealism," though this is not easy to affirm, since he is so ill-defined a character that his motive is as difficult to discern as that of the book. Sometimes he wears an appearance of disinterestedness: "Can't we put self out of it? can't it be because it is right?" (of his wished-for divorce) he asks ("hoarsely" after the manner of the throat troubled man of novels). He explains "gently" to a friend that "real divorce takes place without a decree," talks loftily of "the long estrangement in thought and motive and principle," and at times professes to be thinking only of the child. But again it is said of him that "the citadel of his spirituality where self had entrenched herself was absolutely fast"—as it certainly was; and his reasons for wishing the divorce seem to have been that "except when he teased her with visions and ecstasies, Cecil made his life full of lazy and beautiful comfort." Having meant to be an artist, he turned into a lover, and "all the solemn glory and whiteness of love went out, as a star in heaven might be blotted from a man's sight by the roar of some hot fire here on his little earth"; so, finding love to be "this supremest expression of self," he falls into bitter remorse over it. Another cause for divorce was that when the child was born his wife "caressed it in a way that made him sometimes turn away his eyes." Having "thought to marry a beautiful soul, he had married instead a beautiful body," and, in the "silences of his luxurious living," "high demands" spoke: "Is not marriage without love as spiritually illegal as love without marriage is civilly illegal?" So that it is not quite clear whether he is meant to win sympathy for the "insulting of his heavenly vision," or blame for letting his "own conception of duty weigh against accepted standards," or admiration for his theory that "public morals will not suffer for private virtue"; virtue here meaning to leave an unloved wife. Whatever the writer meant him for, hero, martyr, or rogue, the reader will in most cases, we fancy, agree with the friend who remarks to Philip, "Damn you, you're not worth saving!" The discovery that the friend is in love with the wife annoys Philip, but not to the extent of sending him back to take care of her; and on second thought he is greatly pleased with the friend for confessing, and calls him "a good man."

As usual, the padding of village chronicle is the best part of Mrs. Deland's book. Naturally, there is a great deal of talk in the village about divorce, but we cannot see that anything is contributed to the subject, or even that one can ascertain the author's views, or, worse yet, the views of her characters. Hair-splitting has its part to play in the realm of fiction; but it befuddles the reader and wastes the time of the publisher to insist that the hairs shall be from the tail of an unthinkable dog.

'The Story of Christine Rochefort' is written by one who says better than she constructs, and is rather a vehicle for views on socialism than a story, although the manfulness of the effort to make and keep it a story is deserving of recognition. There is little sequence in the incidents, but they are told with finish and ease. The views of the red-handed socialist who longs to wade ankle-deep in blood to equality; of the benevolent manufacturer who is always planning model lodgings for his employees, but will not yield to strikes; of the abbé who loves his poor, but believes in paternal government; of the young and beautiful wife who in turn adopts each set of opinions (her husband's, luckily, last)—all these views are amply rehearsed, the abbé's with some eloquence; but in getting themselves connected with the story they creak audibly. The mob riots gently, the assassin stabs neatly, the lovers love curably, the whole moves as made, not born. Even the wit of the book, which is furnished by a cynical grandmother and is at times amusing, is oddly detached from the narrative, and thrusts itself out of perspective as one who shoots forth the lip. There is, however, enough matter well put to give gratification to the novel-readers who care more for intelligence than for cohesion.

Mrs. Needell has the veritable Englishwomen's knack at writing and at inventing a slight plot and building it out with infinite detail into a long, monotonous, dreary, readable, interesting novel. That omnipresent, omniscient doctor of theirs, with his rugged sweetness and his hospitals and his convalescents; that semi-cynical lady of rank who brings with her the drawing-room element of the story; those English school-boys and girls; that paragon elder sister; those wicked rich relatives and that timely apoplexy; that inevitable cab-accident; that miraculous rescue—how familiar it all is! When the plot grows so thick that there is danger of the novel coming to a premature close, what easier than to get up a case of illness on the Continent and send the perfect doctor thither? When the superfluous husband is falling into consumption before the required three hundred and fifty pages are written, what happier than to revive him, put him at bee-raising, and let him live to sudden death at the revengeful uncle's funeral? And always and continually—whether tempests roar, or incidents flag, or health or sickness sway the hour—ring for the lights and serve tea. Tea in inky floods!—it is the English woman novelist's comma punctuating all her pages. Long may she flourish and write such plodding, ploughing books for the mental calm of the novel-reading mind. Innocent occupation, if not precisely literature, they have a place in the world's affections beside the old oaken bucket and the harmless, necessary peanut. Nor is a book without a mission that holds such bits of philosophy as these, out of many: "There is only one way of bearing a remediless trouble—to ignore it and go straight on." "A sense—the most fatal and damaging that can invade the soul—that it was not worth while."

Very different is the pace of Ada Cambridge's latest novel. Here is no fine, old-fashioned writing, no plodding or tarrying. Though full of detail, it speeds along without haste, without rest, till the tale is told. Philosophy there is in abundance, more humor-shot than Mrs. Needell's, and also something

more cheerfully worldly and more touched with sentiment. It is the humor of Thackeray and of Du Maurier, and their prodigious, unsentimental sentiment. It is, indeed, in no detraction from the book that one notes that without Du Maurier 'Fidelis' would never have been written, or would have been written differently. It is the work not so much of an imitator as of an absorbent, and in the story of Adam Drewe's life, from tormented childhood up to honored middle age, we find loving reflections of the great luminary. The original flavor of Ada Cambridge is not lost but enriched by being engrafted on a sturdy stock. Her pictures of Australia and of rural England are as attractive as ever, her story better than ever. In 'Fidelis' she has not only advanced beyond herself, but has written one of the best little novels of the year.

'How Thankful Was Bewitched' is a story of the French and Indian wars. The scene is at first a frontier Puritan village, then changes, with the fortunes of Thankful, the heroine, to Canada and a Jesuit settlement, and later to the very wilderness itself. An interesting chronicle is made of life in those days of romantic hazard; of the customs of Puritan, priest, and savage, and of the wild, roving existence which became the portion of a well-born woman carried a captive from the smoking ruins of her village home. The mystery attached to a Jesuit church-bell goes hand in hand with the story of Thankful, and the whole makes a pretty and absorbing tale of love, adventure, and history.

Love, adventure, and extravaganza make up Mr. Stockton's story, which is of the most ingeniously inventive, the most gravely humorous. Nor let any one think it a book of toy adventure; real blood flows, real cut-throats and pirates people the pages of our whilom gentle author. That all may not be lost of the humor we associate with his name, an old lady from Maine is one of the heroines, and well does her nature, compounded of Yankee and Stockton, show up against the gore. The treasure-trove—the heaps of gold which are the basis of all the adventures—is enough to inflame the mind of Tammany Hall; and one is ready to call it a dangerous suggestion even to read of such booty were it not for the delightful altruism which sends the lucky finders tramping over the earth to put the gold in the hands that might have found it, but did not. The crowning touch of humor is reserved for the last paragraphs, where wealth overtakes an old Scotch woman as she is starting for the poor-house, and changes her meek lamentations into the pride of patronage and the joyful explosiveness of the virago.

Miss Fuller's Colorado sketches—several of them reprinted from periodicals—form a series of views of life on ranch, in mining-camp, in growing town, breathing every one of the presence of Pike's Peak with an almost personal affection. The sketches, like others from Miss Fuller's pen, are full of freshness and interest; the characters are often original and always well outlined; and the enthusiasm for the pure air, the sea-like prairie, and the snowy peaks communicates itself perforce to the reader. In every paper there is a thought and a picture, while the reappearance of several of the persons in the different numbers of the series gives to the little drama continuity and life.

M. Stambuloff. By A. Hulme Beaman. With six portraits. Frederick Warne & Co. 1895.

Mr. Beaman's sketch of Stambuloff shows in every page the hand of an Englishman and of a friend. English diplomacy and the English press have always served the national party in Bulgaria, and we detect here the strain which long pervaded Mr. O'Conor's Sofia despatches to the *Times*. The English journalist in the Balkans is bound to be a Russophobe, and Mr. Beaman makes no secret of his proclivities. Political sympathy and snipe-shooting were the bonds of an intimacy between him and Stambuloff which was broken only by death. For Zankoff, Karavéloff, Stoiloff, and all others who are tainted with panslavism, he has nothing but censure. Stambuloff is to him the hero of the struggle against Russia's overweening influence in southeastern Europe, the only statesman in a crowd of truckling and self-seeking politicians.

A biographer fails unless he is sympathetic, and Mr. Beaman would have been less interesting had he been more judicial. The passions of Bulgarian public life are well reflected in his pages. He deals with a land where the conspirator of yesterday and the dictator of to-day readily becomes the victim of to-morrow's yataghan. It would be strange if he wrote with the calm of Gardiner or Lord Acton. Stambuloff was the son of a Tirnovo inn-keeper, "who broke his birth's invidious bar, and grasped the skirts of happy chance." At the age of eighteen he was expelled from Russia for nihilism; at twenty-five he was a member of the Chamber which protested against the treaty of Berlin; at thirty-two he was the most powerful of the three regents who were appointed on the resignation of Prince Alexander of Battenberg; from 1886 to 1894 he was virtual ruler of Bulgaria and known to all the world. When we add that for a year before his death he was able to fix within 300 yards the spot of his ultimate assassination, it will be seen that his career furnishes every material which is required by the spasmodic drama.

Mr. Beaman gives much new information concerning Stambuloff's early life and his part in the abortive risings against Turkey. His character appears to advantage in those days of constant hardship and hazard. He never spared himself, and was hopeful in the midst of failures for which he had to bear the reproaches of his comrades. He was an admirable revolutionist. Unfortunately, when he came to power he was forced to control the bandits with whom he had once been allied. Their animosity was soon kindled against him, and when he fell they flocked to Sofia from Servia, and Macedonia, and Thrace. It could have been no difficult matter to arrange the tragedy of July 15.

Stambuloff's constructive work began in the autumn of 1885. "At this period," says Mr. Beaman, "Bulgaria was only vaguely known to the civilized world as a place where atrocities had been perpetrated, but she was not viewed as a factor in European diplomacy, or considered as anything more than a nondescript mushroom creation of the treaty." Then within a twelvemonth came the union of Eastern Rumelia, the Servian war, and the *Coup d'État*. Mr. Beaman's account of Stambuloff's share in these events is excellent, especially when he discusses the intricate matter of the kidnapping and its consequences. The theme of the concluding chapters is Stambuloff's attempt to make Bulgaria something more than a pawn in the great chess match of the lower Danube. Those who are interested in the country apart from its international relations will get nothing particularly new from this section of Mr. Beaman's book. Stambuloff's domestic administration, his system of conducting elections, his attempts to promote economic development receive scant attention, while his fight against the Conservative party and Russia is minutely treated. In an elaborate biography this omission would be serious, but we pass over it lightly in a portrait sketch which belongs to an international series.

Mr. Beaman has nothing to say in apology for Stambuloff's conduct after his fall. Theseus's words on the death of Arcite,

> "Thanne is it best as for a worthi fame,
> To dye whan a man is best of name,"

were never more completely justified than by Stambuloff's ignoble decline. Up to the time of his rupture with Prince Ferdinand he had disclosed no fatal weakness. He did many harsh, probably brutal, things after the Beltcheff and Vulkovitch murders, but his acts were those of the "strong man defending his house." His course throughout the last year of his life was simply fatuous. The *Hamburger-Nachrichten* during Bismarck's eclipse was a model of self-restraint in comparison with the exasperated *Svoboda*. Nothing but grave defect of character can account for ravings which dismayed Stambuloff's friends as much as they rejoiced his enemies. "Son œuvre fut si colossale que personne autre que lui-même pourrait la détruire. Eh bien! il le fait avec ses propres mains." These are words of one who was no enemy. And Mr. Beaman, with every good wish for Stambuloff's cause, is without hope for its future. "With Stambuloff disappears the only real adversary capable of holding the country against the Russophils."

The Oxford Movement in America; or, Glimpses of Life in an Anglican Seminary. By Rev. Clarence E. Walworth, St. Mary's Church, Albany. New York: The Catholic Book Exchange.

There are Episcopalians who are so much interested in the Oxford Movement that they imagine themselves indifferent to nothing concerning it, but these glimpses of certain aspects of it as it reproduced itself in the Theological Seminary on Chelsea Square, New York, will subject their enthusiasm to a severe and painful test. The Rev. Thomas Mozley's Oxford Reminiscences were sufficiently disenchanting in some of their disclosures. They were a kind of comic version of Newman's 'Apologia.' But, with all their cynicism and malignity, they labored under no such necessity to minimize the Anglican church and the Tractarian Movement as do the Reminiscences of Mr. Walworth, who by way of that movement passed from that church into the Roman Catholic. To write down the Episcopal Church, to make it appear worldly and foolish and illogical and absurd, is a purpose which these pages do not endeavor to conceal, and could not if they would. But it is not as if the Episcopal Church in America, or even the Tractarian Movement as it was here developed, were co-extensive with the antics of a few boys in a seminary drunk with the new wine of the Tractarian vintage. The sub-title is the true title of the book, and the reader must be on his guard against the narrowness of the *tantum* which Mr. Walworth saw, and against the levity of his disposition, which infects everything he touches with a trivial appearance. No attempt is made to represent his conversion as a matter involving serious thought and feeling. As he had become an Episcopalian by a process of mere chance and drift, so by a similar process he became a

Roman Catholic: all of his changes being due to the mere restlessness of self conscious adolescence. The amount of thought that went to them was hardly so much as would justify a change of clothing in the spring or fall.

It does not follow that he has not written in a bright and interesting manner for the general reader of the teapot tempest that the Tractarian literature and rumor raised in the theological seminary. The period of his residence coincided with the years 1843–45, the years that saw in England Pusey's suspension, Newman's secession, and the collapse of the Tractarian Movement. Here, as in England, Newman's followers bettered his instruction and got to Rome a little in advance of him. A group of students were diligent readers of 'Tract 90,' Ward's 'Ideal Church,' and the Tractarian literature generally; the professors looking on with cautious sympathy or mild distrust. The group had its crank, McMaster, and its saint, Arthur Carey, upon whose character and conduct Mr. Walworth dwells with much elaboration. He was only seventeen when he entered the school, and he remained in residence a year after the completion of his course in 1842, the modest coryphæus of the Tractarian choir. He was a model of irrational piety, reading through his Old Testament three times a year, and his New Testament five. On the eve of his ordination he was put upon his trial for a too lively sympathy with Roman Catholic doctrine and worship. The particulars of the trial, which Mr. Walworth gathers from his own recollections and contemporary documents, give a very good idea of the things to which the Tractarians were inclined and which the Evangelicals feared. The influence of Bishop Onderdonk prevailed, and Carey was acquitted and immediately afterwards ordained maugre the "scandalous interruption" of Drs. Anthon and Smith. In a few months Carey's health broke down, and he died upon a voyage to Havana. If he had lived, he would have reached his Roman destination as soon as Newman, if not sooner.

Carey's acquittal was a shot heard round the Episcopalian world, and stirred up the Evangelical party to new efforts against the set towards "Newmania" and Rome. There was a war of pamphlets in which Bishop Onderdonk took a leading part. In the Diocesan Convention of 1843 he was sharply attacked and routed his enemies. His trial for lascivious immorality, which shortly followed, is represented by Mr. Walworth as inspired by the necessity for a change of tactics if Tractarianism was not to triumph. It suits Mr. Walworth's purposes to represent that the Bishop's conduct would have been overlooked if he had been soundly evangelical, but this is barely possible. What is certain is, that in his fall he dragged down and disgraced the Tractarian cause But its defeat was far less absolute than Mr. Walworth would have us believe. The crop of converts harvested by the Roman Catholics was small, and with the break-down of the Tractarians as a party there was not here, any more than in England, a negation of their influence, which must not, however, be credited with the ritualistic travesty of Tractarianism developed further on.

In a series of chapters Mr. Walworth makes some invidious comparisons between the Episcopalians and Roman Catholics. The points touched are missions, monasteries, and personal religion. The arguments he uses to attract will probably repel his Protestant readers. They and some Roman Catholics will wonder what use God or man can have for such a rule of life as that copied from Ward's 'Ideal Church.' In his attack on married missionaries there is much wilful obscuration of the grounds on which the Roman Church objects to the marriage of her priests. Heber's verses to his wife are brought up against him, but a good many will think them no discredit to the author of

"From Greenland's icy mountains."

The book is printed carelessly, and for Finney (Rev. Charles G.) we have Phinney at least a dozen times.

Gustave Flaubert as seen in his Works and Correspondence. By John Charles Tarver. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, 368 pp.

THE above title is a correct one for this volume; that on the back of the cover, "Life and Letters of Gustave Flaubert," is misleading, still more so its abbreviation, "Life of Gustave Flaubert," the running-title of the pages —misleading, because a third of the book, in broken portions, consists of summaries by Mr. Tarver of Flaubert's various works; not analyses, not criticisms, but crude abridgments. Now, Montaigne said, many years ago, "Tout abbrégé sur un bon livre est un sot abbrégé," and no wise man has ever contradicted him. The abridgment by an English intelligence of Flaubert's writings is not likely to change this verdict.

If the title is misleading, the New York imprint is also. The voice is the voice of Jacob: not the hairy Esau of America, but his English brother, who is familiar with "the variations of usage on the two sides of the Channel." So, naturally, the book has English faults; but it has also English virtues, and the note which the first sentence of the introduction strikes, chords with the honest and simple strain of the whole volume. This first sentence speaks of Flaubert as "a man to whom truth seemed the most sacred of all obligations." Such praise honors the praiser. And this sentence makes one almost, but only almost, accept the last sentence of the introduction, which pronounces Flaubert to have been "one of the best and noblest men of the nineteenth century." There is certainly something peculiar in the fact that those who like Flaubert at all seem always to become his warm friends, with an appreciation of the trials of his temperament and circumstances that make them not forget his follies and failures, but care for him the more because of them, and rank even his great literary successes as less important than the expressions of his warm and sorrowful heart. It is, indeed, a strange fate for a man who strove with extravagant sincerity to keep his own personality out of his books, to be loved precisely for his by no means always lovable personality by those who never saw him. This kindliness of never to be requited friendship permeates not unpleasantly all the volume before us, and gives it a moral attraction which intellectually it does not possess.

It would demand an artist of large and cultivated mind, with a tender heart and a skilled hand, to shape the fitting image of Flaubert; to create a figure that should rightly impersonate his joyless strength, his fruitless learning, his groping imagination, his idle industry, his deadening devotion to Art, his misconception of Life and Love, and not less his noble veracity, his deep and sensitive affections, his high-minded simplicities, his life-long generosities of act and deed, his faithful domestic attentions.

The Psychology of Childhood. By Frederick Tracy, Ph.D., Lecturer in Philosophy in the University of Toronto. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Now that psychologists have begun the study of the speech of children, it may be well to draw attention to the all too common unscientific method of procedure, as illustrated, for example, in Dr. Tracy's thesis. Dr. Tracy evidently brought to the study of the child's language no special training in the science of linguistics, and he betrays remarkable innocence of phonetics, the side of the subject chiefly dealt with. He has made up his tables and drawn his conclusions from reports on children of diverse nationalities, these reports being based on observations made by all sorts of people and preserved in various transcriptions. And he has dealt with his material in such a haphazard fashion that its crudities and gross inaccuracies are evident at a glance. For instance, he undertakes to tell (1) the number of times a sound is supplanted in various parts of words, and (2) the number of times the various supplanting sounds occur. But, strange to say, these sums are rarely equal; they run: 55-51, 38–35, 26–26, 31–25. 29–25, etc. The illustrations are in a jumble; compare *th* (p. 153), where the first and fourth examples illustrate the first statement, the second example the third statement, the third example the second statement, the fifth example the fourth statement, etc. One sample of Dr. Tracy's phonetics will suffice. He had this material: *Tumblie* for *tumbler* (p. 152), *dotta* for *daughter* (p. 155), *dockie* for *doctor* (p. 154); that is, for final written *-er*, *-or* we have a vowel probably ranging between the high-front vowel and a mid-mixed vowel, and in the last word the *t* is dropped. But what does our author say of these? That in *tumblie* for *tumbler*, *r* has become *e;* in *dotta* for *daughter*, *r* has been dropped; in *dockie* for *doctor*, *t* has become *e*. Moreover, we do not know what "*e*" stands for: on page 126 the author says he is going to use it for the sound in *pet*, but we find it only where the child's word has *ie*, evidently some parents' spelling for final *y*, or short *i*. What the sounds were that the various children heard we have no means of knowing, for Dr. Tracy does not seem to have considered that of sufficient importance to bother with.

Legends of Fire Island Beach and the South Side. By Edward Richard Shaw. New York: Lovell, Coryell & Co.

THIS is a volume of short stories inspired by more than an average knowledge of the locality to which they relate. Too much praise cannot be accorded Mr. Shaw for the care he exercises in retaining the original and quaint names of the points and headlands comprised within the limits of the range of beach and shore of which he writes. The seven stories contained in the book are of somewhat uneven quality. The opening one, "The Pot of Gold," is the weakest of the series. It relates to the discovery of buried treasure on the beach of the south side of Long Island. Capt. Robinson, the hero of the tale, is of a type which Mr. Shaw fails to describe with the skill that he displays in the delineation of some of his other characters. He makes Capt. Robinson, the discoverer of the pot of gold, when suddenly confronted with the treasure buried in the sand, assume towards it an attitude more in harmony with that of a citizen of Hoboken upon finding a pocketbook in the street than that of a beach-comber under the inspiration

of unexpectedly acquired wealth. Then, again, Mr. Shaw is not always consistent in the dialect he employs. In "The Pot of Gold" Capt. Robinson, instead of a stormy speaks of a "monstrous" night—a word which, uttered in this connection in the presence of a genuine beach comber, would cause him greater perturbation and consternation than all the goblins and ghosts of which Mr. Shaw describes him as standing in fear. These little lapses, however, do not materially detract from what are interesting, if somewhat improbable, tales of a locality familiar to a great number of people. The notes at the end of the volume possess exceptional interest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amicis, Edmondo de. Cuore: An Italian Schoolboy's Journal. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Barrett, Frank. A Set of Rogues. Macmillan. $1.50.
Benson, P. R. The Rev. John Henry. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Bourgoin, Saidee Sarah Martha in Paris. Merriam Co. 50 cents.
Burgin, G B. At Tuxter's. Putnams. $1.
Burnham, Clara L. The Wise Woman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Carroll, Edward, Jr. Principles and Practice of Finance. Putnams. $1.75
Claflin, Mrs Mary B. Under the Old Elms. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Crawford, F. Marion. Katharine Lauderdale. Macmillan. $1.
Crockett, S. R. The Men of the Moss-Hags. Macmillan. $1 50.
Dorr, Mrs. Julia C. R. "The Flower of England's Face." Macmillan. 75 cents.
Effinger, J. R. Selected Essays from Sainte-Beuve. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Field, Eugene. A Little Book of Profitable Tales. Scribners. $1.25.
Green, Prof. W. H. The Higher Criticism of the Pentateuch. Scribners. $1.50.
Harte, Bret. Clarence. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Holden, E. S. The Mogul Emperors of Hindustan. Scribners. $2.
Houston, E. J., and Kennelly, A. E. Alternating Electric Currents. W. J. Johnston Co. $1.
Hunter, Sir W. W. The Old Missionary. London: Henry Frowde.
Ireland, Mary E. What I Told Dorcas: A Story for Mission Workers. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Jannaris, A. N. A Concise Dictionary of the English and Modern Greek Languages, as Actually Written and Spoken. Harpers. $2.50.
King, Edward. Under the Red Flag. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1 25.
King, Prof. F H. The Soil: its Nature, Relations, and Fundamental Principles of Management. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Maartens, Maarten. An Old Maid's Love. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
McManus, L. The Red Star. Putnams. 50 cents.
Montague, Prof. W. L Bornier's Fille de Roland. W. R Jenkins 25 cents.
Nevin, W W. Dies Iræ: Nine Original English Versions. Putnams. 75 cents.
Page, T. N. Unc' Edinburg: a Plantation Echo. Scribners $1.50.
Pratt, Arthur. Passing through the Ordeal. J. S, Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Rolfe, W. J. Tennyson's In Memoriam. [Student's Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Stockton, F. R. A Chosen Few Short Stories. Scribners. $1 25.
Tompkins, Arnold. The Philosophy of School Management. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Wharton, H. T. Sappho: Memoir, Text, Selected Renderings and a Literal Translation. 3d ed. London: John Lane; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.25.
Yonge, Charlotte M. The Carbonels. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 10, 1895.

The Week.

THE Democrats of Massachusetts were at their best, last week, when they nominated George Fred. Williams for Governor and adopted a platform in favor of the gold standard and calling for the retirement and cancellation of the greenbacks with the substitution of bank-notes in place thereof. It may be fairly said that both parties have put the best foot foremost. Gov. Greenhalge, the Republican nominee, is a man of the same type as Mr. Williams. He has won golden opinions in the office he now holds, and Mr. Williams himself took occasion not long since to speak of his prospective rival for the governorship in terms of high compliment. It is altogether probable that Gov. Greenhalge will be reëlected, since Massachusetts is a Republican state except when the Republicans are dissatisfied with their own leaders. The only breach in their ranks at present proceeds from the A. P. A. faction, Gov. Greenhalge not being up to its standard of fanaticism and proscription against Roman Catholics. This is much to his credit, and will probably gain for him as many votes as it will lose. Whatever may be the result of the election, there is no humiliation in store for either of the leaders or for either political party. It is almost an ideal campaign that is in prospect, and it seems a pity that both candidates for Governor cannot be elected.

The platform of the Democrats is almost identical, as regards the money question, with that adopted by the same party in New York a few days ago. It says:

"We demand the maintenance of the existing gold standard of value, and that the government shall keep all its obligations at all times redeemable in gold. We oppose the free coinage of silver and any further purchase of silver bullion on government account.

"We reaffirm the demands of our platform of last year that the government shall not carry on a banking business, that the untaxed notes of State or national banks shall be the only credit currency, and that the government shall, with the development of a banking system adequate to the demands of trade, retire as rapidly as possible all United States paper money. We recommend that the administration formulate and present to the next Congress a measure calculated to secure these results."

The demand that the government shall go out of the banking business, and that the untaxed notes of State or national banks shall be the only credit currency, the greenbacks and Treasury notes being retired as rapidly as possible, is assuredly the next great question in national politics. There will be an attempt, of course, to keep the tariff issue alive as a stalking-horse for candidates who have never looked into any public question except that and the various issues growing out of the war. But every day that passes casts the tariff more and more into the shade. On the other hand, each day makes the currency question an object of greater interest. The country has been considerably stirred by the action of the Syracuse convention of Democrats the other day, and will be still more so by that of the same party in Massachusetts.

The Republicans of Massachusetts are to be congratulated on their platform as well as their candidate. Their observations on the tariff are especially commendable. They first condemn the present Democratic tariff in unsparing terms, and justify themselves in doing so by the scathing denunciations which the Democrats themselves visited upon it. Here they are on safe ground. When they come to tell how they would change it they say:

"We are not pledged to any schedules. We only pledge to each American industry such protection as shall equalize differences of the price of labor, and to that the farmer and the miner are as much entitled as the manufacturer and the artisan. In determining that we are not bound by precedents and theories, we are governed by the teachings of experience, and are as ready to learn from the experiments of our adversaries as of ourselves, from failure as well as from success."

This is also safe ground, but, we fear, will not be considered so by the wool-growing triumvirate of Ohio. It means, evidently, that if the experiment of free wool, which our adversaries have put in operation, works well, we will bow to it and profit by it. The world moves, and we move with it. All attempts to start a tariff agitation in Congress this winter will be discountenanced by the Bay State, and it may turn out that before the Republicans come into power the experiment of free wool will be pronounced a charming success. At all events we shall not be over-hasty in passing final judgment on a question which, from its very nature, requires careful statistical treatment and the calmest deliberation. To Judge Lawrence, the leading triumvir of Ohio, deliberation is simply poison. Waiting is like asking a man to hold his breath till you can make an interesting experiment on the properties of ozone. We shall expect an outburst from that quarter soon, but none the less do we consider the Massachusetts platform a wise and temperate deliverance. On the Hawaiian question, where we looked for something decisive, we find not a syllable, direct or indirect.

At the opening of 1895 the total money holdings of New York city banks were $172,591,700, or 31½ per cent. of liabilities. At the opening of June total holdings were $182,778, 600—this despite the heavy payments against the February bond issue. Call-money rates were meantime all but nominal at 1 per cent., and interior funds, unavailable in the hands of their own institutions, were flowing to New York at the rate of two to four millions weekly. It is not at all remarkable, under such conditions, that withdrawal of idle foreign capital and consequent gold exports should have again grown active. With July, however, the harvest movement of currency began, and was soon reflected in decrease of the New York bank reserves. The $35,000,000 gold exports since June have partly relieved the market, but in addition nearly $16,000,000 currency has already been shipped West and South, to meet the needs of an active harvest and of reviving trade. As a result, notwithstanding the currency receipts of July and August, the cash reserves of the New York banks last week reached $151,496,400, a decrease since June of $31,000,000. A few weeks more of heavy interior remittances will certainly contract the local supply of money, raise the discount rate, give employment to idle foreign deposits, and hence depress exchange and stop the specie shipments. That the relief is temporary, however, so long as Congress refuses either to regulate the currency or to provide sufficient revenue, even the experience of 1891 sufficiently demonstrated. Only six months after that exceptional period of trade activity, gold was again expelled in unprecedented quantity, and the Treasury approached its crisis.

The *Journal of Commerce*, through its Washington correspondence, furnishes some advance estimates from the Mint Bureau of the world's gold production for 1895. The showing is quite as remarkable as that of the previous year. The summing up of 1894 showed a production in round figures of $180,000,000, an increase of $23,000,000 over 1893. This yield was about $30,000,000 greater than the product of any year when the placer mines of California and Australia were at their maximum. The indications now point to a yield of $200,000,000 for the calendar year 1895, another increase of $20,000,000, and an increase of $43,000,000 in the annual output in two years, and of $54,000,000 in three years. As the annual supply of gold is not used up in the year, but is added to the preëxisting sum, it follows that the world's stock has been increased in the three years named by the enormous sum of $537,000,000. And this unprecedented output has taken place at a time when the public ear was filled with the most dismal predictions of a "gold famine" by the silverites of this country and of Europe.

The prevailing low rates of interest have had one rather curious effect in Eng-

land. The report of the British Postmaster-General directs attention to the unprecedented increase in the amount of deposits in the post-office banks. The increase in 1894 was over 40 millions of dollars, double that of 1893, which in its turn was the largest year on record. In the course of last year 35,874 persons deposited £50 each, the maximum annual limit in one sum. The post-office allows 2½ per cent. interest, and invests the money in government stocks at the present high prices. When normal interest rates become again common, it is likely that the greater part of these large individual deposits will be withdrawn, when the government will be compelled to sell its purchased stocks to provide the necessary cash—probably at lower prices. The government thus stands to lose by reason of affording to persons with some little capital a safe investment at a fair return during a time of business depression.

An interesting table has been compiled showing the saving effected to the city by the failure of various departments to fill offices when their heads found that they could not, under the civil-service regulations, fill them with their own men. They have actually for this reason dispensed with services worth in salaries over $17,000 a year. This is an illustration of the tendency to overman the service which exists everywhere in order to oblige dependents, hangers-on, and political followers. If one of these dependents comes to the top in the examinations, well and good; he gets the place. If he does not, it remains unfilled. Every appointing officer of course naturally desires to surround himself with men of his own choosing, and if he worked *in vacuo* he certainly ought to be allowed to do so, as private employers are. The competitive system is meant to protect him against the temptation of his own position, which is really that of a man carrying on business with other people's money, under no liability for losses, and under strong pressure to squander it. The public, therefore, says to him that it knows his weakness, and knows what kind of pressure is put on him, and enables him to bear it by means of rules.

In Chancellor McGill's remarks the other day, when accepting the Democratic nomination for Governor of New Jersey, he boldly came out in favor of laws (not named) to make the State and all its citizens prosperous and contented. This seems to have furnished an opening to his Republican opponent, Mr. Griggs, who two days later, in a speech at Hoboken, declared that New Jersey, like all the States of the Union, was "suffering from too much legislation." He said it would be his aim, if elected Governor, to "restrict the constant tinkering of the laws, and to allow the people to live without too much paternal government." This is a wholesome sentiment, and we believe it is a popular sentiment. The terror with which citizens now watch the assembling of their chosen representatives to make laws for the commonwealth is one of the things which would greatly perplex an open-eyed visitor from Jupiter, sent here to study our political institutions. That any good thing can come out of the Nazareth of a State Legislature, except under compulsion and through popular uprisings, has ceased to be believed by large bodies of voters. They view with deep alarm the promises of demagogues to cure all ills by law, and are ready, we doubt not, in constantly increasing numbers, to champion any man or system that will give them fewer Legislatures, sessions, laws, and elections, and consequently fewer nightmares.

South Carolina may be weak in the matter of just treatment of the blacks, and tender towards white rascals who carry elections by fraud, but it is firm as a rock in defence of the sanctity of the marriage relation. From the earliest times public sentiment in that State has looked upon the idea of divorce with abhorrence, and except for the brief period of reconstruction rule the courts have never enjoyed any power to dissolve a marriage. The convention now sitting at Columbia has decided to maintain the ancient rigor unimpaired, adopting a clause for the new Constitution which expressly provides that "no divorce shall be granted in South Carolina for any cause whatsoever"; while the sentiment was clearly expressed that the State will not recognize divorces granted in other States, except in so far as she is compelled by the Constitution of the United States. Tillman was ready to let down the bars so far as to permit the granting of divorces under certain circumstances, and he also offered an amendment providing for the recognition of divorces granted in other States, but this proposition was defeated by an almost two-to-one vote, and the boss of the State found that even his power was not great enough to overcome a sentiment that has generations of tradition behind it.

An election was held in the Tenth Congressional District of Georgia, October 2, which is noteworthy as the first that ever took place in the State under a registration law. The greatest laxity has always prevailed as to the making up of the roll of voters, and opportunity was thereby afforded for gross frauds. Charges of such frauds have long been made, and especially by the Populists against the Democrats, since many whites went into the third party. Gross cheating was apparently proved in the regular election for Congressman in the Tenth District last fall, when Black, Democrat, was returned as having polled 20,903 votes to 13,530 for Watson, Populist. Black himself seems to have been convinced of the frauds, for he refused to accept his election, and proposed another appeal to the people. Meanwhile a new law had gone into effect which makes registration a prerequisite to voting. With characteristic inconsistency, the Populists, having secured legal protection of the suffrage, denounced the law as soon as they found that they would probably be beaten under it, and Watson himself advised his followers to pay no attention to it, but to vote anyhow. This fresh manifestation of Populistic tendencies naturally injured Watson's cause, and he was defeated by nearly 2,000 majority in a fair election. The most striking feature of the Democratic canvass was the open bidding for the colored vote.

In an article in the *New World*, Mr. Edward Atkinson enforces anew the idea that the way to improve the condition of the poor, especially in the congested quarters of the large cities, is to teach them how to use the money they actually earn. By way of illustration he tells of a visit that he made, not long since, to one of the boarding-houses in the dirtiest quarter of Boston, thus:

> "The house belonged to the good Irish woman who kept it and who was making an effort to clean some part of the furniture. One of the inmates was reclining in a comatose condition on the steps. He had dropped his savings-bank book, and it proved that he had to his credit about four hundred dollars; other boarders were earning a sufficient sum to enable them to live in one of the unfashionable parts of the Back Bay, and to enjoy full nutrition of a varied kind if they had so chosen. An instance has come to my knowledge of an effort to supply working people with comfortable cottages, each containing a bath-room and bath-tub. In one case the bath-tub was used to pack the winter pork in, the family having come from Canada, where this had been the practice; another was used as a receptacle for ashes, both cases being only examples of other uses than bathing to which the bath-rooms were put."

There was a great outcry against the Pullman Company last year because of the restrictions they put upon the tenants of their buildings, which were said to be tyrannical in the extreme. It turned out that they were mainly restrictions against dirt and nuisances, such as prohibitions against the keeping of pigs, geese, and chickens, or the use of the rooms for other purposes than those for which they were designed, or against subletting and overcrowding. In short, they were regulations to promote the health and comfort of the tenants themselves; but the free American does not like to have his health and comfort promoted in ways that he has not chosen for himself.

The announcement that Yale has a smaller freshman class this fall than last, while Harvard has a larger, undoubtedly surprises the public. For years we have been assured that athletic preëminence was the most potent factor in attracting students to a university, and Yale's superiority to Harvard in this branch of the curriculum was never more pronounced than during the past year.

What does it mean, then, that the entering class at New Haven shows a loss, while there is a marked gain at Cambridge? Can it be that the athletic craze is dying out, and that Harvard is profiting by the fact that her faculty have been the first to put restrictions upon the old license in sports?

Cuban sympathizers who are calling for the recognition of the Cuban insurgents as belligerents will do well to remember that our Government made it a ground of bitter complaint against Great Britain that she accorded belligerent rights to the Confederacy, when it had an organized government, an immense territory, three or four ports, and an army of 200,000 men in the field. The Cuban insurgents have no government, no flag, no territory, and no army beyond some guerilla bands, no ports, no revenue, and no organs of communication with the outer world. This complaint against Great Britain was maintained to the end of the *Alabama* controversy, and was produced in aggravation of damages at the final settlement. It would probably have been well for us to accept the British contention, that belligerency was a fact, and not an opinion. There was nothing necessarily unfriendly in according it, but we did not accept that view. We said that to accord belligerency, even to such a power as the Confederacy, one minute sooner than was absolutely necessary for the protection of neutral rights, was a hostile move, and deserved resentment. There is not the smallest likelihood that the Cuban insurgents will entitle themselves to our recognition under our own rules, unless they succeed in taking and holding some of the leading Cuban ports, and thus establishing relations with the outer world. Nothing short of this would enable us to treat them as belligerents. But when they do this, the war will be virtually over and their independence achieved. Most of the talk of our sympathizers about the matter—such as the Chicago proposal to repeal international law—sounds like the merry chatter of school-children, of whom some of our agitators so often remind us and the rest of the world. In fact, our foreign politics often seems the concern chiefly of the kindergartens of our country and to be ruled by that love of abstract justice which burns in nearly all ten-year-old breasts.

No more amusing reading has appeared in the American press for a good while than the extracts published in the *Tribune* last week from other papers lamenting that we are to have no hand in the threatened fight between Great Britain and China. It does not appear that our missionaries have exceptionally suffered in the late massacres, or that we have any more complaint to make of Chinese outrages and inhospitality than the Chinese have to make of ours, or that Great Britain is not abundantly able to chastise China for her offences against her. Nevertheless, the whole Jingo press is wailing over our non-participation in the approaching fight, and loading the President with abuse for not sending our ships to share in it. The reason of this is, that nobody in the country is so hostile to Europe, or hates more the people who "go to Europe," or dreads more the introduction of European ideas, or goods, or books, than your genuine Jingo, or "intense American." But he has nevertheless imported and hugs to his bosom the one European idea which is most un-American, which is most hostile to our civilization and most likely to injure our government. This is, the idea that fighting is the highest and noblest occupation in which a nation can engage; that there is something degrading and humiliating in keeping out of a free fight, or in not being ready to fight, or in letting a chance of a fight slip by. This idea is crushing the European populations to the earth. It is threatening the existing social organization through the great armaments, and is keeping alive in every country the mediæval respect for brute force. When the United States Government was established, it was supposed we had escaped it. But the Jingo sect is really acting as missionaries for it. Unless we are "licking" or threatening somebody, or subjugating somebody, or have a few "keys" or a canal or two to fight somebody about, they writhe on their beds in patriotic agony.

The Duke of Devonshire seems to have mainly employed himself since the prorogation of Parliament in going about the country sticking knives into the famous "social programme" of the Tories, and, incidentally, into some of his esteemed colleagues in the Government. In his speech at Derby, as President of the Poor Law Conference, he graciously admitted that "we are not absolved from the duty of seeing whether it is not possible by state assistance to create such a system of state-aided insurance as many of us desire to see," but could not blind himself to the certainty that nothing of the sort was possible "for a long time to come." Mr. Chamberlain knows into whose vitals that blade was thrust. But the Duke's speech on agricultural depression was itself more depressing than anything the British farmer has had to encounter. He frankly told that much-cultivated voter that nothing whatever was to be expected from legislation, but that farming in England must be made to pay, if at all, by hard work, economy, and enterprise. No wonder that the cry is going up from rural England, "We are betrayed!" The wicked Radicals could not have played Hodge a scurvier trick. The situation lends point to a satirical letter in the *Daily News* loudly denouncing the Ministry for shamelessly going off to Continental watering-places and Scotch links, when by simply forcing a bill through Parliament they could put thousands of idle men at work, and bring back the glories of English agriculture. At least, they said they could before the election.

Religious education in public schools, how to get it, and how to guard and limit it, is a leading part of the school question so much discussed in England just now. The great aim is somehow to unite the board schools, the Church of England and Catholic and other voluntary schools, into one great national system. But there are two serious obstacles in the way. One is the expense. If all the voluntary schools are to be thrown on the state, if the proportion of the expenses of the board schools now paid by parents—about one-fifth—is also to be laid upon the public funds, what is a badgered and desperate Chancellor of the Exchequer to do? He is already at his wit's end, what with demands on him for national defence and colonial expansion. In fact, Lord Salisbury some time ago, when in Opposition, warned the advocates of school consolidation that it would not do for them to make a raid on the national exchequer. Now that he is in power will he cry, hang the expense? Probably not, with so many other more agreeable and glorious ways of spending money.

But there would remain, in any case, the enormous difficulty of devising a system of religious teaching that would satisfy Churchmen, Catholics, and Nonconformists, not to speak of Unitarians, Jews, Agnostics, and Theosophists. Of course there might be, as there is now, a "conscience clause," under which the religious part of the school exercises could be omitted by any children whose parents might so desire. But that would not do away with the evil, under which Catholics and Churchmen now groan, of ratepayers being taxed to support schools which they disapprove. The Rev. Hugh Price Hughes, speaking for the Nonconformists, has said that he would agree to a system of national schools "free from denominational bias," in which only "historical Christianity" should be taught. But denominational bias is exactly what Catholics and Churchmen want, the more of it the better. And as for historical Christianity, the question at once arises, whose? There is an historical Christianity which it would be as absurd to teach as it would historical chemistry, while, of course, each sect is prepared to maintain that its own crotchets are precisely what the Apostles held and taught. All told, the likelihood of a satisfactory settlement seems remote. Dr. Martineau shows his great liberality, at the same time that he indicates the almost insoluble nature of the problem, when he says that while "holding fast the protection for the undogmatic conscience, we should add an equal provision for the dogmatic conscience."

THE NEW YORK CITY CANVASS.

Now that the struggle of rival interests is over and the nominations are made, it is worth while considering the suggestions we in this city get from the events of the last three weeks. The first thing which strikes even the most careless observer in looking back, is the extreme oddity of the whole process as a means of filling high State and municipal offices. The traveller from Mars, for instance, would never suppose that he was looking on at the efforts of a business community to provide itself with fit and proper governmental machinery. In the first place, the public was represented in it only by the Committee of Fifty, a volunteer organization created only two or three days before the nominations. The sole business of this committee was to prevent the nomination of unfit men, and in order to do it it had to engage in long and intricate negotiations, very much like those which people have sometimes to carry on for the recovery of stolen property or the ransom of a relative carried off by brigands in Greece or Macedonia. That is to say, the object of the "Organizations" was to get in as many bad men as possible, and that of the Fifty to keep down their number. The bargaining was all about the amount of the ransom or of the reward.

That this is not an exaggerated picture we think we may fairly conclude from the fact that there never has been on the part of the Organizations any public discussion whatever of the fitness of their candidates for the places they were intended to fill. We do not know, of course, what happened in the private caucuses, but after having followed pretty closely the public utterances of their spokesmen, we are unable to recall a single attempt to commend any candidate to the voters or to the Fifty on the ground that he would serve the public faithfully and efficiently. The one argument used in his favor was that he was "our man," or "we were entitled to the place," or anyhow that "we would not support the ticket unless we got it" (*i. e.*, would kill the prisoner unless the ransom was paid on a certain day). The consequences to the city or State of not supporting the ticket were never, so far as our observation has gone, even alluded to. It was simply a threat intended to make the other fellows pay up.

The resemblance of all the Organizations to Tammany in all this is easily seen. Their relation to the city is exactly the same as Tammany's. Tammany is an association for the distribution of offices among people who help to win elections, without regard to fitness or character. So are all the others. The public interest plays no part in the councils of any of them. They differ from Tammany simply in being composed of men of rather better character, and in distributing the offices among men of a slightly better grade. But the operations of both have exactly the same effect in concealing from the voters, especially the more ignorant and foreign-born ones, the real object of the elections and the importance of the public interest.

Thanks in the main to the Committee of Fifty, good nominations, on the whole, have been secured, but with more or less difficulty. The ransom has been cut down to a comparatively low figure, and the unfortunate captive is on the way home to his friends. The fact that two improvised committees have been able to accomplish this result in two successive years seems to us full of promise. All previous efforts at reform in New York, as well as we can at present remember, have lasted only one year. This year it has been possible to repeat the process which was so successful last year. Now, we look on this as an educational agency of the highest value, and we are confident that it will be repeated every year, until we have created a genuine municipal party strong enough to meet the Organizations in a fair trial of strength in the open field. It very much resembles the gradual emancipation of the burghs in the Middle Ages from the rule of feudal lords. At first they had to beg for charters; then they had to negotiate and pay in order to keep them, but finally they went out sword in hand, smote the barons hip and thigh, and had no further trouble. The steady reappearance each year of a body of representative men, with no axes to grind, and speaking for the public alone, and successfully parleying with the party spoilers, is to the masses a practical illustration of the nature of the non-partisan idea and of the real and proper object of elections. To the average poor and ignorant man in this city, this object has seemed, for a whole generation at least, to be purely the provision of salaries for the men who worked at the polls on the winning side. Consequently there has been to him nothing extraordinary in the condition of things in the Register's office, for instance, as revealed by the report of the Commissioners of Accounts. It has not seemed unnatural to him that all these liquor-dealers, butchers, janitors, feedmen, undertakers, pugilists, and cattlemen should be employed in copying old records and keeping the archives of a great commercial community. The idea that offices exist for the public service had indeed almost perished among the mass of New Yorkers, when the Committee of Seventy sought to revive it last year. And it must be remembered that all so-called Organizations, and not Tammany only, have a tendency to keep this idea in the background or in some way to shut the voters' eyes to it.

Each canvass should now be made the means of resuscitating and cherishing it through such organizations as the Fifty and the Good Government clubs. We cannot get any new idea into the heads of 300,000 people all at once. The process must necessarily be slow, but if the operation of this year be steadily repeated each year, the result is certain. The committee which represents the public will every year grow stronger, the Organizations weaker. Besides educating the masses, we shall do something to rid the heads of young men of education of the idea that there is something awfully 'cute and practical and worldly wise in belonging to and running Organizations, to get offices for "our men," and in imposing on the public in high places the riff-raff of our politics and business, people who cannot in a land of industry make a living in any business calling. We have to teach them that this is a dirty and dishonest business, in which self-respecting men ought not to engage; that the first allegiance of every inhabitant of a city is due to the city; that he owes it to his neighbors and friends, and the community which protects them, to provide it with the best government in his power; and to the land of his birth to give it officials over whom patriots will not hang their heads for shame. Any man who, having contributed in ever so slight a degree to make our Record Office what we learn that it is, still calls himself "a patriot," is a supremely ridiculous person.

SYMPATHY FOR CUBA.

GROTESQUE as have been many of the resolutions in favor of Cuban independence, adopted variously in this country at club, caucus, or convention, those passed last week at the South Carolina Constitutional Convention easily lead all the rest in fantastic inconsistency. The main object and aim of this convention has been and is, directly or indirectly, to disfranchise the negro. Its ablest powers of double intention and skill in sailing close to the letter of the federal Constitution have been and are employed in compassing the legal rule of the minority over the majority, because the majority is black. Yet, with this tyrannous purpose unconcealed, the convention paused long enough in its work of plotting, to adopt, in a kind of tearful hush, resolutions in favor of the speedy independence of Cuba. Did the ardent South Carolinians know that more than half the population of Cuba is negro? Did they know that at least three-fifths of the insurgent bands, for whose success they so devoutly pray, are of negro blood? Probably they neither knew nor cared. They were too busy scheming to put the negroes of South Carolina under their footstool to reflect how a pious wish for negro supremacy in Cuba would strike a sceptical public.

But they are not alone, they are simply first, in such absurdity. For weeks past politicians and popularity-seekers in the United States have been disguising, or attempting to disguise, their assaults on the liberty, safety, and dignity of their own cities and States by effusive deliver-

ances in behalf of Cuban freedom. In Chicago rival Republican factions fell upon each other with more than the fury of Guelph and Ghibelline. The wounded and the dying had to be carried out of the fray, but the contending bandits were perfectly ready to declare a truce long enough to pass patriotic resolutions in aid of struggling Cuba. At the New York State conventions of both parties, where every effort was made to fool and cheat and betray the people of this commonwealth on the only issue up for decision, the tricksters dropped their work of chicane to lift up a prayer for oppressed Cuba. In this city, when Platt and anti-Platt were struggling in convention for the possession of the Republican machine, for the better degradation and spoliation of the municipality, and when the police reserves were called out to suppress the rioting, the din of the fierce contest suddenly died away as the familiar Cuban resolution was introduced. By all means let Cuba be free, though the fetters of boss, heeler, and gang be but the more securely riveted on America.

It should be said, in fairness, that this is not all trickery and hypocrisy. A good part of it springs from sheer ignorance and stupidity. The ignorance of these patriotic resolvers about Cuba is, of course, something vast and inconceivable —but we do not mean that. What they are most profoundly ignorant and stupid about is their own business. They are (if we charitably take their own account of themselves) the men who are to do our governing for us in this country. They are to furnish the policy, and the power to execute it, for our States and cities. But to devise such a policy, even to hint at it in words which shall not be too obviously ridiculous, requires some knowledge, requires some thought. But where, in their conventions, will one find skull-room for such thought? The heads one encounters there would ache at the very idea of getting up a comprehensive plan of city improvements—of bringing New York within hailing distance of the great cities of Europe in the matter of streets and docks and public charities. So of any rational policy of State administration. It is not in them. Dodging all such brain-racking subjects, they follow the line of least resistance in coming out strong for the inalienable rights of man, liberty and independence, and down with all tyrants.

But their sympathy for Cuba is not wholly an artful dodge. In it there lurks also a dim desire to do something popular. They are vaguely aware that they cut a pretty poor figure in their ravening over the spoils, and think to dignify themselves a little and ingratiate themselves with a suspicious public by expressing an unselfish interest in men who they suppose are heroic, even if they are not so themselves. But this use of Cuba for purposes of popularity is as futile as its use as a dodge. The time has gone by when a public man can be popular because his heart is true to the oppressed of all nations, unless he has some concern for the oppressed of this nation. One road, and one road only, to popularity is now open in this country. It is the road by which public servants march victoriously to good administration. Cities are to be rescued from waste and misrule. The public service of State and nation is to be made to approximate private service in point of skill and fidelity. The men who can show the people how to do this, and do it, are the men who will be popular. But they will have to be born administrators, men of war from their youth, masters of detail, persistent, indomitable. The Boys are quite right in thinking they can never win popularity in this way. Let them stick to their Cuban resolutions. But let them not think that their resolutions will make them either popular or much longer tolerable.

Lord Palmerston once told the House of Commons that the British cavalry would be an ideal body if the men only knew how to ride horseback. So would our party organizations be models of usefulness if they would but do what they profess their one aim is to do. This is to furnish good government, not to free Cuba. When they shamelessly abandon the former and set about the latter, by way of resolution, they are like nothing so much as a gorgeously apparelled trooper, armed to the teeth, but going over the head of his horse at the first charge. Their obituary will be like that of the Georgia desperado, of whom the charitable editor said that, whatever shortcomings might be laid to his charge in his dealings with his fellows, it could not be denied that he had always been kind to animals.

"*SOME PROBLEMS OF THE AGE.*"

An article under the above heading appears in the last number of the *North American Review* from the pen of Dean Farrar of Canterbury, which will add to the regret with which most intelligent students of human affairs have watched the part the clergy have taken in the economical and sociological discussions of the last twenty years. We should be sorry to say they had all worked mischief, for a good many have kept their heads, and the great majority have performed the best service most men can render to their fellow-men by active, diligent work in the field in which Providence has placed them. But by far the larger part of the talk of the talking ones about poverty and labor has simply promoted strife and irrationality, and thereby lowered the importance of character in the eyes of the ignorant and less thoughtful portion of the community. Nothing does more mischief at this crisis than the suggestion to the poor that the world is going down hill, and that the well-to-do are responsible for it. The continual reproduction of this thesis in vague and somewhat wordy rhetoric is one of the most unsettling agencies of the day, and renders the solution of nearly all the pressing and soluble economical problems more and more difficult.

Dean Farrar's first "problem" is the growth of large fortunes and the collocation of wealth and poverty in the large cities. His account of the matter would leave on the mind of any ignorant man the impression that it was the riches which produced the poverty, and the happiness of the prosperous which begot the misery of the paupers. The truth is that the connection between them is almost wholly topographical. The presence of large masses of poverty in cities is largely due to the flocking into the towns of the vicious, the lazy, the unfortunate, and the incompetent. They come there to seek their fortunes, and are soon the victims of their own mistake. The industrious and prosperous do not encourage or invite them, and could not keep them out of the cities if they would. The Dean also suggests that somebody is to blame for this rapid growth of the large cities, and quotes Heinrich Heine, James Russell Lowell, and Huxley, Lord Rosebery and Chauncey Depew in support of the thesis that there are far more people in cities than there ought to be. But what is the remedy? If he does not propose to fix the population of cities by law, what does he mean by calling the size of cities a "problem"? If he does, who is to decide when a city has enough inhabitants?

He expresses, too, great "anxiety" about "the unparalleled growth of population." But he does not say how population is to be kept down. He predicts "hurricanes of disturbance" in trade, which will throw vast numbers of people out of employment if the "unfit" do not stop increasing, and declares that "very dark days may be within measurable distance of our present conditions of society." But how are the unfit to be kept from increasing? Are the well-to-do responsible for the size of shiftless men's families? But the worst passage in the essay is this:

> "Yet though the actual laborers are ever being multiplied, 'the fund available for them becomes a constantly decreasing factor of the national wealth,' and while the rich are growing richer, the great masses of the poor are growing relatively poorer."

Nothing has done more to turn the thoughts of the poor away from honest industry and fill their hearts with bitterness than the repetition of this assertion, which in the mouth of Debs or Sovereign we should call wicked nonsense, but which in the mouth of a Dean we suppose we must treat more respectfully. Any one who wrote on this theme with knowledge would know that wages had greatly risen in all branches of industry throughout the civilized world during the last quarter of a century, and that not only

have wages risen, but the necessaries and comforts of life have fallen, so that the working classes are on the whole better fed, lodged, clothed, and taught, enjoy more freedom and in all ways a larger and happier life than at any previous period of the Christian era. What is declining is not "the fund available for the laborer," but the capitalist's share of production. This great falling off in the inducement to save, otherwise known as the lowering of the rate of interest, is in fact one of the most serious phenomena of the industrial world to-day.

What is nearly as bad is the suggestion, which runs through nearly all jeremiads like Dean Farrar's, that the rich spend all their money in senseless and selfish luxuries, so that the poor get no benefit from accumulated wealth. A very small amount of reflection ought to show any man who thinks about these things at all, that in our day all large fortunes have to be invested in something in order to produce income; that no invested fortune can yield income unless it employs labor; and that the proportion of a large fortune which even the most selfish and luxurious man can spend on himself in a year is necessarily extremely small compared with what goes out in wages and in the plant used for the employment of labor.

The Dean's fears about various other hobgoblins, cyclones, hurricanes, and cataclysms, will hardly repay discussion. In truth, they hardly need discussion in view of the fact, with which every middle-aged man is familiar, that the advance of the world during the last fifty years in everything which makes for human happiness and comfort has been enormous. In the article alone of security from violence, oppression, or injustice, this advance has surpassed the wildest dreams of all past ages. In fact, at no period in the history of mankind have the masses of the people enjoyed so large a share in the benefits of a very high civilization; and the improvement continues, in spite of the demagogues and utopists, who are now the greatest hindrances to human progress. Character, thanks to them, is having just now the greatest struggle it has ever had for its proper share in moulding the destinies of the race. Frantic efforts are being made, too many of them clerical, to persuade the masses that lack of forethought, temperance, industry, and fidelity can be supplied by legislation, and that the failures of the world have a right to live on the virtuous and happy. The result has been much heartburning and delusion, but "this too will pass." The fittest will survive, and their morality is sure in the long run to rule the world.

Dean Farrar's final remedy for the woes he describes, which comes in at the end, is "true religion." What this means he does not distinctly explain. But we suppose, when produced in a semi-economical article, it must mean something concrete and palpable, such as an immense turning to the church on the part of the masses. Dr. Strong some years ago published a book somewhat like the Dean's article, giving a very depressing picture of the moral and social condition of "Our Country." Turning over to the end for the remedy, we found it to consist in greater activity on the part of the home-missionary societies. Now we are not the least disposed to make light of the value of religion as help or consolation to individuals when sorely tried by the problems of their own lives. But to those who know the small share which organized religion has had, in five centuries, in solving economical and social problems, in improving the condition of the poor, or establishing healthier relations between classes, there is a certain mockery in inviting the masses to go to church if they wish to see population kept down, cities well governed, and the rich made to spend their money properly — and the masses feel it.

THE SCHOOL QUESTION IN ENGLAND.

JUDGING from the Cranborne - Balfour correspondence, the coalition Government is about to do more at one stroke for Liberal reorganization than could be accomplished by a score of conferences at the National Liberal Club, or by the most effective overhauling of the National Liberal Federation. It is going to reopen the compromise in regard to national education which was come to in 1870. By so doing it will at once raise a standard around which the now demoralized forces of Liberalism may gather. At present the Liberals are divided as to leadership, and are practically without a programme. As soon, however, as the education question is brought within the field of parliamentary discussion, the Liberals will settle among themselves who is to lead, and will begin to draw back to their ranks some of the numerous stragglers whose desertion helped to bring about the catastrophe of July.

With home rule for the present out of the way, there is no question of English domestic politics which arouses a livelier interest than that of state aid to denominational schools. It is the question which, more than any other, keeps alive the feeling of the old school of Nonconformists against the Established Church. Nonconformists of this school still feel that they were unfairly treated when, in 1870, Mr. Gladstone and the late Mr. Forster set up the compromise in the elementary-education system which gave so much to the Established Church. The church is the only body which, in the long run, really gained by the compromise. As a result of it, that body now handles more than three millions sterling a year from the imperial treasury, with little public control. There is no local representative control of the church day-schools, and the only imperial control is that which is exercised through the occasional visits of the inspectors from the Education Department, and the general oversight which is given by that department to all public elementary schools, whether in the hands of school boards or in those of local committees appointed exclusively by the Church of England parsons. This sum of three million pounds, however, does not meet the needs of the Church of England in connection with its 15,000 schools. Parliament never intended that it should. It was given the church in 1870, and by subsequent legislation, on the understanding that Churchmen would raise among themselves a certain quota (roughly speaking about one-sixth) of the total cost of maintaining their schools.

For several years past Churchmen have been complaining of the hardship of raising this money. They would not surrender their schools to the school boards, because that would involve a giving up of the right of doctrinal teaching which the church schools now possess. As they will not make this surrender, and as they are unable to raise the money called for by the compromise of 1870, Churchmen are now pressing the Salisbury Government to provide the entire cost of the church schools from the imperial exchequer, and still leave Churchmen in undisputed control of the management of the schools. At first the Churchmen conceived the idea that they could obtain what they wanted from local taxation, in the same way as the school boards, and it was only when they realized that any connection with local-taxation funds would involve local representative control, that they devised the plan of making a new and bold claim on Imperial funds. Any concession to this claim means an inroad on the school-board system, and already the Nonconformists and the advocates of an unsectarian school system are putting themselves in opposition to this new demand. The agitation is the most striking feature in English politics since the election.

If the Government are really determined on making concessions, any opposition on the part of the Liberals in the House of Commons will be little more than a forlorn hope in view of the great majority opposed to them. But the agitation will undoubtedly serve to pull the Liberal party together again. It may, however, prove fatal to the alliance between the Liberals and the Nationalists. The English Roman Catholics are at one with the Church of England party in demanding a reopening of the question. The Catholics, like the Church of England, have always been bitterly antagonistic to the school-board system, and in many places they have helped the Churchmen either to prevent school boards from being established, or to restrict their usefulness when they had come into existence. The English Catholics, headed in Parliament by the Duke of Norfolk, are hoping to gain something by the resettlement; and in view of this

expectation the action of the Irish Nationalist members will be most eagerly watched. Most of them are of the Roman Catholic Church. They too are hoping to get something more for the Catholic schools in Ireland from the coalition Government. If they go with the Government on the English school question, the alliance between them and the Liberals must almost of necessity come to an end. The publication of the Cranborne-Balfour correspondence was, of course, something the Liberals could not have anticipated when they postponed from August to October the meeting which was convened in London for discussing the reorganization of the party. Had they suspected that these letters were in existence, they would have had a sufficient justification for postponing the meeting until it was authoritatively known that the leader of the House of Commons was "extremely anxious that something effectual should be done to relieve the intolerable strain" to which, he alleges, the church schools are subjected.

THE EUROPEAN WAR OUTLOOK.

PARIS, September 27, 1895.

AT the time of the alliance of the three Emperors, much attention was given every year to the visits which the three sovereigns never failed to make each other. Those times are already distant; new constellations have been formed in the political sky. The triangle of Germany, Austria, and Russia was broken after the death of the sovereign who fell under the bomb of the Nihilists. At the same time that Italy became engaged in a new Triple Alliance, France and Russia felt drawn towards each other, till finally their compact, their alliance, has become a patent fact and a political factor of the greatest importance. In his pine forests Prince Bismarck can, in his meditations, plume himself on always having very keenly felt the importance for Germany of Russia's good will, or at least of her neutrality. He can remember the benefits which he derived from this neutrality during the war of 1870, and he must have seen with much alarm the growth of new ideas and new sentiments at the Court of St. Petersburg The Treaty of Berlin, however, was the beginning of the new era; and Berlin was the very place where Russia, thinking or finding herself despoiled of the result of her sacrifices in the Turkish war, was forced, so to speak, into an entirely new policy, and had to look for warmer friendships and more useful alliances. On the 26th of February, 1871, when the preliminaries of peace with France were signed, the Emperor of Germany telegraphed immediately to St. Petersburg: "Never will Prussia forget that she owes to you the fact that the war did not assume extreme proportions. God bless you! Your grateful friend for life."

Russia obtained, after the war of 1870, the abrogation of article 2 of the Treaty of Paris, but this conquest seemed very small compared to the conquests of Germany. After Sedan and the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine to Germany, Russia felt very much as France felt the day after Sadowa. The secret feeling of enmity between the Slavic and the German races, which had always existed and which had been kept under control by diplomacy and by the personal action of the Russian and German crowns, was allowed freer play, and soon found daily expression in the press and in literature. The feelings of Russia also found expression in a new interest in conquered and vanquished France, in the incessant invitations made to her to "make herself strong again." Finally, this growing interest took a dramatic and enthusiastic form, and it may be said of the Franco-Russian alliance, what young General Bonaparte said after his first victories, to the Austrian generals: "The French Republic exists; it is as visible as the sun."

The French manœuvres took place this year near the eastern frontier of France. Four corps d'armée, at the end of these manœuvres, were passed in review by the French President, who had on one side Gen. Dragomiroff, the Russian military envoy, and on the other side Prince Lobanoff, the Russian Chancellor. The presence of Prince Lobanoff is a very significant fact. The Prince is known not only as a distinguished writer (he has published interesting works on Mary Stuart, on Marie Antoinette, and on Madame de Coigny), very familiar with France and French literature; he is known besides as a very experienced and shrewd diplomatist. His presence was a sort of demonstration. France has become, as the *Times* said, the banker of Russia; Russia makes herself in return the knight in-arms of France.

The peculiar character of the Russian Government gives a great significance to the acts of the Russian Chancellor: Prince Lobanoff represented directly his sovereign, and it has now become apparent to all that the new Emperor of Russia has accepted the whole heritage of his father's policy. He has shown it not only in this recent circumstance, but also in his attitude towards the Prince of Bulgaria and the Bulgarian deputation which recently visited Russia. This deputation was cordially received, but it returned to Sofia without having accomplished its mission; much sympathy was manifested for the Bulgarian people by the Russian Government, but no distinct promises were given. The assassination of Stambuloff took place while the deputation was in Russia; the Prince of Bulgaria himself was at the time at Carlsbad, and, for a moment, it seemed doubtful if he would return to his capital. He is now at Sofia, and seems to be less eager to be officially recognized by Russia and by the Powers which were the signatories of the Treaty of Berlin. It is highly probable that his son Prince Boris will be educated in the orthodox faith if Prince Ferdinand is ever recognized. Russia does not make a formal condition of this conversion—in fact, she makes no conditions at all; she speaks only of the Treaty of Berlin. She wishes to constrain Prince Ferdinand to make a sort of unconditional surrender. If Bulgaria cannot well dispense with Russia's good will, Russia has, on her side, the greatest interest in securing, in time of war, the alliance of Bulgaria. It is, in fact, evident that the new kingdom of Rumania has been drawn into the compact of the Triple Alliance. The King is a Hohenzollern; the Rumanians have a very good army and showed great military qualities at Plevna. Within a few years Rumania has built a line of forts on the most improved modern principles, with revolving steel turrets. The crossing of the Danube by a Russian army and the march on the Balkans will now be more difficult than ever; if Rumania, in a war between Russia and Austria, brings her army into action, and forces the Russians to lay siege to her forts, the occupation of the Balkan peninsula by an invading army will become a very serious task.

Things will be very different if Bulgaria attacks Rumania in the rear and with the help of a Russian force coming from Varna; all the forts built at so much expense by Rumania will become useless and will fall, to use a military expression, like card-houses. It is therefore essential for Russia to counterbalance Rumania by Bulgaria, and to secure the services, in an eventuality, of the large and well-organized (so it is said, at least) Bulgarian army. These considerations are sure to have much weight when even the Russian Government deems it necessary to put an end to the provisional character of the Government of the Bulgarian Principality.

A young Emperor, having a whole lifetime before him, not devoid of ambition nor of intelligence, can form great plans and cherish great hopes. On ascending the throne the new Tsar resolutely declared to the Delegates of the Provincial Councils that he would maintain intact the autocratic principle; all the more must he be prepared to have a policy suited to the aspirations of his people. The most obvious trait of this policy is the alliance with France and the constant exchange of communications between France and Russia on all questions which affect either one or other of the two countries, or which might affect them both. Germany, to be sure, was a party to the agreement which imposed the treaty of peace of Simonosaki on the Japanese Government; but it soon became clear that Germany had been asked only by courtesy to join Russia and France; in reality the new Chino-Russian loan which allowed China to satisfy Japan was entirely subscribed in France.

I have read many articles on the late English elections which gave such an overwhelming majority to the Conservatives; many are the causes which have been cited to explain the defeat of the Gladstonian party. One cause has probably been operating which could not be apparent on the surface. It is probable that England was, unconsciously, perhaps, more or less moved by the present state of European affairs. The French people are more reasonable than the French press, and, I may add, than French diplomacy. The French, as a nation, have no desire to quarrel with England, but our papers have been for the past few years constantly quarrelling with England. Forgetting that we had been asked by England to join her in Egypt, and had refused, they have incessantly urged England to leave Egypt, and found fault with her agents at Cairo. This perpetual warfare could but produce a certain irritation in the English mind, and this irritation was increased by discussions about the frontiers of Siam, by a number of small questions which in themselves are unimportant, but which had a cumulative effect and created a final impression on the English mind. The cordial alliance of France with Russia (I use a word which, in the time of Louis-Philippe, was applied to the English alliance) has perhaps even more than anything else created in England some apprehension for the future. Russia is considered by England and is perhaps in reality what the Germans call an *Erbfeind*. The prospect of a gigantic struggle of all the civilized nations of Europe—a struggle in which on one side would be Germany, Austria, and Italy, on the other France and Russia—is so terrible that, even in its most shadowy form, it must invite a thinking mind to meditate on all the possibilities of the future. England is not ready to

enter into a definite alliance; she has no conquests to make or to keep in Europe, but she has interests throughout the world, and she is very jealous of her high position. The instinct of conservatism has drawn her again to the conservative side, and she waits for events, confiding in the wisdom and foresight of those whom she has now called to power.

In the present state of Europe, when a mere incident may set fire to the inflammable material which is everywhere collecting, England has felt the necessity of augmenting her navy, and she is even meditating great changes in her military organization. The situation of Europe, on the whole, is one which can but be cause of great anxiety to those who are not content with the optimistic and banal assurances of official diplomacy. If ever there was a time when it could be said, "They cry peace, peace, when there is no peace," it is our time, when all nations are preparing for war, are looking for alliances, and celebrate with unusual pomp the anniversaries of their victories.

SOME LESSER SPANISH SUMMER RESORTS.

GUERNICA, BISCAY, August 18, 1895.

"YOU will want to *see* San Sebastian, of course," the Spanish novelist Palacio Valdés was good enough to write me, "but that is too *bullicioso* (boisterous) for us who like quiet and the amiable converse with nature." He recommended instead various other, smaller places, in the north, as full of rural charm, and particularly Deva. I did see San Sebastian, the chief watering-place of Spain and summer residence of the court, and it will be remembered that bustle which is commonplace to one overfamiliar with it may be entertaining enough to a stranger to whom all its sights and sounds are novel. But to the lesser and much less frequented field I shall devote this letter.

And, first, was it not unsafe to go to Spain in summer? Can you support the heat well enough to have any pleasure there? I shall only reply, on this score, that I have never been once incommoded by the heat. Generally the temperature is of that delightful sort that you never give it a thought. No, the American is tempered by his experiences for any part of the globe. It was amusing, at Deva, the other day, to hear an acquaintance who knew America explain its climate to another who did not. "The sky is very blue," said he, "and the climate is like that of Madrid, only worse." Shall I repeat once more the old truism about Madrid climate, "Nine months winter and three months hell"?

The first of the minor resorts that I saw was Fuenterrabía. I did not know at the time that it laid claim to be a watering-place, but I came to think rather more of its modest accommodations when I had seen those further on. Fuenterrabía lies in a litle eddy just off the main line of travel from the frontier, and it owes its support largely to the tourists who find it so easy to run over there to see a surviving bit of the middle ages, and to attend the bull-fights organized for their especial benefit. I have seen several times since, in the journals, that its beach is *muy concurrida* (very much frequented), but when I was there I had a long hunt to find a bathing-cabin. I walked on beyond the last houses and around a rocky point, and a peasant woman came out from a shabby old farmhouse to open the cabin for me. In compensation, the lovely views of the rugged coast, the Pyrenees and the mediæval town, piled up around the castle of Charles V., were such as a swimmer seldom has opportunity to enjoy. This ruined castle, now about in the condition of an abandoned lime-kiln, is for sale, for $20,000. It is from the romantic sentiment of the English that most is expected, as the sign-board is written in that language. Yet it is not having rapid effect, for the sign-board looks almost as old as the castle.

The Spaniards are much bent upon making their season first at the springs and then at the sea. Even some peasants in costume—I am told that they are much better off than they look—will do this. Palacio Valdés has chosen the Baths of Marmolejo for the opening of his novel 'Sister San Sulpicio,' and the description of such an establishment therein will be found entirely accurate. To honor the custom, I visited in turn two of these baths in a famous part of Guipúzcoa. They are reached from San Sebastian by a narrow-gauge railway, and then a few hours' stage-coaching. The first was San Juan de Azcoitia. As I drew near it I saw a gay little bath establishment, striped pink and white, and near by a small *fonda* (inn), not at all so smart. It could accommodate at most a dozen or fifteen persons. It was entirely occupied at the moment by a single family—a family of distinguished standing at San Sebastian. In the party, by the way, was found an American English-speaking member, American by way of the Cuban connection with New York. The men had their cameras and bicycles, or would go and play handball in the resounding court of the bath house, into which poured the stream of cold sulphur water. Board was six pesetas (francs) a day, and the food excellent. The site is a small fertile valley, with a town at either end, and a grand monastery, erected at the birthplace of Ignatius Loyola, in the centre. People are always straying up there by twos and threes to visit the architectural marvel. René Bazin, among others, describes it in his excellent book, 'Terre d'Espagne,' which must now begin to be heard of in America. The building is said to be planned in the shape of an eagle, but it is not like an eagle at all—further than that any porch may be said to resemble a beak, any side portions wings, and any rear projection a tail.

The worst of it was that the four days' *fiestas* of the saint were in progress. They are called the most important in all this part of Spain, but Spain is quite *fiesta* enough for the stranger in its ordinary aspect, and the festival simply meant that it was almost impossible to secure a bed or a conveyance. A word of warning, then. Such fêtes break out in all the localities in turn, particularly about the Assumption, the 15th of August; and, unless the traveller is of that luxurious and far-seeing kind who commands the best of everything long in advance, he will do well to keep away at such times. It is not the mere "roughing it" that matters, for *À la guerre comme à la guerre* is a motto that every good traveller keeps well in mind; but it is the unhygienic and malodorous aspects—lodgings, for instance, that seem to poison one while he sleeps. The Basque peasants dress in grave, dark-blue stuffs, as in Brittany. They had church processions, their fine ball game of *pelota*, and bull fights, for which the main plaza of the town, as the custom is, was reserved. The enthusiastic youth who piloted me from the inn to a poor chamber in a remote part of Azpeitia at midnight would have me enter to see the tiers of rude wooden seats in the Plaza even at that hour. The people in the gayly decked balconies looking down into it from all around are the chief part of the spectacle. These "fights" are worse in a way than the great ones in the cities, for the bulls are only poor oxen, who have no desire but to run away, and the maladroit assassins cannot touch a vital part, like the masters, but stab and stab, making an endless carnage.

The second of the baths was Cestona, an hour or more distant by coach; warm baths this time, sulphate of soda and chloride of soda. You are to take them for three weeks, and meantime you dine well in a fine large banquet-hall, and dance or hear concerts in a yet nobler ball-room and theatre. There are going to be, besides, halls for play (gambling), a park with gymnasium, velodrome, and skating-rink, for it is not nearly finished as yet—it was opened only last month. That is to say, the new and expensive Gran Hotel, which is to be a bit of Saratoga, was only just opened, but this is superposed upon a sober ancient establishment, with long arcade and dampish, shady avenue that recalls Saratoga too, after the way in which all mineral springs resemble one another. Many of the people had that cosmopolitan look that equalizes types, so that it was not always easy to pick out their nationality. The village, half a kilometre up the road, the hard, level Spanish road, as smooth as one of those in Central Park, is a satisfactory spot of picturesqueness. The guest at the hotel would be well at the end of his three weeks' cure before he had transferred to his sketch book all the aspects of its curious plaza and dwellings, its neat, rural look, its half-Alpine site, the odd little chapels in the pastures, the fertile cultivation that climbs high up the mountains, and the gray summits, bare and ploughed with glacial action, that frown above it.

The small seaside resorts fall pretty much under one head as to plan, like the towns on the Riviera. There is a little break in the vast cliffs, and in the bottom occurs a patch of the smoothest yellow sand, no sand at all being found elsewhere. Generally there is a small river, which shelters some sardine-fishers, and which has seen in earlier days the building of galleys and caravels. Each has two or three modern villas. Each has sent forth naval sons of note, whose statues often adorn their market-places. From Guetaria came Elcano, who first made the circuit of the globe, and from Motrico the gallant Churruca, who fell fighting Nelson at Trafalgar.

The short links of railway are extending and will be connected, so that before long the gallop of the *diligencia* along the coast-road may be a thing of the past. I set out by coach from Zarauz, between sixteen and seventeen miles westward of San Sebastian. Zarauz itself seemed to me one of the best of these bathing-stations. It may have 3,000 inhabitants. A castellated house, with end walls corbelled out high in the air and pierced with trefoils, is a unique feature of its main street. A yet pleasanter one is that by the sea, occupied by the Duke of Grenada, with fountain and garden and one of those characteristic Spanish round entrance-arches that have the arch-stones four or five feet long and a grand carved shield over the top. This nobleman is rich in old houses, for I saw another one of his at Azcoitia, a fortress sleeked down to modern uses, and the most remarkable of them all at Motrico, an astonishingly becarved and becolumned Renaissance palace, going quite to ruin. A regular feature of the old houses, large and small, is the great projection of their darksome eaves, which are held up by two or three tiers of handsomely carved brackets.

The beach is smooth and even, without so

much as a shell or a pebble. Upon it are a dozen bathing-machines and a few bright tents, under which nurse-maids watch the children. You look down upon it from a small pavilion in the Calle del Arenal, back of which are some houses striped red and yellow, like the flag of Spain—in colors that run—bearing such names as "Villa Elvira" and "Villa Maria Teresa." Queen Isabella II. was a frequenter of Zarauz, and its handful of better villas contain a society of the most considerable titles in Spain, at least four noble dukes among them. The humbler visitor stops at the inn in the plaza, which is noisy though picturesque, or finds a furnished room along the neat Calle del Arenal. Possibly the best are at the Casino, a mere effort at sociability, a meeting-place more than modest, though it has a duke for president of honor. My most pleasant recollection of it is not of its rickety piano, nor of its scanty library, composed of a few tattered translations from Miss Braddon, but of the circumstance that a serving-maid was sweeping down the halls and stairs with a broom made of large branches of fresh mint. This had no more poetic purpose than to dislodge the wicked flea—it is a pity the specific is not more widely known and used—but it leaves, even in memory, a grateful fragrance on the air.

You leave Zarauz, rounding a very bold headland; it is the same in leaving them all. Again the strong saline breeze salutes you, and the view of the far-jutting capes of the coast, hidden there within, and the limitless expanse of that vast Bay of Biscay which can be so cruel to ships and is now so amiable and blue. The road is a mere notch in the steep glacis of solid yet friable rock, or is held up by costly retaining walls. It is a dangerous road. Even the light tread of the goats, feeding hundreds of feet above, is always sending down a fusillade of loose fragments, and the booming along of the diligence may easily dislodge larger pieces. It has already an expensive record of landslides, which will make a railroad when it comes very welcome.

Guetaria is a dark figure in the cliffs, where it is impossible to make out at once which is mere splintered cliff, which ruined bastions, which tall houses, which the original, old church, that has been declared a public monument. The *alcalde*, the mayor, keeps the inn, named for Elcano, by Elcano's statue. Zumaya, five kilometres further on, has yet taller houses, grouped around a plain church of the usual time-stained yellow stone. The bathing at both is most primitive. Here we turn back from the sea a little; the route offers a most happy combination of coast and mountain scenery. We outwit the steeps by the easy grades known to the skilled engineer. We pass under the fortress-like sanctuary of Iciar, with the straw stacks of a fruitful harvest all about it; out upon the cornice road again, and then by long windings down at last to Deva.

Deva stands on a piece of alluvial level. A row of small *fondas* with a few plain country houses extends along its small river, which further back turns mills in many pleasant mountain towns and villages. The narrow-laned town, with dark eaves, is back of this line, around the fountain and around the church, which has a square tower, unbroken, up to the bells, except by a single carved string-course, and which has a nobly spacious lofty interior and a quaint treasure of rococo saints and begilding. I should have a better opinion of the inns, no doubt, were it not that the local fêtes were on once more. The food they furnished was good. It is not the custom to use butter in the region. The prices were from 5 to 7½ pesetas a day. These are the standard prices, and Spanish money, too, is at a large discount. The guests were mostly Madrid people. They were friendly, natural, easy to enter into conversation with, and a few of the young women, the señoritas, were gay, vivacious, and comely to look at. Some of them came down gotten up for the bull-fights as *manolas*, *i. e.*, with the traditional mantilla, fan, and bright rose or lemon-hued gown, and they took pretty children along with them to see the butchery. The bathing, as elsewhere, is primitive. People sit around and watch it socially, but it is a homely rite, purely hygienic; any display of feminine grace is at once cut off by the discreet bath-cloak. I saw here a wonderful carved and gilded salon in the house of the Marqués de Valmar, dating from Philip II.'s time, and I went on to Motrico, ladder-like Motrico, to see the house and statue of Churruca.

I cannot dwell upon Portugalete and Las Arenas, the Brighton and Coney Island of the very prosperous city of Bilbao, for I must save a mere word for Guernica. The reason people come to Guernica—besides that it is a pretty mountain village in itself, with some curious palaces, frescoed outside in the Italian fashion—is that it contains the Basque liberty-oak. Being here, I pushed on too to Pedernales, at the coast, to see a much-advertised new bathing establishment just opened, It is on a bit of rocky island reached by a foot-bridge. The hotel calls itself Chacharramendi—I give it expressly as a specimen of a Basque name. It is of a severe plainness, the price is five pesetas a day, the water is clear, and it is a good resource to have at hand if one stops a while at Guernica.

The Basque provinces of Spain used to have, until they lost them through being such incorrigible Carlists, many special privileges, called their *Fueros*. It was the custom of their chiefs to swear to these rights here under an oak, always a scion of the one under which the ceremony first took place. It is something like what the Charter Oak was at Hartford. Curiously enough, the new one here, now thirty-five years old, sprang into being at just about the time the Charter Oak blew down. The old tree did not die, however, it simply withered, and its phantom-like trunk still stands, looking on in mournful fashion at the honors done to its green young successor. There is a miniature temple hard by, and, more important yet, a fine, grave building, occupied by the Legislature of Biscay before it moved to Bilbao. The hall is oval, belted round with the portraits of the historic chiefs, and having an altar elevated at one end. The curious thing about the trees is that they are gentle, almost lady-like. You expected to see gnarled trees, rugged as the bulls of Veragua, but they are slender and graceful, an index of much amenity of climate. What is really stout and rugged is the old church. There is an electric light let into its wall just beside statues so rude they might almost have been fashioned by the Aztecs.

But I find the most interesting thing at Guernica its casino or club. It occupies the upper story of the Fonda de Comercio, and membership costs five francs entrance-fee and a franc a month. No rickety piano here, but a good one, a really good billiard-table, card-tables, good refreshments, ample space; one can be very comfortable. It is excessively Spanish, not a trace of cosmopolitanism. The ascetic Spanish character crops out especially in the library. Among the books, handsomely bound, most in evidence is Veuillot's 'Life of Christ.' Fancy a life of Christ ornamenting any club table elsewhere! But, moreover, it is a Carlist club, distinctly making the Carlist propaganda. The Liberal residents of the town do not belong. The table in the reading-room is spread solely with such ultra-monarchical, such strongly Bourbon papers as *El Vasco* of Bilbao, *El Centro* of Madrid, and with volumes of the "Popular Carlist Library," published at Barcelona, to further the cause. At one end of the long assembly-room hangs a gift, a very good oil portrait of the exiled Don Carlos, long resident at Venice. It bears the following inscription: "To the Traditionalist Club of my well-beloved Guernica—Carlos."

It is a fact well known and boasted of that young Don Jaime, son of the pretender, made a trip, in disguise, all through this part of Spain, just a year ago at this time. There can be little doubt that he put in an appearance at this stronghold and the scene of the *Fueros*. He is now twenty-five years old; there is some talk of making a match between him and the elder of the two (school-girl) Spanish princesses, and so ending the long fight. I have endeavored to draw out our obliging waiter about him. "He was here, of course?" I said. "No, but the president of the club went to meet him, afterwards, in the conference that was held at St. Jean de Luz, over the French frontier." "Have you seen him?" he asked me in turn. "I? no." "*Un guapísimo!*" he exclaimed ardently—that is, a regular beauty. WILLIAM HENRY BISHOP.

Correspondence.

THE "DRIVING" OF THE REPUBLICANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of to-day you say:

"It is susceptible of proof, too, that the most mischievous errors the Republican party has committed since the war have been those to which they were driven by the Democrats—by the Democratic desire and purpose to do something worse. This is especially true of the Sherman act of 1890. The Democrats wanted to pass an act for the free coinage of silver, and did pass it through the Senate. The Republicans passed the Sherman act as a lesser evil."

What do you mean by saying that the Republicans passed the act "as a lesser evil"? They were not obliged to pass anything. They had a majority in both houses and the Presidency. To say that under such circumstances they were "driven by the Democrats" to pass the Sherman act, or, indeed, do anything that they did not want, seems, with all respect to you, to be simply absurd.

The truth is, that as long as the Sherman act appeared to be beneficial, or, at any rate, innocuous, the Republicans admitted, or rather claimed, the responsibility for its passage. But when it precipitated the panic of 1893 something had to be done to shift that responsibility, and the discovery was accordingly made that the fault really lay with those dreadful Democrats, who (although in a minority) had compelled the good Republicans (who were in a majority) to pass the iniquitous act. When it is remembered that the House was controlled by the Republicans, and the Republicans by Tom Reed, that the Senate was Republican and the President a Republican, the statement that under these circumstances the Republicans "were driven by the

Democrats" to do anything whatever, is, to say the least, rather remarkable.

As soon as the Sherman act appeared to be injurious it was, for the first time, disowned by John Sherman, with characteristic promptness. His example has since been followed by his party.—Respectfully yours,

DANIEL HOLSMAN.

PHILADELPHIA, October 3, 1895.

[Our contention was with Mr. Belmont, who wished to acquit the Democrats of all blame. Our correspondent merely amplifies the sentence which followed immediately the passage he quotes, and which read as follows: "It is true that the Republican party was then in power, and was chargeable with the mischievous consequences of that act."—ED. NATION.]

MEDICAL STUDENTS AND THE A. B. COURSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I feel obliged to express dissent from the statements made under the signature of W. H. Johnson in your issue of October 3. To determine the proper method of medical education is a problem of the highest difficulty and importance. An experience of thirty years in medical teaching, much of which was passed at one of the most numerously attended colleges in this country, has given me a knowledge of the motives and purposes of medical students. If any persons are led into medical study by any sort of curiosity, they must be in a very small minority. The moral character of medical students and graduates is not what it should be, but this is due to the influence of the period of life and to the temptations and opportunities which a large city affords. My acquaintanceship with men and women students has been intimate and extended, and I have never seen any evidence that prurient desires were prominent motives with them. The sights of the dissecting-room, operating-table, and obstetric clinic are not likely to minister to the sexual feelings of men of sound mind. Medical students, as a rule, dissect with zeal, but it is either because they realize the value of the knowledge thus acquired or are attracted by that most absorbing topic, the anatomy of the human frame. If I should see in any pupil a disposition to exaltation of sexual feeling in viewing the macerated and emaciated bodies on the dissecting-tables, I should be inclined to suspect a tendency to the form of insanity that is described in the works on sexual perversion.

Men and women study medicine as a means of livelihood. They are unfortunately not always actuated by the honest desire to obtain proper information, and some may be satisfied to take a diploma secured by fraud; but the fault in these respects rests with the college faculties, many of which in this country are little better than diploma mills, following the maxim once expressed by a medical professor: "Let the bars down low to let the boys in, and lower to let them out."

I feel sure that the study of medicine should be preceded by an education leading to a degree in arts. It is interesting to note that the extension of the course of medical study to four years has met with much more general acceptance than increase of the entrance requirements. Whatever may have been the controlling influence in this choice, we may be sure that failure to advance the standard for entrance to medical study has been largely determined by the cash consideration.

Yours, HENRY LEFFMANN.

715 WALNUT STREET, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

THE NAMING OF *PUNCH*.

MONSIEUR L'EDITEUR: Je viens de lire, dans la *Nation* du 4 juillet dernier, un très bienveillant article sur mon livre 'La Peinture Anglaise Contemporaine,' et je tiens, bien qu'un peu tard, à vous en exprimer tous mes remerciements.

Me permettrez-vous de répondre aussi un mot à l'une des reflexions de votre rédacteur. À la fin de l'article, il s'exprime ainsi:

"As, however, no Frenchman, however well informed, could write of anything English without at least one amusing blunder, we must drag forth from the obscurity of Appendix V the following passage, which nobly vindicates its author's right to the Gallic name: 'Foster donna des dessins au *Punch*, édité par M. Lemon (citron) d'où peut-être le nom bizarre de ce journal satirique."

Or il m'est impossible d'assumer la paternité de cette anecdote, ou de revendiquer l'honneur de ce calembour. C'est chez un auteur anglais que je l'ai trouvé, et si vous feuilletez 'The Art Annual for 1890,' intitulé "Birket Foster—his Life and Work," by Marcus B. Huish (Virtue & Co.), vous trouverez, page 6, ces mots:

"Foster well remembers the day when Landells came into the engraver's room, and said: 'Well, boys, we've fixed on the title; we're going to call it *Punch*,' an appellation which, when he had left, was unanimously voted a stupid one." Et en note: "The name came about from a pun upon Mark Lemon, the first editor's name, some one having suggested that *Punch* must be good with so much lemon."

Ainsi, Monsieur l'Editeur, ce passage qui, selon votre journal, "nobly vindicates its author's right to the Gallic name," se trouve être d'un anglais. La seule différence entre le texte anglais et le mien est que j'ai ajouté un "*peut-être*," ne croyant moi-même que faiblement à cette extraordinaire origine du nom du *Punch*.

Veuillez agréer, avec tous mes remerciements, l'expression de mes sentiments les plus distingués. ROBERT DE LA SIZERANNE.

TAIN, DRÔME, FRANCE, le 25 Septembre.

Notes.

ADDITIONAL announcements from the Messrs. Putnam are: 'The Ballads of the Nations,' in eight volumes, illustrated; "Stories of the Ages," a series beginning with Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford'; 'Tales of the Fjeld,' from Asbjörnsen, by Sir G. Dasent; 'Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages,' by George Haven Putnam; 'Russian Portraits,' by Viscount Melchior de Vogüé; 'Egyptian Decorative Art,' lectures by Prof. W. M. Flinders-Petrie; 'Israel among the Nations,' by Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu; 'The Proverbial Philosophy of Confucius,' selected by Foster H. Jenings; 'Old Diary Leaves,' the true story of the Theosophical Society, by Henry Steele Olcott; 'The Gold-Diggings of Cape Horn,' by John R. Spears; 'Fundamental Concepts of Economics,' by H. Dunning Macleod; and 'The British Barbarians: A Hill-Top Story,' by Grant Allen.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Browning Studies,' papers read before the Browning Society in London.

The autobiography of Mary Anderson Navarro will be issued in February by the Harpers.

Charles Scribner's Sons have nearly ready Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's new child's story, 'Two Little Pilgrims' Progress.' We are also to have from them the following publications: 'The Art of Living,' by Judge Robert Grant, with 135 illustrations by Gibson and others; 'The Poor of Great Cities,' papers by Walter Besant, Jacob A. Riis, and others; 'Little Rivers,' "essays in profitable idleness," by the Rev. Dr. Henry Van Dyke; 'Reflections and Comments, 1865–1895,' by Edwin L. Godkin; 'Cruising among the Caribbees,' by the Rev. Dr. Charles Augustus Stoddard; 'Echoes from the Sabine Farm,' by Eugene Field and Roswell Martin Field, illustrated by E. H. Garrett; 'The Memoirs of Constant,' Napoleon's first valet-de-chambre; Dr. Ricci's 'Antonio Allegri da Coreggio: His Life, his Friends, and his Times,' abundantly illustrated; and a 'Cyclopædia of Architecture in Italy, Greece, and the Levant,' edited by W. P. P. Longfellow, and freely illustrated.

The Grolier Club has in hand the first complete collective edition of the poems of Dr. John Donne, to which Prof. Charles Eliot Norton will contribute a preface.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will soon bring out 'British and European Butterflies and Moths,' with thirty full-page color plates.

Duprat & Co. are preparing a fourth number of their 'Book-Lovers' Almanac,' with many and varied illustrations.

Mr. Stedman's 'A Victorian Anthology' and a volume of poems for children by Edith M. Thomas are in course of publication by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Prof. Morris H. Morgan of Harvard has edited for Ginn & Co. 'Eight Orations of Lysias.'

'Europe in Africa in the Nineteenth Century,' by Mrs. Latimer, will bear the imprint of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

A timely publication is 'Principles and Practice of Finance,' by Edward Carroll, jr. (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The statement of principles is intended to serve merely as an introduction to the statement of facts which makes up the bulk of the book, and may be disregarded by those who are familiar with economic doctrine. But the details of practical finance are far less accessible, and are given here with much evidence of painstaking on the part of the author. He takes up the money of the United States, the national and State banks, savings banks, trust companies, the exchanges, etc., and conducts the reader through the complicated affairs of all kinds of financial establishments with intelligent guidance. In fact, the book answers the purpose of a cyclopædia of all ordinary financial transactions, and as it is furnished with tables, a glossary, and an index, it may be recommended to those who desire to understand how monetary affairs are carried on.

'The Problem of the Aged Poor,' by Geoffrey Drage (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan), is an endeavor to place before the general reader in a condensed form the results of the investigations of the Royal Commission on the Aged Poor, as well as the substance of Mr. Charles Booth's inquiries, and the chief features of the Poor Law and Old Age Pension systems adopted in Germany and Denmark. The Royal Commission succeeded remarkably well in securing a large number of contradictory opinions concerning the proper treatment of paupers, but as some interesting practical information was also ob-

tained, its reports perhaps deserve exploration. It is convenient, also, to have Mr. Booth's work and the European systems treated in one volume. Otherwise, Mr. Drage's labors do not appear to us to be of any special merit, and the questions raised in England have become so complicated in their ramifications that no definite conclusions are likely to be reached, although the weight of evidence appears to be in favor of the limitation of almsgiving as being the chief cause of pauperism.

Mr. Jacob M. Moses of the Baltimore bar has published (through King Brothers of that city) a prize thesis entitled 'The Law Applicable to Strikes.' He discusses the law as it was and is concerning conspiracy and its modern developments in "boycotting" and "picketing"; the strike as affecting common carriers; and the legal remedies, action, injunction, and punishment for contempt of court. The essay is of interest chiefly to the legal profession, by whose members it may be found convenient for reference. The great strike at Chicago last year, and the action of the United States courts arising from it, naturally occupy a conspicuous place in the author's summary.

The task of tracing in the files of English and Scottish reviews the changes in the attitude of the English mind towards German literature during the last hundred years is interesting but laborious. A résumé, such as is found in Wilhelm Streuli's 'Thomas Carlyle als Vermittler deutscher Litteratur und deutschen Geister' (Zürich: Schulthess), will therefore be not unwelcome to many. The greater portion of the little work is devoted to the subject indicated by its title, and, though somewhat popular in its treatment of the theme, the book may prove of interest even to special students as a convenient summary of Carlyle's relations to the literature and authors of Germany, and of his literary mission-work at home.

One of the best of the many books called forth by the recent celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Franco-German war is 'Der Krieg gegen Frankreich und die Einigung Deutschlands' (Berlin: Asher), by Dr. Theodor Lindner, Professor of History in the University of Halle, who undertook the by no means easy task at the solicitation of the Prussian Minister of Public Instruction, and has performed it in a most admirable manner. It is written in an attractive style, and shows a fine sense of proportion in the narration of events and excellent judgment in the characterization of the principal personages. The causes of the war are clearly and concisely stated; the course of the campaign and of the several battles, the daily life of the soldier in camp, the political results of the appeal to arms are summarily but intelligibly described. The volume is neatly printed and richly illustrated, containing about one hundred and fifty engravings, of which twenty are full-page woodcuts. The maps and plans of battle-fields and of the theatre of the war in general are remarkably distinct, being free from the careless and excessive coloring and hatching which often obscure the lines of operation in such drawings. The moderate price of four marks ($1.00) for the elegantly bound volume ought to secure for it a wide circulation. The lack of an index greatly impairs its value.

The recently published report of the city savings-bank (Städtische Sparkasse) of Berlin for the year ending April 1, 1895, is a complete refutation of the assertion made by socialistic orators in Germany that the working classes are so poorly paid that they are forced to live from hand to mouth, and find it impossible to lay aside any portion of their wages. The amount on deposit at the end of the above mentioned period was 162,842,028 marks, being 11,566,766 marks more than on March 31, 1894; and nearly all these millions are the savings of laborers, men and women. The number of payments into the bank during the year was 526,295, of which 178,960 were in sums from 1 to 21 marks, and 162,212 in sums from 21 to 61 marks. The increase of the depositors, as shown by the account-books, was from 484,363 in 1894 to 509,732 in 1895. Of these account-books 159,732 contain a record of credit ranging from 1 to 61 marks, 88,527 from 61 to 151 marks, and 75,685 from 151 to 301 marks, thus proving that the depositors are mostly poor people. For the purpose of facilitating deposits and thus promoting thrift, the magistracy has established receiving-offices in all parts of the city; at present there are 76. The cash capital of the savings bank is 176,430,978 marks, *i. e.*, 13,588,950 in excess of the deposits. Of the profits 1,112,306 have been thus far expended for wo ks of public utility. These statistics suffice to show what demagogical nonsense American protectionists indulge in when they talk about the "pauper labor of Europe" and the necessity of an international barrier of high tariffs against this sort of competition.

A year ago we published some of the results of the work of the Oxford and Cambridge School Examination Board for the year 1894, calling attention to the evidence borne by them as to the conservatism of secondary education in Great Britain in respect to the teaching of the natural sciences. The tables for the present year show a still stronger preference for classical studies, for, though the number of candidates for certificates has increased by two hundred, those presenting the natural sciences are less in proportion than in the previous year. Two-thirds present Latin and more than a half Greek, but only one in eleven a branch of natural science. The subjects having the highest number of examinees were elementary mathematics, Scripture knowledge, history, Latin, French, and Greek. Eighty-two boys' and fifty girls' schools were represented.

It will interest New Englanders to learn that, in examining the records of Colchester Grammar School, Mr. Round has found an entry in the seventeenth century of a boy named Onge, who is described as having been born in New England. Mr. Round says that some of the emigrants returned to Colchester from New England, and then sent their sons to the grammar school. The results of Mr. Round's investigations will appear in the Proceedings of the Essex Archæological Society.

There is in the Ipswich (Eng.) Museum a collection of manuscripts relating to the history of the County of Suffolk that cannot but be of interest to historical students both in America and in England. It consists of about two dozen large volumes of documents, bound up according to the hundreds of the county to which they relate. They were brought together by Mr. William Stevenson Fitch, a resident of Ipswich, who died about twenty five or thirty years ago, when the collection was purchased by the Ipswich Museum. The thoroughness with which Mr. Fitch collected may be realized from the fact that among his papers are pages torn out of parish registers. He intended to write a history of Suffolk; and, in addition to documents, he collected a large number of prints relating to the county. These are now the property of the Suffolk Archæological Society. It is fortunate for historical students that Fitch's collection of MSS. is in the charge of so enthusiastic an antiquary as is the respected secretary and curator of the Ipswich Museum, who is delighted to find any one interested in the history of Suffolk.

The retirement of General Schofield from the head of the army by virtue of statutory age limit calls attention to his fellow-survivors of the civil war. Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has accordingly issued, in his imperial-panel series of photographic portraits of notable contemporaries, one of that well-known fighter, engineer, and military critic, Gen. William F. Smith ("Baldy" Smith), now in his seventy-second year.

We record with regret the sudden death on Friday, October 4, of Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen, Professor of German and German Literature at Columbia College, and for many years a contributor to the *Nation*. Prof. Boyesen was a native of Norway, born September 23, 1848. A graduate of the University of Norway after studies at Leipzig, he came directly to this country in 1868, began life as a Scandinavian journalist in Chicago, passing thence in 1874 to the chair of German at Cornell and in 1880 to Columbia. He was a prolific writer of novels and short stories, essays on Scandinavian literature, etc. His temperament was ardent and his personal attachments strong. He will be much missed.

—The first number of the new quarterly *American Historical Review* (Macmillan) bespeaks no allowance and needs none. The scheme has been well thought out, the form and typography are generous and tasteful, and the leading articles are all by writers and scholars of wide reputation. The editorial salutatory has been intrusted to Prof. Wm. M. Sloane, whose theme is "History and Democracy," and who argues hopefully from the popularity of histories in this country and the line of eminent American historians of the past hundred years against the notion that democracy is unfavorable to a high order of productiveness in this branch of belles-lettres, or that a temporary exhaustion is manifest. Prof. Moses Coit Tyler tersely and effectively exhibits the numerical, intellectual, and social weight and legal justification of the Loyalists of our Revolution, by way of deprecating the treatment to which they have hitherto been subjected. Mr. Henry C. Lea contributes an inedited bull of Sixtus IV. from the Vatican archives for its bearing on the alleged hesitancy of that Pope to permit Ferdinand and Isabella to found the Spanish Inquisition. Mr. Henry Adams, exposing a trivial error in his own 'History of the First Administration of Madison,' spins, with the aid of new documents from the French Archives—which he translates—an engaging tale of the career of the adventurer calling himself in this country "Count Edward de Crillon." Prof. Frederick J. Turner begins a series of papers of obvious value and authority on a subject of which he is easily master, "Western State-making in the Revolutionary Era." This is the main feast. The "Documents" department is worthily begun with letters of real importance in American history. The reviews are very numerous and by a great variety of hands, both native and American by adoption (as in the case of Profs. Ashley and Goldwin Smith). With one exception they are all signed, and an interesting test of the *Review's* integrity is furnished by Dr. Levermore's critique of the latest volume of Prof. McMaster, one of the editorial board. It leaves nothing to be desired in the way of frankness without bias.

Notes and News, geographically classified, round out the number, which gives promise that the *Review* will fully meet the expectations of its founders and the cultivated public.

—In concluding, in the October *Harper's*, his account of the disorganized military bands that pass muster as governments in Tegucigalpa, the capital of Honduras, Richard Harding Davis expresses his conviction that the Central American citizen is no more fit for a republican form of government than he is for an arctic expedition. As long as he is left to his own devices, no development need be expected in the natural resources of his fertile country, which has a soil rich enough to supply the world with coffee, and waits only for "an honest effort" to make it the highway of traffic from every portion of the globe. But whether the duties of a protectorate are undertaken by the United States or by another Power is, in Mr. Davis's opinion, a matter of no consequence, "so long as it leaves the Nicaragua Canal in our hands." This indifference to the cardinal principle that the European nations shall keep their hands off this hemisphere is calculated to raise a hue and cry among readers whose views are represented, in the same magazine, by Capt. Mahan's article on "The Future in relation to American Naval Power." Capt. Mahan braces himself firmly against his natural shelter, the Monroe Doctrine, and presents a sweeping front of argument in favor of the development of a navy as a political factor which, in the last analysis, is "more often deterrent than irritant." What the effect of highly increased efficiency and extension in this branch of military power will be upon the temper of the American people, and the part they may play in the international political drama which seems to Capt. Mahan to be of increasing complexity, must largely depend, at any time, upon whether they are led by Jingo politicians or by statesmen. Upon the risks we run in the former contingency it is not Capt. Mahan's cue to enlarge, although they are shown clearly enough in the history which he is an adept at bringing to bear in support of his own position. His article is an instance of special pleading of the most instructive type.

—The political agitator will find nothing to his comfort in "Josiah Flynt's" "How Men Become Tramps," which is an article of the month in the *Century* that likewise calls for serious consideration. Fluctuations in the labor market do not, according to Mr. Flynt, make tramps. Misguided and misapplied charity has, as a matter of fact, more to do with their existence than depression in trade has. But it is to the promiscuous herding of boys with criminals in jails, together with the love of drink and the short-sighted thrusting of lads into evil company in reform-schools, that the incessant recruiting of vagrants is due. Nearly all tramps have, during some part of their lives, been charges of the State in its reformatories, and it is a noteworthy fact that nothing "will draw a crowd of reform-school boys together quicker, and keep them quieter, than a conversation about criminals and tramps." Mr. Flynt makes the excellent practical proposition that this interest shall be taken advantage of by the teachers in reformatories, for the purpose of substituting their own version of the probable success and rewards of crime for that of the criminal propagandist. Seen in its true light, with its attendant dangers and punishments, a life of vagabondage ought certainly to diminish in attraction to the imagination of youths of the unfortunate class doomed by present reform-school methods to almost inevitable corruption at the hands of older or more sophisticated inmates. As remote as possible in character from this pressing theme is the attractive article, "A Cruise on the Norfolk Broads," which presents, by word and picture alike, an engaging succession of scenes in the pretty and curious district which forms the latest annexation to the tourist's playground in England. Mr. Pennell is the artist to whom thanks are due for the pictures, while the writer whose yachting trip on the Bure, by Wroxham Broad, to Yarmouth, has yielded such pleasant literary result is Anna Bowman Dodd.

—To contributors' travels is also due a large proportion of the interest of the current *Atlantic*. Alvan F. Sanborn, whose disposition is evidently his fortune as a tourist, describes how the Wordsworth country may be seen, studied, and loved, at the modest expenditure, in sterling coin, of two shillings a day. Time is, of course, the commodity of which it is necessary to be prodigal in order to accomplish this joint result. As Mr. Sanborn is a law unto himself in composing a paper, as well as in exploring the Lake District, the event is as individual and as unconventionally successful in the one case as in the other. From the starting-point that his favorite Orientals will and can assimilate only such European ideas as are sympathetic to the genius of their own civilization, Lafcadio Hearn proceeds, as usual, to turn the tables of criticism to their advantage. How the Westerner is tied and debilitated by his complicated impedimenta, and how the national scale of food, clothing, and possessions leaves the Japanese free to move about at will, always bathed, combed, and civilized, notwithstanding the lightness of his pack, is shown with all the writer's charm of style. The smallness of the buildings, domestic, industrial, and public, and the impermanency of these, and even of natural features, in this "land of impermanence," give the clue to the mobility of the population. Whatever reservations a reader may make in regard to Japanese ideals of devotion, he will have none concerning their manners and taste, as artistically painted in this article. Elizabeth Stuart Phelps concludes here her novel, "A Singular Life," and Charles Egbert Craddock carries on the serial begun last month.

—In *Scribner's* the stranger is pleasantly introduced within the gates at Vailima by Lloyd Osbourne, who, without adding materially to the impressions already received of Stevenson's personality, describes the picturesque phases of his patriarchal mode of life at Samoa, and the easy hospitality dispensed by him there. In her admirable short story, "The Lamp of Psyche," Miss Edith Wharton, while adroitly avoiding the air of a homily, has found a subtle and clever touchstone of worth in the debatable case of the expatriated American. But the centre of attraction of the number will undoubtedly be Mr. G. W. Smalley's sketch of Huxley, written with a full understanding of the biographical value of details. That Huxley loved his cats as well as his friends, that he dressed well and was unabashed in the presence of royalty, are facts to which each will apply his own measure of value. That he was a genial and popular host, and that as a talker he "ranked with the best," are points of human interest that cannot come amiss to a generation of readers grateful for his inestimable services in science and in religious controversy. An illustrated account of the University of Chicago winds up with the irreconcilable propositions that "the subjects taught will increase without number, and the most catholic means of estimation or valuation will be employed," but that "our new student will be contemptuous of mere culture, of anything that derives its respect from the past alone." Soothsaying to a similar effect has been heard elsewhere; hardly, however, in interpretation of a university and its aims.

—Popular suffrage, as applied to the awarding of prizes for works of art, has seldom had a more astonishing result than recently in Venice. The public is apt to be puzzled by the awards of artists and regularly constituted juries, and to consider that the higher qualities of art are ignored in favor of purely technical merits incomprehensible to the layman. The jury of this year's Venetian International Exposition, composed of W. M. Rossetti, President, Prof. Richard Muther, Robert de la Sizeranne (author of 'La Peinture Anglaise Contemporaine'), and Prof. Adolfo Venturi, unanimously awarded the capital prize of $2,000 to "La figlia di Jorio," by Michetti, an unusually serious work by that exceedingly clever painter, and voted a number of minor prizes to a long list of artists, among whom are to be found such names as Liebermann, Whistler, and Boldini. A special prize of $1,000 for a Venetian painter only, was awarded to "Morocomio," by Silvio Rotta, a study of a madhouse scene in the vein of Jean Béraud. There was, however, a "popular prize" of $200, and this was voted by the public to a picture which the jury had entirely ignored. G. Grosso, for his "Il Supremo Convegno," received 547 votes as against only 185 for Michetti and 97 for Rotta. That the picture so selected by popular approval should be wretchedly drawn, and that its painting should be of the flashy and obvious kind, was, perhaps, to have been expected. What is surprising is, that its subject and treatment are of the most sensationally erotic order. In a great hall stands the coffin of a young man with disordered pall and overturned candles, and, riding astride or crawling upon it, and grinning in the face of the corpse, are four or five naked women. In the background two or three other women, partially draped, are entering the door. Were the technical merits of such a performance as great as they appear to be slender, its encouragement by the award of a prize would be little less than a calamity. That the prize should have been awarded by popular vote speaks ill for the morals and worse for the taste of modern Italy.

—Besides the other prizes at this Exposition, the President of the jury offered a small prize of $80 for the encouragement of a young artist, under thirty, who should have received no other recompense; this prize to be awarded by the President himself without the participation of his colleagues. It fell to a young Venetian, Vettore Antonio Cargnel, born in 1870, for his first work, entitled, "Averte Faciem Tuam a Peccatis Meis." One would be glad to see a reproduction of the picture which Mr. Rossetti has so honored. It is safe to assume that it is not of the same kind as Signor Grosso's.

—In the autumn of 1893, application was made for admission as matriculated students to the University of Göttingen by three young ladies, two of whom were American and one

English. The former were graduates of an American college, and the latter had passed her examination in mathematics at Girton College in Cambridge, England. All three wished to study mathematics and physics. Serious objections from various sources were urged against the granting of this request; fortunately, however, it was favored by the professors directly concerned, who laid scientific papers written by the applicants before the Minister of Public Instruction, and finally succeeded in obtaining permission for them to attend lectures as "Hospitanten," or guestwise, but they were not recognized as candidates for degrees. In the summer semester of 1894 there were twelve, in the winter semester of 1894-95 fifteen, and in the summer semester of 1895, just closed, twenty ladies regularly attending the lectures; of these twenty, one also passed her examination and received the doctor's degree. This is the first instance of the kind in the annals of the University of Göttingen; for although Dorothea Schlözer passed a brilliant examination on September 17, 1787, in the seventeenth year of her age, and was declared by the faculty to be eminently worthy of a doctorate, she was not publicly "promoted" or graduated, and no diploma was conferred upon her. Women who wish to be admitted to an examination for a degree in the University of Göttingen, must now have gone through a *triennium academicum*, or three years' course of study, either in a German university or in one of equal rank; the last semester must, in all cases, have been passed at a German university. Each one must also hand in a dissertation of scientific value, and sustain a satisfactory oral examination in her chief department and in two secondary departments of study. The medical faculty still refuses to admit women either as students or hearers.

SIR JAMES FITZJAMES STEPHEN.

The Life of Sir James Fitzjames Stephen, Bart., K.C.S.I., a Judge of the High Court of Justice. By his brother, Leslie Stephen. With two portraits London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

Fitzjames Stephen was an interesting personage, and we have here a candid, readable, excellent piece of biography, well proportioned, moderately stated, by his brother, a master in that art. "I have wished," he says, "to describe the man rather than to give any history of what he did." He does not undertake to estimate "the value of his performances"; and so far as he says anything of that sort, it "must be taken as mainly a judgment at second hand." Doubtless the inability of one who is not a lawyer to pass judgment upon the professional work to which Fitzjames Stephen's life was devoted, is, as his brother truly says, a serious defect in a biographer. All the more is this true in the case of one whose work was of a sort so trenchant, so difficult to estimate justly, so mixed in its character, so widely beneficial in some parts and some aspects of it, so crude and so rash in others.

But, taking the book for just what it purports to be, it accomplishes its purpose well. It does not overpraise the man; it gives to the reader the clues that explain his character, his remarkable powers, his marked limitations and defects, his deferred success. The principal criticism that we find ourselves making is that the biographer has kept himself under too severe a restraint, so that the book lacks in warmth and cordiality of appreciation. One can well understand and respect the motives which led to this reserve. But why are we allowed so few of Stephen's letters—almost none? These might well have come in to give us a glimpse now and then into the warmer and more intimate places of Stephen's heart and life. What matter we do have of this sort makes us hungry for more. And we are disposed to think that mere justice to the character of so prominent and remarkable a man required this sort of supplement to the biographer's work as we have it now. The writer has offered some reasons for this sort of omission, but they hardly justify the extent of it; the reader could better have spared some of the abstracts and discussions of Stephen's books and opinions.

A very interesting account is given of the ancestry and family connections of the Stephens. They are traced to Scotland in the person of a James Stephen, a farmer of Aberdeenshire, early in the last century. His son James studied law at Aberdeen, went into mercantile life, was imprisoned for debt, argued his own case on habeas corpus before Lord Mansfield, wrote pamphlets against imprisonment for debt, and died poor—a man of powerful physique and energetic character. His son James studied law at Aberdeen, was a reporter for the London *Morning Post*, and afterwards was called to the bar and went to the West Indies. He became greatly interested with Wilberforce and Zachary Macaulay in the anti-slavery movement, and married as his second wife a sister of Wilberforce, "a rather eccentric, but very vigorous woman," who "made her stepchildren read Butler's 'Analogy' before they were seven." This James Stephen became a member of Parliament and a Master in Chancery. Of his six children, all by his first wife, the lawyers will be glad to know that one was Henry John Stephen, the author of that admirable and scholarly book, 'Stephen on Pleading.' "I remember him," says the biographer, "as a gentle and courteous old man, very shy, and, in his later years, never leaving his house, and amusing himself with speculating upon music and the prophecies." A sister of this "Serjeant Stephen" married a Dicey and became the mother of Edward Dicey and of Albert Venn Dicey, the distinguished Oxford professor. It was a brother who became the father of Fitzjames and Leslie, viz.: James Stephen, born in 1789, of Trinity College, Cambridge, who was called to the bar in 1811, and afterwards, retiring from practice, became counsel to the Colonial Office and to the Board of Trade in 1825, and held a place in the Colonial Office for twenty two years. In 1834 he became Assistant Under-Secretary of State. Later he was made a Privy Councillor and K.C.B.; and still later, in 1849, Regius Professor of Modern History at Cambridge.

This Sir James Stephen, already having an inherited connection with the rigid evangelicals known as "the Clapham Sect," married a daughter of the Rev. John Venn of Clapham and thus became very closely associated with them. Of his mother the biographer draws an attractive picture. She seems to have been a handsome woman, "of unbroken health," serene, cheerful, whose "sound common sense . . . was her predominant faculty; and, though her religious sentiments were very strong and deep, she was so far from fanatical that she accepted with perfect calmness the deviations of her children from the old orthodox faith." Of his father the writer speaks as "a man of exquisitely sensitive nature—a man, as my mother warned his children, 'without a skin.'" A learned and able man, he was devoutly religious, and, upon the whole, his piety conformed to that of the narrow school already referred to.

Leslie Stephen's account of the delicate shades of his father's and the family's religious side is very neat, and it throws light on the qualities of Fitzjames.

"Certain learned dons discovered on his appointment to the professorship of history that he was a 'Cerinthian.' I do not pretend to guess at their meaning. Anyhow, he had avowed, in an 'epilogue' to his Essays, certain doubts as to the meaning of eternal damnation—a doctrine which at that time enjoyed considerable popularity. The explanation was in part simple. 'It is laid to my charge,' he said, 'that I am a Latitudinarian I have never met with a single man who, like myself, had passed a long series of years in a free intercourse with every class of society who was not more or less what is called a Latitudinarian.' In fact, he had discovered that Clapham was not the world, and that the conditions of salvation could hardly include residence on the sacred Common. . . . Our household must thus be regarded as stamped with the true evangelical characteristics—and yet with a difference. The line between saints and sinners or the Church and the world was not so deeply drawn as in some cases. We felt, in a vague way, that we were, somehow, not quite as other people, and yet I do not think that we could be called Pharisees. My father felt it a point of honor to adhere to the ways of his youth. Like Jonadab, the son of Rechab, as my brother observes, he would drink no wine for the sake of his father's commandments (which, indeed, is scarcely a felicitous application after what I have just said). [Namely, that 'he spoke with horror of his father's belief in the virtues of port wine.'] He wore the uniform of the old army, though he had ceased to bear unquestioning allegiance. We never went to plays or balls; but neither were we taught to regard such recreations as proofs of the corruption of man. My father most carefully told us that there was nothing intrinsically wrong in such things, though he felt strongly about certain abuses of them. At most, in his favorite phrase, they were 'not convenient.' We no more condemned people who frequented them than we blamed people in Hindostan for riding elephants. A theatre was as remote from us as an elephant. And therefore we grew up without acquiring or condemning such tastes. They had neither the charm of early association nor the attraction of forbidden fruit. To outsiders the household must have been pervaded by an air of gravity, if not of austerity. But we did not feel it, for it became the law of our natures, not a law imposed by eternal sanctions. We certainly had a full allowance of sermons and church services; but we never, I think, felt them to be forced upon us. They were a part, and not an unwelcome part, of the order of nature. In another respect we differed from some families of the same creed. My father's fine taste and his sensitive nature made him tremblingly alive to one risk. He shrank from giving us any inducement to lay bare our own religious emotions. To him and to our mother the needless revelation of the deeper feelings seemed to be a kind of spiritual indelicacy. To encourage children to use the conventional phrases could only stimulate to unreality or actual hypocrisy. He recognized, indeed, the duty of impressing upon us his own convictions, but he spoke only when speaking was a duty. He read prayers daily in his family, and used to expound a few verses of the Bible with characteristic unction. . . . 'Did you ever know your father to do a thing because it was pleasant?' was a question put to my brother, when he was a small boy, by his mother. She has apparently recorded it for the sake of the childish answer: 'Yes, once—when he married you.' But we were always conscious of the force of the tacit appeal."

James Fitzjames Stephen was born in London March 3, 1829. He seems to have been a precocious and odious sort of child. His mother kept a diary, from which the editor makes judiciously condensed statements, and they illustrate the man:

"The first conflict with authority took place on June 28, 1831, when he resolutely declared that he would not say the 'Busy Bee.' This event became famous in the nursery, for in

September, 1834, he has to express contrition for having in play used the words 'By the Busy Bee' as an infantile equivalent to an oath. One difficulty was that he declined to repeat what was put into his mouth, or to take first principles in ethics for granted. When his mother read a text to him (May, 1832), he retorts, 'Then I will not be like a little child; I do not want to go to heaven; I would rather stay on earth' He declines (in 1834) to join in a hymn which expresses a desire to die and be with God. Even good people, he says, may prefer to stay in this world. 'I don't want to be as good and wise as Tom Macaulay' is a phrase of 1832, showing that even appeals to concrete ideals of the most undeniable excellence fail to overpower him. He gradually developed a theory which became characteristic, and which he obstinately upheld when driven into a logical corner. A stubborn conflict arose in 1833, when his mother was forced to put him in solitary confinement during the family tea-time. She overhears a long soliloquy in which he admits his error, contrasts his position with that of the happy who are perhaps even now having toast and sugar, and compares his position to the 'last night of Pharaoh.' 'What a barbarian I am to myself!' he exclaims, and resolves that this shall be his last outbreak On being set at liberty, he says that he was naughty on purpose, and not only submits but requests to be punished. For a short time he applies spontaneously for punishments, though he does not always submit when the request is granted But this is a concession under difficulties. His general position is that by punishing him his mother only 'procures him to be much more naughty,' and he declines as resolutely as Jeremy Bentham to admit that naughtiness in itself involves unhappiness, or that the happiness of naughtiness should not be taken into account. He frequently urges that it is pleasanter while it lasts to give way to temper, and that the discomfort only comes afterwards. It follows logically, as he argues in 1835, that if a man could be naughty all his life he would be quite happy. Some time later (1838) he is still arguing the point, having now reached the conclusion to which the Emperor Constantine gave a practical application. The desirable thing would be to be naughty all your life, and to repent just at the end."

He was slow at his books, thoughtful, unsociable, "inclined to be indolent." At school at the age of seven or eight, "as a means of attaining holiness," he meditated on hell.

"He imagined the world transformed into a globe of iron, white hot, with a place in the middle made to fit him so closely that he could not even wink. The globe was split like an orange; he was thrust by an angel into this place, immortal, unconsumable, and capable of infinite suffering; and then the two halves were closed, and he left in hideous isolation to suffer eternal torments. I guess from my own experience that other children have had similar fancies. He adds, however, a characteristic remark: 'It seemed to me then, as it seems now, that no stronger motive, no motive anything like so strong, can be applied to actuate any human creature toward any line of conduct. To compare the love of God or anything else is to my mind simply childish.' He refers to Mill's famous passage about going to hell rather than worship a bad God, and asks what Mill would say after an experience of a quarter of an hour."

In due time, in 1842, he went to Eton.

"He was thoughtful beyond his years, although not conspicuously forward in his school studies. He was already inclined to consider games as childish. He looked down upon his companions and the school life generally as silly and frivolous. The boys resented his contempt of their ways; and his want of sociability and rather heavy exterior at the time made him a natural butt for schoolboy wit. He was, he said, bullied and tormented till, towards the end of his time, he plucked up spirit to resist. . . . 'I was, on the whole,' he says, 'very unhappy at Eton, and I deserved it; for I was shy, timid, and I must own cowardly. I was like a sensible grown-up woman among a crowd of rough boys.' After speaking of his early submission to tyranny, he adds: 'I still think with shame and self-contempt of my boyish weakness, which, however, did not continue in later years. The process taught me for life the lesson that to be weak is to be wretched, that the state of nature is a state of war, and *Væ Victis* the great law of Nature.'"

Afterwards he spent two years at King's College in London and was happy. Here he made the acquaintance of Maurice, then a professor there. In 1847 he entered at Trinity College, Cambridge. He made no great show there at his books or socially, but took an active part in the debates at the "Union," and, through the influence of Maine, was chosen into the "Apostles."

"'I have always found myself,' says Fitzjames in reference to his academical career, 'one of the most unteachable of human beings. I cannot, to this day, take in anything at second hand. I have in all cases to learn whatever I want to learn in a way of my own. It has been so with law, with languages, with Indian administration, with the machinery I have had to study in patent cases, with English composition—in a word, with everything whatever.' . . . He was without that subtlety and accuracy of mind which makes the born scholar. He was capable of blunders surprising in a man of his general ability; and every blunder takes away marks. He was still less of a mathematician. 'I disliked,' as he says himself, 'and foolishly despised the studies of the place, and did not care about accurate and classical scholarship, in which I was utterly wrong' . . . Fitzjames's comparative failure at Cambridge suggests to him a significant remark. After speaking of his 'unteachableness,' he observes that his mind was over-full of thoughts about religion, about politics, about morals, about metaphysics, about all sorts of subjects, except art, literature, or physical science. 'For art of any kind I have never cared, and do not care in the very least. For literature, as such, I care hardly at all. I like to be amused and instructed on the particular things I want to know; but works of genius, as such, give me very little pleasure; and as to the physical sciences, they interest me only so far as they illustrate the true method of inquiry. They, or rather some of them, have the advantage of being particularly true, and so a guide in the pursuit of moral and distinctively human truth. For their own sake I care very little about them.'"

Stephen was called to the bar in January, 1854. He had already begun to write for the newspapers. In November, 1854, he was engaged to be married to Miss Cunningham, daughter of the Vicar of Harrow, and was married in April, 1855. "The marriage," he says, in a fine and touching passage,

"was a blessed revelation to me. It turned me from a rather heavy, torpid youth into the happiest of men, and, for many years, one of the most ardent and energetic. It was like the lines in Tennyson—

> A touch, a kiss, the charm was snapped,
> . . . . . .
> And all the long-pent stream of life
> Dashed downward like a cataract.

I am surprised to find that, when I look back to that happiest and most blessed of days through the haze of upwards of thirty two years, I do not feel in the least degree disposed to be pathetic over the lapse of life or the near approach of old age. I have found life sweet, bright, glorious. I should dearly like to live again; but I am not afraid, and I hope, when the time comes, I shall not be averse to die."

For nearly all his life after this period Stephen was a most voluminous writer for the press. To observe how much he wrote and how constantly his thoughts for a great part of his life were running on politics, metaphysics, and all sorts of speculations on the current topics of the day, suggests the reason why he did not rise more rapidly in his profession, and make a more distinguished mark in it. His mental powers were great, his physical capacity very great, and his industry prodigious; but he was never a great lawyer or a great judge. In 1859 he was made Recorder of Newark. In 1858 he had been secretary of a royal commission to investigate the state of popular education. In 1862 he published 'Essays by a Barrister' and the 'Defence of Dr. Rowland Williams'; in 1863 his 'General View of the Criminal Law of England,' a book containing some sound thinking, but a far cruder performance than its author could have imagined it to be. In July, 1869, he was appointed legal member of the Council for India as successor to Maine, and arrived in Calcutta in December. In May, 1872, he had returned to England. On the voyage out he wrote twenty articles for the *Pall Mall Gazette*. In India he worked like a horse over legislation and codification, especially his Indian Evidence Act passed in March, 1872, of which he published an edition with an elaborate and very characteristic Introduction. This, although showing force of thought, was really a rash, academic, and ill-digested performance. But there seems reason to think that in India at that time anything was better than nothing. He soon prepared a bill for amending the law of Homicide, and later, in 1873, an Evidence bill for England, but neither of them was enacted. The latter, however, became the basis of his 'Digest of Evidence,' published in 1876. In 1873 he published 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity,' and was defeated as a candidate for Parliament from Dundee. In 1877 he published his 'Digest of the Criminal Law,' which "represented the hardest work he had ever done"—a valuable book. In December, 1875, he had been appointed Professor of Common Law at the Inns of Court. This office he resigned in 1879. Meantime he was at work on a Penal Code, as a member of a commission with Lord Blackburn and others. This was a carefully prepared and mainly excellent piece of work, but it was not enacted. In January, 1879, he succeeded Mr. Justice Cleasby in the High Court of Justice. "He unfeignedly enjoyed his new position. He often said that he could imagine nothing more congenial to all his wishes." But "he is resolved to make the bench 'a base of operations,' and 'not a mere shelf.'" In 1883 he published in three volumes his elaborate and very valuable 'History of the Criminal Law of England.' He also published a 'Digest of Criminal Procedure,' and in 1885, in two volumes, his story of 'Nuncomar and Impey,' "an episode in the great Warren Hastings story."

This was his last book. In April, 1885, he had what appears to have been a stroke of paralysis, while at Derby conducting the assizes, but he was at his judicial work again in the summer. Mrs. Maybrick was convicted on August 7, 1889. "I have not the least doubt," says his biographer, and he is probably well supported in his opinion, "that his humanity and impartiality were as conspicuous in this as in other cases." In 1888 he lost by death two most valued friends, Sir Henry Maine and G. S. Venables, and in February, as the ultimate result of a distressing casualty, his son, James K. Stephen, the author of the brilliant little books of verse, 'Lapsus Calami' and 'Quo Musa Tendis?'

"On March, 17, 1890, he had an attack of illness during the assizes at Exeter, resembling that which he had previously had at Derby. He was again ordered to rest for three months. Sir A. Clark allowed him to go on a circuit in the summer. . . . In March, 1891, he was on circuit at Exeter again with Lord Coleridge. It was thought right that certain public remarks should be brought under his notice. He immediately took the obviously right course. He consulted Sir Andrew Clark, who advised resignation. Fitzjames did his last work as judge at Bristol, March 15 to 23, and finally resigned on April 7, 1891, when he took leave of his colleagues at an impressive meeting. . . . He had no serious suffering.

He became weaker and died peacefully at Ipswich, March 11, 1894. He was buried at Kensal Green in the presence of a few friends, and laid by the side of his father and mother and the four children who had gone before him. One other grave is close by, the grave of one not allied to him by blood, but whom he loved with a brotherly affection that shall never be forgotten by one survivor."

It can hardly be wrong to understand these last words as referring to the grave of that daughter of Thackeray who was the first wife of him who writes. And now, alas, we have been hearing lately of another like bereavement to Leslie Stephen.

Let us add the simple and just words with which the biographer closes his book:

"Whatever may be thought of Fitzjames's judgments of men and things, it must be granted that he may be called, in the emphatical and lofty sense of the word, a true man. In the dark and bewildering game of life he played his part with unfaltering courage and magnanimity. He was a man not only in masculine vigor of mind and body, but in the masculine strength of affection which was animated and directed to work by strenuous moral convictions. If I have failed to show that, I have made a failure indeed; but I hope that I cannot have altogether failed to produce some likeness of a character so strongly marked and so well known to me from my earliest infancy."

A Study of Death. By Henry Mills Alden, author of 'God in His World: An Interpretation.' Harper & Bros. 1895.

For those who were so fortunate as to read Mr. Alden's 'God in His World,' the present book will lack one charm in which that abounded, namely, that of a wonderful freshness and surprise. But it will be a very real pleasure for them to trust themselves again to the guidance of a writer whose "pastures new" could not be hemmed between the covers of a single book. The title will discourage many, and it is strange that Mr. Alden was at so little pains to choose one more engaging and expressive. It gives only the faintest indication of the breadth of his discussion and the variety of ideas and suggestions that it carries on the bosom of its placid stream. Only a few pages at the beginning and the end are directly concerned with death in the narrower implication of the term. For the rest we have a philosophy of nature and history in general and of Christianity in particular. The thesis everywhere maintained is, that death is neither accident nor harm, but a divine and beautiful necessity. "If we think of life apart from death, our thought is partial, as if we would give flight to the arrow without bending the bow. No living movement either begins or is completed save through death."

The same optimism which was so characteristic of the author's former book is here also, illuminating not only death but evil upon every page. He has no vision of a time when sin and death will be no more. Without them the loom of time could never have woven, and can never weave, the garment of the Eternal. So confidently and insistently are the goodness and necessity of evil dwelt upon, and so serene is the contempt expressed for moral conduct understood as obedience to a social law, that if the book were going to be read for moral guidance, there would be likelihood of its encouraging some to "continue in sin that grace may abound." We are told that "our human flesh was as dear to Jesus as that of children to their mother, and never in word was there any animadversion upon our carnal plight. He enjoyed the festival, and even turned water into wine for those already well-drunken." On another page we read that "we are not therefore called upon to repudiate ethics, or even that social specialization of morality which seems to contradict the words of the Master." Such qualifying phrases should not be overlooked, but they do not represent the average temper of the book, which, in appearance at least, is antinomian. Love is the one thing needful. A formal righteousness is of small account. Of course the doctrine is that we must have something more and not something less. The fact remains that "mere morality" is treated as cavalierly by Mr. Alden as by the orthodox theologians.

The book requires for its full enjoyment a supreme indifference to scientific method, and this no less because Mr. Alden's appeals to science are many, which only means that he "pounces on his own wherever he finds it." There is probably not a position in the book at which he arrived by any scientific course, while he has great ingenuity in availing himself of Weismann, whose name is misspelled, or any other scientist who can furnish him with real or apparent illustration. Everywhere the personal equation is dominant and selective of its own. This is quite as obvious in matters of criticism as in the field of natural science, where the derivation of man from any other species is set aside as dogmatically as it could be by an infallible pope. In Biblical criticism Mr. Alden takes or leaves the modern results to suit his purposes. He disdains the supernatural, but cordially accepts the miracles as natural events; the resurrection of Jesus being central to his exposition, but in the vaguest way, without any estimate of its proofs, or any endeavor to justify the character assigned to it (which is not corporeal), or to show us how an event so isolated is related to or expressive of a process that has no beginning and no end.

Those who are nothing if not critical and scientific may possibly be irritated by the naïveté of a dogmatism that plays fast and loose with their properties; but those who choose to be amused will choose the better part. The book is not a scientific treatise, it is not an argument, and barely is it an exposition. It is a rhapsody upon the unity of life and death. Those will be least apt to be disappointed who do not expect much from its coherency, who set out to get their satisfaction less from the forest than from the trees. Those whose approach to the book is made with this understanding must be strangely narrow in their sympathies if they do not find much to please them, much to charm them, and some things to cause them "a great trembling of the heart."

The style as well as the thought is so individual that we seem to be overhearing a soliloquy rather than listening to a direct address, and sometimes we do not seem to catch the words, or they are in an unknown tongue. But the book abounds in sentences and phrases of peculiar force and beauty, and there are passages of such lyric rapture that one must go to Shelley or to Dante's "Paradiso" to breathe an air so fine. Take, for example, the passage on pages 70-72, in which the earth, under the similitude of a wandering prodigal, dreams of the sun from whose bosom she has torn herself away. Mr. Alden has the poet's predilection for a novel use of words and texts, and sometimes he startles us with the freshness and vivid aptness of his bold adventures. The whole of his third book, "Prodigal Sons: a Cosmic Parable," is one of these, wonderful in the delicacy of its elaboration; and the first section of this part, "The Divided Living," is a variation on the theme, "He divided unto them his living," than which a more subtile and impressive would be hard to find in all the range of allegorical interpretation. There are many pages in the book quite as remarkable as these, and one could easily select from it a tender and fragrant anthology of shorter passages and sentences.

In the first book "the body of death" is briefly touched with reverent hands, and then "the mystical vision" is displayed in which death is seen as the parent and the ministrant of life, and as a process always going on in every living thing. Some of the analogues with which Mr. Alden fortifies his position seem to be more fanciful than real. In the second book, entitled "Native Impressions," we have an exposition of men's earliest thoughts of death, or rather of Mr. Alden's imagination of those thoughts. It is Wordsworth's "Intimations of Immortality from Childhood" writ large, an application to the infant race of Wordsworth's line,

"Heaven lies about us in our infancy."

The representation is too much an imputation of Mr. Alden's inner consciousness to the primitive man, but it is doubtless true that the earlier views were simpler and less monstrous than those of a deliberate theology. The next book, "Prodigal Sons," elaborates the specialization of life, and attempts to show, as does the next, "The Moral Order," how all seeming aberration from the House of Life is part of a curve which has its inevitable return. For the remainder of the way we have our Pegasus in harness. There is something altogether arbitrary and artificial in the transition from the generalizations of the preceding sections to the historic Jesus and Christianity, and the incongruity is not entirely dissipated by the vagueness of the exposition and an eclecticism which is devoid of all responsibility. Small indeed must be the audience that is fit for the reception of these concluding chapters with a responsive mind. A conventional orthodoxy is affronted upon every page, and the free intellect will find no justification for the emphasis that is placed upon a special series of events, and will resent a mixture of rhapsody and traditional opinion when it is seeking for some rational basis of belief. But when every deduction has been made, the book is fascinating and suggestive to a remarkable degree, and has all the charm of the remotest foreign travel in its difference from the beaten tracks of our habitual thought.

After Five Years in India; or, Life and Work in a Punjaub District. By Anne C. Wilson. London: Blackie; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp 312, 8vo.

It would be difficult to find a better popular account of the method by which England governs India than is contained in this book. The subject is treated in two distinct ways. Pictures of native life in various aspects, and the description of a deputy commissioner's work during a single day, present in a concrete form some of the problems in administration which confront an official in a country district. Then the general system of the Government is explained, together with its application to the public works, education, and the land laws. A peculiar value attaches to this (the larger) part of the book in that it is derived from the practical experience of the author's husband, who is the collector of a district in the Punjab.

From her father, Dr. Norman MacLeod, Mrs. Wilson inherits a clear and picturesque

style, which is naturally shown to greatest advantage in her narratives. These sketches of the natives are full of life, and impress one with their truthfulness, due, perhaps, as much to the writer's keen interest in and sympathy with them as to her literary skill. An added charm is given by the vein of humor which runs through them, especially in the descriptions of her servants and the natives who come with petitions to her husband. There is pathos also, as, for example, in the story of the farmer who falls into the hands of the village usurer, and of the money-lender himself, and the tragedy which embittered his prosperous career. Here is a scene, taken almost at random, from her account of a day in her husband's official life: "And now, the jail inspected, the treasury visited, the cash counted and compared with the treasurer's accounts, the deputy commissioner turns his face towards home. A veranda in the bungalow is full of black figures, dressed in their best of spotless cotton. They have come to 'pay their respects,' and rise like a covey of birds, while one of the orderlies, dressed in scarlet, kneels to dust his master's shoes." Among the throngs who had gathered to a tent-pegging entertainment given in their honor during a tour through the district, were some strolling performers,

"men with bears, monkeys, and goats, wrestlers and acrobats who seemed to have learnt the secret of the fourth dimension, and to have acquired the power of living in space in a condition of perpetual somersaulting. The performer who interested me most was a small boy who sang a song. He was a slight, graceful child of about fifteen, with a scarlet sash and turban. He climbed to the top of a pole, and a burly giant poised one end of the pole on his chin, with the child on the top. The man had a brass ring round his right ankle, with bells attached. As he jingled these and the drummer beat on his tom-tom, the boy stretched out his arms, and sang his song with upturned face. Indian music to my ears, as a rule, is only another name for discord. But this song had a haunting beauty of its own. It reminded me of the song I heard the Spanish gipsy sing in Granada. It was the voice of the spirit of loneliness, like the sound of the wind,

"'Wandering o'er the wastes of earth,
Sighing to the lonely stars of heaven.'

A song from the homeless hearts of outcasts."

The account of the administrative system and its special applications is not entertaining, but it is full of interest to one desirous of learning something of the secret of England's success in ruling the vast congeries of peoples of different races, languages, and religions known to us as India. Possibly this success is largely due to the fact "that in no country, except America and Great Britain and her colonies, is the individual so little interfered with by the Government." No kind of pressure, like the conscription, is put upon the Indian to be anything but what he pleases. He may profess what religion he likes, express any opinions; he enjoys the right of public meeting and can criticise the Government freely without fear of consequences. Then, again, the attitude of the Government towards its subjects is one of help and encouragement. Mrs. Wilson aptly compares the Government to "one of those Hindu idols stretching out its arms in every direction, and, like the idol, she is expected to appear upon all occasions as a fresh embodiment of benevolence." This dependence is, of course, often carried to absurd lengths, as when the railway station-master telegraphed to his superior: "Tiger on platform. Please arrange." The methods of procedure under the one uniform system of law now applied to every part of the country are explained at some length, and the benefits conferred upon the people by the canals, roads, and railways are dwelt upon with great satisfaction. On the other hand, it is frankly confessed that education is not yet sought for its own sake, but only as essential to entering the public service. The idea of setting up for themselves as doctors, engineers, or schoolmasters does not seem to have occurred to the educated natives. The number of Government places, however, is far smaller than that of the applicants for them, and much of the unrest and dissatisfaction which finds expression in the vernacular press and the "National Congress" comes from the unsuccessful scholars. Technical education is making some progress, as is that of women, an instance being given of a flourishing girls' school which was started by the people of a hill-village in the Punjab.

The principal failure of the English rule to better the condition of the people seems to lie in the land laws and the settlement of the farmers' debts to the money-lender. Land which was inalienable was suddenly made property which could be bought and sold, and the system by which usurers' claims were settled on a rude principle of equity by the village council was swept away and the letter of the bond enforced on the debtor. The consequence has been that the cultivator of land which had been the property of his ancestors for untold generations has too often become a homeless laborer. A partial remedy for this evil has been found in the Deccan Ryots Act, by which the peasants' interests are safeguarded as if they were minors. The act is in force in a district containing over three million people, and so beneficial has been its effect that in five years 10,000 mortgageors had redeemed their land and many of the money-lenders had given up their business.

The chapter upon caste is perhaps the least satisfactory in the book. Among the more unfamiliar facts stated are the countless number of castes, amounting to many hundreds in the Punjab alone, the frequent creation of new ones, and the possibility of passing from one to another. "The system, as a whole, is a curious mixture of rigidity and latitude, and might be compared to a prison whose windows are not altogether barred, and in which ladders, ropes, and other means of escape are to be found, of which the prisoners from time to time avail themselves, although their ambition may only be to exchange one thraldom for another which is held in better estimation."

Some reproductions of photographs, illustrative of native customs, add to the attraction of this interesting and instructive book.

Sir Samuel Baker: A Memoir. By T. Douglas Murray and A. Silva White. Macmillan. 1895.

We can sum up our opinion of this work by saying that it is interesting but not satisfactory. It is interesting because Sir Samuel Baker was an uncommon man, thoroughly English, of splendid courage, coolness, and determination, a born hunter, traveller, and explorer—the sort of man whose restless energy and spirit of adventure have done so much to extend the boundaries of the British empire. The two great episodes of his life, his discovery of the Albert Nyanza and his governorship of the Egyptian Sudan, have both been described by himself and are enough to prevent his name from being soon forgotten. Even in mere every-day life what he said and did was often worth preserving, for it was everywhere affected by his strong personality. His biographers are distinctly competent, and have given us a book that is in many ways well written. Our quarrel with it and with them is, that we too often feel that they had another purpose in view besides writing the life of their hero. Baker, like other men of his stamp, was always in favor of resolute action for others as well as for himself, unmindful of opposition. Such men are more successful in carrying out the measures of a government than in inspiring them. Baker was full of patriotism, and also full of that spirit which many of a man's fellow-countrymen call patriotism, though when they find it in some foreigner at their expense they are apt to give it some less flattering name. In his zeal for the greatness of the British empire, Baker was always in favor of taking everything, no matter to whom it belonged, that might be useful to that greatness. In particular he looked upon England as the natural owner of Egypt. In short, he was a thoroughgoing Jingo. So, too, are his biographers That is no business of ours, but we wish they had kept their Jingoism out of this book. Again and again we are made to feel that the Life of Baker is hardly more than a stalking-horse for a political pamphlet, that his opinions on questions are brought up not so much on account of their intrinsic interest as to serve as arguments in favor of a certain policy. The running commentary heightens this impression. If in any case it strengthens the force of the arguments, it diminishes the value of the book as a memoir. The public does not gain by the exchange.

Still, we repeat that the work is altogether interesting and well written, even if unequally so. The world is being partitioned so fast that there will soon be no unknown regions left to explore, or even savage countries for civilized nations to appropriate. The histories of explorers, however, will always possess interest, and the greater names of this century, as of previous times, will not be forgotten. Although Baker's is hardly among the first of these names, it comes very soon among the second; and this is no mean title to fame.

Heine on Shakespeare: A Translation of his Notes on Shakespeare's Heroines by Ida Benecke. London: A. Constable & Co. Pp. 189.

The title of this handsome volume promises more than its contents fulfil. 'Shakespeares Mädchen und Frauen' is a feeble piece of hackwork, hastily put together at the instance of a publisher to accompany a set of engravings. These engravings, representing the heroines of Shakspere, had been published in England and France, and in preparing a German edition it was decided that a text should be supplied, as Heine himself says, "by a great author." The great author lent himself reluctantly to the task, impelled thereto largely by the consideration that if he did not, Tieck would. Contrary to his custom, Heine dictated the entire work. "Dictating is a bad business," he writes to Campe; "I have tried it (on some things they have teased me to write about Shakespeare), but the pregnant brevity and rich clearness of the style are lost" The book came out in 1839. Heine's conflict with the Suabian school and its allies was just at its height, and his new work did not strengthen his position. Gutzkow's remark "that this new and expensive publication of Heine's on Shakespeare's women will be a great consolation to his friends" was a malicious thrust. But the author was as well aware of the weakness of his performance as were his readers. "Between ourselves," he had written to

Campe, "this is not a masterpiece, but still it is good enough for its purpose."

These notes are of the flimsiest texture, trifling, superficial, often commonplace; the spectres of the July Revolution play their irrelevant pranks in frequent political allusions, and the few eloquent passages and occasional flashes of wit cannot redeem the whole from its general dulness. Heine's dictation had, according to his own admission, injured the grace and vigor of his style; the translator has removed the last traces of those qualities, although she has made, on the whole, a faithful, business-like rendering. We have noticed only a few insignificant errors. The shortcomings of this translation may be seen at once if the reader will compare the opening paragraphs of the Introduction with the spirited version contained in William Stigand's English biography of Heine. This Introduction, beginning with the scathing and oft-quoted denunciation of Englishmen, "the most repulsive people that God in his anger ever created," is the most entertaining portion of the book.

The sum of our considerations is, that a translation of this unimportant work was in no wise needed. A passage from one of Heine's letters to Moser might serve as a motto: "I am not at my ease in Shakespeare's company; I feel only too keenly that I am not his peer; he is the all-powerful minister and I only a counsellor, and it seems as if he could dismiss me any minute."

Russian Fairy Tales. From the 'Skazki' of Polevoi. Translated by R. Nisbet Bain. Chicago: Way & Williams. 1895.

THE translator informs us, in his preface, that the twenty-four fairy tales which he presents to our notice are derived from P. N. Polevoi's volume, published in 1874. This contained about three dozen stories selected from the great collection of Afanasieff, softened down and manipulated for the use of nurseries. "With the single exception of 'Morozko,' a variant of which will be familiar to those who know Mr. Ralston's volume ['Russian Folk Tales']," he says, "none of these tales has seen the light in an English dress before." One has, however, but to compare these stories with the volume translated direct from Afanasieff's collection by Jeremiah Curtin to find a full reflection of the originals. Where changes have been made, it is often difficult to understand the reason for them. Naturally, the student of folk-lore will prefer Mr. Curtin's unimproved versions. It may be useful to some if we mention the tales from the two books in pairs:

BAIN.	CURTIN.
The Muzhichek-as-big-as-your-Thumb-with-Moustaches-seven-Versts-long.	Ivan, the Peasant's Son, and the Little Man Himself One Finger tall, his Mustache seven Versts in length.
The Little Feather of Fenist the bright Falcon	The Feather of bright Finist the Falcon.
The Enchanted Ring.	The Ring with Twelve Screws.
Go I know not whither—fetch I know not what.	Go to the verge of Destruction, and bring back Shmat-Razum.

Bain's "Tzarevna Loveliness-Inexhaustible" will be found to contain features in Curtin's "The Water of Youth, Life, and Death," and in the first of the two stories which bear the title "Koschei without Death," "Two out of the Knapsack" is identical in subject and almost in matter with "Cudgel, Bestir Thyself," a Kashubian story in A. H. Wratislaw's 'Sixty Folk-Tales,' while "The Flying Ship" contains incidents nearly corresponding in character with those in the Bohemian story, "Long, Broad and Sharpsight," in the same collection by Wratislaw, and to folk-tales in other lands. "Gore-Gorinskoe" greatly resembles the version of that widespread tale which is to be found in Kirby's 'The Hero of Esthonia.'

All the stories are delightful, and the sly humor, even gentle sarcasm, of many among them prevents their becoming in the least wearisome, even to those who have passed the day of fairy tales, and who are not even students of folk-lore. But neither in this respect nor as regards their poetical qualities and their ingenuity of invention can they be compared to that remarkable collection of Esthonian Tales to which we have referred. One curious point about them is the manner in which whole paragraphs of phraseology and divers incidents have been taken from the Epic Songs, and incorporated with phrases and incidents which, obviously, did not come from a kindred source. The result is a composite structure which suggests opportunities for research. The hero of "Thomas Berennikov" brags in a way which would do credit to Diuk Stepanovitch of the Epic Songs; and this story, with that entitled "The Tale of Little Fool Ivan," offers the best instances of the type. The ancient legend of Perseus and Andromeda, or, rather, the queer version of it sung by the Russian Wandering Blind Psalm-Singers, will be recognized in "The Two Sons of Ivan the Soldier."

The book has six very satisfactory illustrations, and is charming in every way. We must take exception, however, to the definition of *kisel* as "a sourish meat-pottage." On the contrary, it is a very popular "fasting" dish, and is made from the juice of any sourish fruit which may be preferred, thickened with potato flour to about the consistency of blanc-mange, and served cold, at dessert.

In the Land of Lorna Doone. By William H. Rideing. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1895.

THIS little volume contains charming descriptions of widely different corners of England, some of which are well known to the wandering American, while others are removed from the beaten paths of travel. In the former category are Scarborough, Warwick, Kenilworth, and the various coaching trips out of London; in the latter, Cornwall and the "land of Lorna Doone"—being that part of North Devon which Mr. Blackmore's romance has invested with a peculiar interest. Mr. Rideing writes of these places with the accurate knowledge of a native, but with an eye to what is likely to attract the attention of the traveller who has left the Atlantic behind him. He visits Cornwall "with an umbrella," and wisely so, for in summer the warm winds from the Gulf Stream are constantly driving in masses of cloud, which "float over the languishing ears of corn or descend in heavy rain to retard and injure the harvest." He finds that three-fourths of the wonderful submarine tin mines which we have always been accustomed to associate with the idea of Cornwall, are suspended or abandoned, and the miners are now working in the mines of Pennsylvania or Lake Superior or Nevada. In other ways, too, things are not as they used to be. The English peasant, even in remote districts, is becoming accustomed to travelling strangers, and the old superstitions of the countryside are disappearing before the freer circulation and the more varied intercourse of this cycling age. But there are still nooks and corners of the little island that retain a pleasing flavor of mediæval life and manners, and to such places Mr. Rideing is an interesting and sympathetic guide.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, H. M. A Study of Death. Harpers. $1.50.
Andersen, H. C. Stories and Fairy Tales. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Arnold, Matthew. The Function of Criticism. With Pater's Essay on Style. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Atherton, J. M. Free-Silver Fallacies. Louisville, Ky.: *Evening Post* Co.
Atkinson, Philip. Electricity for Everybody: its Nature and Uses Explained. Century Co. $1.50.
Austin, Jane G. Standish of Standish. 2 vols. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Bain, R. N. Hans Christian Andersen: A Biography. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Baldwin, C. S. Specimens of Prose Description. Henry Holt & Co. 50 cents.
Baldwin, James. The Horse Fair. Century Co. $1.50.
Balzac, H. de. The Country Doctor. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Beeching, H. C. A Book of Christmas Verse. London: Methuen & Co.
Benson, Margaret. Subject to Vanity. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bicknell, Anna L. Life in the Tuileries under the Second Empire. Century Co. $2.25.
Bok, Edward W. Successward: A Young Man's Book for Young Men. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Brewster, W. T. Specimens of Narration. Henry Holt & Co. 50 cents.
Brooks, E. S. A Boy of the First Empire. Century Co. $1.50.
Brooks, Noah. Washington in Lincoln's Time. Century Co. $1.25.
Champney, Mrs. E. W. Paddy O'Learey and his Learned Pig. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Cole, Timothy. Old Dutch and Flemish Masters. Century Co. $7.50.
Collins, Charles. Greenhouse and Window Plants: A Primer for Amateurs. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Comparetti, Prof. Domenico. Vergil in the Middle Ages. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Compton, Margaret. Snow Bird and the Water Tiger, and Other American Indian Tales. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Coppens, Rev. Charles. A Brief Text-Book of Moral Philosophy. Catholic School Book Co.
Coues, Dr. Elliott. The Expeditions of Zebulon Montgomery Pike. 3 vols. Francis P. Harper. $10.
Cox, Palmer. The Brownies through the Union. Century Co. $1.50.
Crane, Stephen. The Red Badge of Courage: An Episode of the American Civil War. Appletons. $1.
Creegan, Rev. C. C., and Goodnow, Mrs J. A. B. Great Missionaries of the Church. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Davidson, J. N. In Unnamed Wisconsin. Milwaukee, Wis.: Silas Chapman. $2.
Davidson, John. Sentences and Paragraphs. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Davis, H. McG. The City of Endeavor. Brooklyn: Collins & Day. 25 cents.
Dean, Bashford. Fishes, Living and Fossil. Macmillan. $2.50.
Dixon, T. S. E. Francis Bacon and his Shakspere. Chicago: Sargeant Publishing Co. $1.50
Dog Stories from the *Spectator*. Macmillan. $1.75.
Dr. Miller's Year Book. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Edwards, G. W. The Rivalries of Long and Short Codiac. Century Co. $1.
Elliot, D. G. North American Shore Birds. Francis P. Harper.
Ellis, E. S. Jack Midwood: or, Bread Cast upon the Waters. Merriam Co. $1.25.
Fugette, Rev. J. P. Marriage a Covenant not Indissoluble. Baltimore: Cushing & Co.
George, H. B. Battles of English History. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Godard, Harlow. An Outline Study of United States History. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Goldsmith, Oliver. She Stoops to Conquer. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Goss, W. L. Jack Alden: A Story of Adventures in the Virginia Campaigns, '61-'65. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Harris, Prof. Charles. A German Reader for Beginners. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Hartland, E. S. The Legend of Perseus: A Study of Tradition in Story, Customs and Belief. Vol. II. London: David Nutt.
Holland, Clive. My Japanese Wife: A Japanese Idyll. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Hopkins, Tighe. Lady Bonnie's Experiment. Henry Holt & Co.
Hotchkiss, C. C. In Defiance of the King: A Romance of the American Revolution. Appletons. $1.
Kerr, Clara H. The Origin and Development of the United States Senate. Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus & Church.
King, Anna E. Kitwyk Stories. Century Co. $1.50.
Lano, Pierre de. Napoleon III. The Secret of an Empire. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Lazarus, Miss Josephine. The Spirit of Judaism. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLIV. Paston—Percy. Macmillan. $3.75
Le Journal de la Belle Meunière. Paris: Dentu; New York: Brentanos. 75 cents.
Macnie, John. Elements of Geometry, Plane and Solid. American Book Co. $1.25.
Magruder, Julia. The Princess Sonia. Century Co. $1.25.
Marsh, Dr. Herbert. Two Seasons in Switzerland. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Mitchell, S. W. A Madeira Party. Century Co. $1.
Morris, J. Advance Japan: A Nation Thoroughly in Earnest. London: W. H. Allen & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Morrison, Sarah E. Chilhowee Boys in War Time. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.

Nadal, E. S. Notes of a Professional Exile. Century Co. $1.
O'Neill, Moira. The Elf-Errant. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 50.
Pyle, Howard. The Story of Jack Ballister's Fortunes. Century Co. $2.
Rehmke, Prof. Johannes. Lehrbuch der Allgemeinen Psychologie. Leipzig: Leopold Voss; New York: Gustav E Stechert.
Shipton, Helen. The Herons. Macmillan. $1.
Smith, Goldwin. Oxford and her Colleges. Illustrated. Macmillan. $1.50.
Sprague, Rev. F. M. The Laws of Social Evolution. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Stearns, Albert Chris and the Wonderful Lamp Century Co. $1.50.
Stokoe, Rev. T. H. Old Testament History for Junior Classes. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Swann, Annie S. Fettered yet Free. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Taylor, T. W., Jr. The Individual and the State. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.
Thayer, Rev. W. M. Turning Points in Successful Careers. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
The Bookman. Vol. I. Feb.—July, 1895. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Thomas, Prof. Calvin. A Practical German Grammar. Henry Holt & Co. $1.12.
Tomlinson, E. T. Three Colonial Boys: A Story of the Times of '76. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.50.
Tompkins. Elizabeth K. An Unlessoned Girl: A Story of School Life. Putnams. $1.25.
Trevelyan, Marie. The Land of Arthur, its Heroes and Heroines. London: John Hogg; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Upton, J. K. A Coin Catechism. Chicago: Werner Co. 50 cents.
Van Cleef, F. L. Index Antiphontevs. [Cornell Studies in Classical Philology] Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Woodward, F. R. E. "El Diablo Americano": Thrilling Adventures in Cuba. G. F. Burseim & Co. 25 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 17, 1895.

The Week.

In the speech made by Secretary Carlisle in Boston on Saturday evening, he was doubtless correct in asserting that the danger of free coinage of silver is past, although there still remains a sufficient body of belated Democrats and of silver-mining Republicans to make it necessary for the friends of sound currency to "go armed." They cannot abandon the field so long as the enemy shows fight, but, as the Secretary says, they will not be able to exercise a controlling influence in the national councils of either party next year. Accordingly he addressed himself chiefly to the greenback question, seeking to show that the legal-tender notes are the disturbing element in our currency now, and that it is a mistake to consider them a cheap currency. He referred to the requirement imposed upon the Treasury Department to keep all kinds of Government issues at a parity, which means keeping them all equal to gold, but without any means of doing so except the sale of bonds whenever a demand for gold arises. This, he said, would be resorted to as often as the emergency should arise, but he submitted that that could not be considered a cheap currency which called for the issue of interest-bearing bonds running from ten to thirty years to keep it at par with gold, as the law required. It is true that the banks sometimes make voluntary exchanges of gold for legal-tender notes with the Government, but these are in the nature of a gratuity, and are not to be depended upon. Since the resumption of specie payments in 1879, the sum of $386,000,000 in greenbacks has been presented for redemption, in gold, and they are all still outstanding and liable to be presented again. This, he submits, cannot be considered a cheap currency.

The silverites of this country will be confounded to learn that the Rothschilds are bimetallists. Whether our Western friends will be pleased or shocked by this information we shall not attempt to predict, but we fancy that they will find some difficulty in swallowing all the hard things they have said about this hateful house, who are always "cornering gold" and making money dear in order that they may suck the blood of borrowers all over the world. The information that they are not gold-bugs is printed in the *Independent*, and comes from no less an authority than President Andrews, who quotes it from the *Saturday Review*. Worse and worse, Mr. Andrews says it is a mistake to suppose that the banking interest in London is solid for gold: "London bankers are among the most enthusiastic propagandists of bimetallism." Even this does not tell the whole story. Great Britain is marching to bimetallism just as fast as could be expected. English farmers are being ruined by the gold standard, and they know it. "British merchants trading with silver countries find their capital invested there reduced by one-half," and their present trade with those countries is either ruined or made a mere matter of gambling. Yet it appears that they are such fools as to continue it. All this leads us to ask, What can be depended upon? Must we take back all that we have been saying all these years about Lombard Street and Ernest Seyd and the millions raised abroad to bribe Congress to commit the crime of 1873? Is there any sure foundation for anything? If the Rothschilds and the London bankers are no longer to serve as a target for Bland and Bryan, Blackburn and Hardin, Jones and Stewart, and the rest, where shall they look for one? May not Wall Street be the next to fail them?

The general increase of exports of American manufactures is one of the most encouraging signs of the revival of business. The *Journal of Commerce* publishes some figures obtained from the Bureau of Statistics which are very noteworthy. Thus it appears that our total exports of manufactures during the present calendar year to the 1st of September have been of the value of $129,000,000, against $118,000,000 during the same period last year. This is a gain of $11,000,000, and, if it continues through the year, there will be, in a total of $194,000,000, a gain of $17,000,000 for twelve months. But the real significance of these figures lies in the fact that our exports of manufactures are likely to be higher by $11,000,000 than they ever were in any year before.

Two articles, or kinds of articles, stand out prominently in the list of exports, viz., agricultural implements and machinery. Of the former, the value exported during the first eight months of the present year has been about four and a half millions, a gain of half a million over the highest previous year; of the latter, seven and a half millions, a gain of nearly a million and a quarter. These two classes of articles are symptomatic of a coming great expansion in our sale of articles made of iron and steel to foreign countries. We have now reached a point where pig iron can be produced as cheaply here as in any country on the globe. If we cannot as yet produce steel billets as cheaply as any other country, we shall be able to do so very soon. The chief components of machinery, wood and iron, being placed at the service of our manufacturers at as low figures as are reached in Europe, the inventive faculty of our people will soon put them at least on a footing of equality with those of England and the Continent in general, and in some particulars will give them an advantage. A gratifying increase is shown in our exports of carriages, chemicals, clocks and watches, paper, flax and hemp goods, scientific instruments, builders' hardware, locomotives, sewing-machines, and boots and shoes. In the item of copper manufactures there was a remarkable increase from $252,000 to $818,000. In view of these facts it will be difficult to deny that the United States has outgrown the need of a protective tariff as regards the chief branches of manufacturing industry.

The death of William Mahone removes from the stage a man who fifteen years ago was one of the chief figures in national politics. During the last two years of the Hayes Administration the Senate had been controlled by the Democrats for the first time since the beginning of the civil war. The elections of 1880 enabled the Republicans to recover some of their lost seats, but the division of the body in the forty-seventh Congress remained in doubt, because David Davis of Illinois had maintained an independent attitude and William Mahone was coming from Virginia without any announcement of his purposes. When Mahone took the oath as Senator on the 4th of March, 1881, he came as a political freebooter. He represented all that was worst in the politics of his State. While he had remained a regular Democrat, he was charged by the Republicans with having participated in the grossest election frauds. Personally unscrupulous, no sentiment of honor or State pride deterred him from taking up repudiation as a means of securing office from a combination of the worst voters in both parties, and he went to Washington as the first man ever elected to the United States Senate on the platform of cheating the creditors of a commonwealth.

But he was also the first man who had been elected since Reconstruction days from any Southern State on any platform except that of regular Democracy. He had been supported by nearly all of the Republicans in the Legislature that chose him. He was believed to be willing to sustain Republican measures in the Senate if he should receive sufficient consideration. On the 14th of March, replying to Ben Hill's challenge, he declared his independence and virtually announced his purpose to support the Republicans. The Republicans were only too glad to welcome this political pirate into their ranks. Mr. George F. Hoar of Massachusetts joyfully extended the right hand of fellowship in

a speech which it seems almost an act of cruelty towards a now old man to recall. The new President from Ohio followed the lead of the Massachusetts Senator, and a bouquet from the White House conservatory on the repudiator's desk next day foreshadowed the willingness of Garfield, and later of Arthur, to turn over the patronage of Virginia to Mahone. Never were the offices of any State so completely handed over to one man. With his previous hold upon Virginia thus reinforced, he carried the next Legislature and elected his man Riddleberger as his associate and tool—an utterly worthless fellow, who became a common drunkard and intolerable nuisance before his term expired. Under such leadership Republicanism in Virginia sank to the lowest depths of degradation, and Bourbonism recovered control of the State. Now that it is all over, even Mr. George F. Hoar must see what disgraceful folly it was from the start.

An election for Mayor in Indianapolis ought not, in the nature of things, to be a matter of much concern outside that city. But when an ex-President of the United States participates in the canvass, and when his home organ invokes support of its candidate for the effect which his election or defeat will have upon national politics, people throughout the country naturally give attention to the result. On the morning of the contest the *Journal* declared that "every voter in Indianapolis who desires to strengthen Republicanism in Indiana, to help sustain Republican ascendency in the States which vote in November, and to put Kentucky into the Republican column, will hurry to the polls and vote the whole Republican ticket this morning." The Democratic candidate was elected by a majority of about 3,700 in a total vote larger than was cast at the corresponding election two years ago, when the Republicans won by a majority of about 3,100. After it was all over, the *Journal* made a complete recantation, and declared that "the plainest feature of the situation is that from a party point of view there was no politics in the result"—a view which is endorsed as the right one by the *News*, the Independent journal of the city. Naturally, however, the Democrats after election accept the *Journal's* ante-election position as the sound one.

It is clearly Tammany's intention to put its worst foot forward this year, and for this we should be thankful, for it thus removes all chance for doubt as to the character of the organization. For the Supreme Court it has nominated Messrs. Smyth and Truax, who were rejected by the people a year ago for good and sufficient reasons, and has associated with them Mr. Charles F. MacLean, whose nomination is openly confessed to be the price of the support of the "Ridder crowd," who continue, with delicious humor, to call themselves "The German-American Reform Union." This name was adopted last year, and was designed to show that the German voters were in favor of good government as opposed to the rascality of Tammany Hall. To continue the name after they have gone over to the side of Tammany and rascally government, is as good a joke as the proposal to get their Sunday beer by putting Tammany men into the offices of County Clerk and Register and into the courts. Not one of the offices to be filled in the city this year has any connection whatever with excise matters, nor can the result of the city election have the slightest effect upon the Sunday-beer question.

One encouraging feature of this year's election is the assurance of a closer approach to honesty and accuracy in the registration and balloting in New York and Brooklyn than was ever before known in these cities. The new registration system is more exacting than the old one in several respects. No man born abroad can vote under the new Constitution unless he shall have been for ninety days before election a citizen of the United States—a provision which prevents the naturalization frauds that were formerly perpetrated toward the close of the canvass. The "dodge" of pretending to be illiterate, or unable to prepare a ballot by reason of inability to handle it, is also rendered difficult and dangerous by the requirement that a man must make oath to such illiteracy or physical weakness when he applies for registration. The danger run in fraudulent registration is vastly increased by the provision that every applicant, in addition to telling his age, as heretofore, must give his height, weight, color of hair, and any mark or scar that will fix his identity—a requirement that is sure to frighten off not a few would-be repeaters. Moreover, not only are the election laws in better shape than ever before, but their execution is also in better hands. The nominees of the two parties for these offices in this city were subjected to an examination which resulted in weeding out one in every seven as utterly unfit by reason of incompetency or indifference. In Brooklyn the election board, itself composed of admirable officials, established a system of instruction for the registrars, inspectors, poll-clerks, and canvassers.

The movement for constitutional revision in the Episcopal Church in this year's general convention has met with failure, and this is but the latest example of the enormous difficulty of getting a modern church to revise either its creed or its polity. The Presbyterians voted a few years ago to revise, appointed committees to revise, debated and re-debated revision until everybody was wearied and talked into disgust with the whole subject; then it was dropped. The Congregationalists succeeded in adopting a simplified creed, but this was only because creeds, whether simple or complex, have little binding force in the Congregational Church. Several Presbyterian bodies in Scotland and England have, we believe, incorporated in their standards a "declaratory clause," practically serving notice that the signers of the creed are at liberty to hold it in a non-natural sense. But in general this is a bad century for either devising or revising articles of religious belief. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the thing was easy enough. Nothing seemed simpler to the theologian of that period than to emphasize your dissent from an outworn creed by making a new one which you would vow, and make your descendants vow, should last perfect and unchangeable till the crack of doom. Why are revisers so much less successful nowadays? Certainly not because they have minds less sensitive to theological difficulties, or because they are less conscientious. They are, however, no doubt more modest and less strenuous. Some of them have a saving sense of humor, too, and see the absurdity of laboring for perhaps twenty years to bring a creed "up to date," with science and religion well harmonized, only to find it obsolete as soon as fairly completed. But their main source of reluctance to revise, we imagine, is an unwillingness to fly to evils that they know not of. All the old difficulties and all the old shifts to explain them away, they are perfectly familiar with; the necessary proof-texts, the patristic citations, the logic-chopping, they have handy; the freedom which use and wont always creates, even under the most stringent terms of subscription, they enjoy and prize. How can they be blamed for dreading to give up these old facilities and privileges? A veteran common-law attorney could not with more justice look with apprehension upon the introduction of a code that would make all his learning void and his experience vain.

Mr. Arnold White has been writing in the London *Observer*, suggesting the creation of a royal commission to inquire into the net result of the missions to the heathen during the last century. The question is at present assuming a good deal of importance in England, owing to the late massacres which the Government has had to avenge at great expense, and which are very likely to be repeated as long as missionaries reside or travel in the interior. It is quite true that missionaries understand very well that in going inland among the Chinese they carry their lives in their hands, and, strictly speaking, have no right to call on their own government for redress. But in our day no government could stand by and see its subjects slaughtered or outraged simply because they were rash or fanatical. Moreover, the missionaries

now claim protection as a moral right. One of our own proclaimed the other day that the Gospel ought to be supported among the heathen by iron-clads; and to those who remonstrate with them for preaching doctrines which excite the Chinese to violence, they oppose the command —"Go ye into all the world," etc. Now, Mr. White's contention is that, if the policy of protecting the missionaries in places where they have no standing under the local law is to be persistently pursued, there ought to be an inquiry into the matter from the purely secular point of view. He says there are now fifty-four Protestant missionary societies in Great Britain which spend one million sterling a year. If, Mr. White says, this is good for the empire and taxpayers, the missionaries ought perhaps to be encouraged and protected, but they ought at the same time to be called on to agree on the theological doctrine which the Government is to help to propagate. Thus far religious people have not even agreed on the theological doctrine to be taught in their own schools at home, and the heathen are daily puzzled and scandalized by the exclusive claims on their attention urged by each of the sects which have missions among them. How little chance there is of any such agreement, however, every one knows; but until it comes about, the Government might well decline lending its gunboats and Maxim guns to every variety of créed which chooses to attack the Chinese philosophy or superstitions.

The French military successes in Madagascar were, of course, foregone, and have served mainly, like the English exploits in capturing Chitral, to give occasion to glorifying despatches and decorations. President Faure's congratulatory telegram to Gen. Duchesne, as was said of one of Wellington's peremptory communications to the Portuguese Minister, would have sounded better if addressed to a stronger Power. There may be higher motives, in the war against Afghans and Hovas, than to try the machine guns and smokeless powder and get a little cheap glory, but the absorbed professional air with which military men fix their attention on these points alone makes it look as if they cared for nothing else. For many years, in fact, the savages in Africa and Asia have had no final cause of existence, from the technical military point of view, except to furnish material for experiments in the modern art of war. The French thirst for *gloire* is uncommonly strong, but it must also be uncommonly easy to satisfy if a victory over uncivilized tribes can long appease it.

The rush and crush for place in all departments of the public service in France continues to show how thoroughly imbued with the true spirit of democracy that country has become. Some statistics have lately been published for the prefecture of the Seine, which give some idea of the pressure for even minor offices. The committee on education had some forty places to fill with male teachers; the number of applications was 1,850. No less than 7,139 certificated female teachers contested for 54 vacancies. Even for the position of school-janitress, the applications were to the vacancies as 134 to 1. There were 8 clerical offices to be filled in the state tobacco factories: applicants, 2,679. The prefecture had to appoint 20 clerks in various departments, and had its choice among 3,126 candidates. For one vacancy in the public news-stands only 3,150 applicants presented their petitions, warmly endorsed by municipal councillors, Deputies, Senators, even Ministers. Such figures tell their own story. We need not dream about a distant future when the masses will rise up and demand that the state support them; the masses are already up and pouncing upon every state employment in sight.

An indignant German writes to a Berlin paper giving a list of the dramas performed in all the Berlin theatres on the evening of Sedan Day. In every case but three, the piece was a translation or an adaptation from the French! "Where is our national dramatic art," cries this outraged patriot, "if it can make no better showing on such a great national anniversary?" Emperor William will have to look into this. The worst of it is, though, that he has looked into it, and, in his capacity of judge of fine arts by divine right, has rebuked the popular Sudermanns and Hauptmanns, and told the stupid public that his favorite Wildenbruch is the really great German dramatist. No one can say, therefore, that the Emperor has not done his duty; and if Sudermann wins triumphs in Paris, that only shows how unsound and perverse is Gallic taste. The wicked French critics, on the other hand, attempt to console the Germans by reminding them that it has always been the rôle of Prussia to produce soldiers, not artists. They will yet be raking up the ill-natured things Sainte-Beuve said about the suspicious beer-splashes and tobacco-stains always to be found on the most *spirituel* pages of a German writer.

The new Austrian ministry assumes office with the assured parliamentary support of but one of the principal parties—the Poles. Count Badeni, the Premier, has as Governor of Galicia made an excellent reputation, and, although a conservative and a good Catholic, he is not a Clerical, and will be a warm adherent of the Triple Alliance. The Liberals are reserved in their comments on the new cabinet, not a single member of which was taken from their ranks, but the usually turbulent Young Czechs, strangely enough, extend a cordial greeting to Count Badeni. This is interpreted in the Liberal camp simply as a bid for office on the part of their leaders. The two principal tasks before the Badeni ministry are electoral reform—a legacy of Count Taaffe's, left undisturbed by both Prince Windischgrätz and the provisional Kielmannsegg ministry—and the renewal of the compromise with Hungary. There is little doubt that the new Minister of Finance, Von Bilinski (who is a distinguished political economist), will arrive at an understanding with his Hungarian colleague satisfactory to both parliaments. The greatest difficulty which confronts the new ministry lies in the violence of the anti-Semitic agitation which has so long disgraced Vienna, and which has just culminated in the election of 92 anti-Semites against 42 Liberals to the Municipal Council of that city. The Austrian Government will have finally to deal with this craze. The Liberal members of the Council are certain to make common cause with the Liberals in the Reichsrath, and Count Badeni will have to reckon with them first of all in casting about for a majority. He is not likely to bid for the support of the discordant elements which make up the anti-Semitic party.

Mr. S. F. Van Oss has a valuable study of "Golden" South Africa in the last *Investors' Review*, the most effective part of which, perhaps, is the condensed way in which he sets forth the immense and absurd inflation of mining shares on the London Stock Exchange. The yield of the Witwatersrand mines last year was 2,000,000 ounces, worth $37,500,000. One-third is reckoned as gross profit, and, in fact, $7,900,000 was paid in dividends. Estimating the yield this year at 2,500,000 ounces, the dividends will be of course proportionately increased; and supposing, as is likely, that the yield next year will be 3,000,000 ounces, there will be $11,500,000 for dividends. But the present market value of the Witwatersrand gold shares is upwards of $750,000,000, which would show a return of only 1.53 per cent., even discounting in advance the output of 1896, and making no allowance whatever for the gradual and inevitable exhaustion of the property. The question is, therefore, how long will people go tumbling over each other to make less than 2 per cent. on their money? Already there are signs of uneasiness in the "Kaffir Circus," and nothing can be more certain than that, sooner or later, the tent will be blown down over the heads of the performers. They have tangible property of enormous value—there can be no doubt of that; Mr. Van Oss's investigations confirm strikingly the assertions about the richness and abundance of the South African gold deposits. But gold, when capitalized at three or four times its value, is just as sure to come down with a crash as is pig iron or copper.

THE CONDITION WHICH CONFRONTS NEW YORK CITY.

THE fact in the present canvass in this city which not only dominates all other facts, but makes every other fact seem petty and unimportant, is that we are threatened, through the coming election, with a return of Tammany to power. We are not to-day concerned with the question whose fault it is; the even distribution of blame may be left to quieter times. But it may be said in general terms that it is the fault of the population of this city. We are firm believers in the doctrine that people generally, in the absence of foreign conquest, have the kind of government which they deserve and their particular variety of human nature calls for. The gang who took possession of the city in 1888 did not seize it by force; they were voted into it. Nor did they get their renewed lease of power in 1892, after four years of crime and outrage, by any special interposition of Providence. They got it by consent and approval of 173,000 New Yorkers, among whom were men of all classes and conditions, including members of the City Club. It took six years of administration compared to which that of Turkey is respectable, and a final explosion of vice and wickedness such as no civilized city in modern times has ever seen, to rouse enough of us into casting these devils out of power.

What we are now asked to do by some is to express our disapproval of "dickering," and our sense of the imperfection of the Committee of Fifty, and our faithfulness to the principle of non-partisanship, by running the risk of restoring Tammany, with all its horrors. That the Plattites and Stecklerites and O'Brienites should be willing to run this risk, it is easy to understand. The Tammany régime never was really repulsive to these gentry. In fact, they flourished under it as they could not flourish under a reformed city government, by means of bargains, and dickers, and deals, and "diplomacy," as Platt calls it. They would vastly sooner have Gilroy or Grant in the mayoral chair than Mr. Strong or Mr. Low or Mr. Smith. What astonishes and perplexes us is, that a good many people who surely hate and fear Tammany as much as we do, seem to contemplate its restoration with a certain calm, if it only enables them to protest against "dickers" and to maintain their own character for consistency. Their attitude strikes us as very much resembling absorption in the question of the best form of government, or the comparative merits of protection and free trade, when a Tartar horde was one day's march from the city.

If it were possible that defeat at the polls next month would leave the cause of reform where it stood this time last year—with an overwhelming torrent of indignation and hope and moral fervor behind us—we do not know that we should not cheerfully face defeat for the sake of a ticket to which no one could object on the ground of either principle or expediency. But we cannot go back. Much has happened since then. The situation has changed, and it has changed owing to the character of the constituency. Who could have supposed last year that the German-American Reform Union, composed, as we thought, of such nice, intelligent immigrants, would, after all it said and saw of Tammany, turn round this year, and offer to put Tammany back for a certain number of barrels of Sunday beer? Who could have supposed that a large body of native Republicans, middle-aged, Presbyterian, Methodist, and Baptist, would combine together to hinder all legislation necessary to make the defeat of Tammany effective for reform and purification of the city government? And yet both these things have happened. No; we cannot go back one year. If we go back at all, we must go back six years. We must go back to the days when 30,000 Republican registered voters refused to vote to defeat a Tammany Mayor; when thousands of resolute optimists thought Tammany rule not such a bad thing after all, and its assailants ridiculous and crack-brained persons; when the masses of the poor believed Tammany invincible and police blackmail a feature of American government, and when our leading public offices were firmly held by the scum of our population.

Tammany did not get possession of the city at one stroke. It took four years to do it. It will take four years, in the popular eye, to oust it. It will never be thoroughly gone until the bulk of the voters believe it is gone. They do not believe it now. They expected what we now see—a division among the friends of reform on all sorts of pleas, some good, some bad, and some trifling. They do not yet understand what reformers mean by non-partisanship. They have seen the offices of the city distributed by reformers on the old Tammany principle, to which they are used and which they comprehend. The reformers, in fact, they look on as a subject population might look on a foreign conqueror, who would probably soon depart and leave them under their old rulers. Hence a very widespread readiness to run back to the "Wigwam" on the slightest sign of wavering or dissension among the supporters of the new régime. That Tammany thinks these hopes or fears well founded, we may fairly infer from the character of its nominations. In none of them is there the slightest sign of concession either to the Fifty or the Good Government clubs, Parkhurst or Roosevelt, or any other champion of reform. No pandering to the moral sense of the community is visible in one of them. In fact, it has made a collection of all its worst and most notorious rascals and offered them, in sheer defiance, for nearly every office now vacant. Moreover, it expects to elect them through the divisions of its opponents. If it succeeds, all the consolation we shall have will be that the Good Government men sold their lives dearly, and that Dr. Parkhurst made it hot for the enemy under the old flag.

We reformers are not engaged in founding a new religion, or establishing a church in New York, or seeking to emancipate slaves or convert the heathen. We are trying to provide the city of our residence with a decent administration, and, in a measure, to force it on an ignorant and unwilling constituency. In many ways our work resembles an attempt to get the denizens of a tenement-house not to keep potatoes in their bath-tubs, and not to cut away the stairway for kindling-wood; but we have perforce to get their consent to their own elevation, and the apostles of dirt and disease are waiting outside to witness our failure. Is it not, under these circumstances, rather absurd to ask us to risk this failure sooner than acknowledge that Keating is as good a man as Blauvelt, or Hamilton as good a man as Lockman? Which is the better man we confess we do not know, and our position, we take it, is that of about 100,000 voters in this city. Nor are we disposed, i view of the danger to which our disputations expose us, to inquire too curiously just now as to the considerations to which either Hamilton or Keating owed his nomination. The penalty of quarrelling over them is too tremendous. We are not willing to burn our house down to roast a pig, no matter how scarce fuel may be. We prefer fasting a while if necessary.

THE LATEST SOCIALISM 300 YEARS AGO.

To learn that folly is no new thing under the sun is, it must be confessed, only a dubious comfort. If the wild whimsies of unreason have marked all past centuries, the chances are they will not be absent from future ages; and that, as Thomas Fuller said, when discoursing on the hereditary nature of evil, "is bad news for my son." But even a captious mind may be reassured by reflecting that, if folly has been persistent, so have the social forces which somehow meet and vanquish it; that the world has, after all, blundered along to happier ways, and will doubtless wag on pretty successfully till a comet or the return of the ice age winds everything up. In particular is there a certain amount of rest for the weary to be found in the knowledge that social and political doctrines which, we are often told, are as entirely new as they are to be entirely fatal to liberty and property, are really but so many cast-off clothes brought out from ancestral attics.

A writer in the *Journal des Économistes* for September 15, M. Castelot, makes some of the very latest forms of hostility to "capitalism" seem antiquated enough by his researches into the commercial and economic and legislative history of Germany in the sixteenth century.

Scarcely one of our most thoroughly "modern" attacks on capital fails to appear in M. Castelot's enumeration of the evils complained of and the remedies proposed three hundred years ago in Germany especially, and in the Holy Roman Empire in general. As early as that time had the great discovery been made that a large accumulation of wealth in the hands of one man or one family was a most detestable and dangerous thing, necessarily creating widespread poverty. "How can it be lawful," cried Luther, "in the eyes of God or of men, that one man should in so short a time become rich enough to buy kings and emperors?" It was the head of the great house of Fugger that he referred to—a name that then, in the denunciations of wealth and avarice, played the part which is taken nowadays by that of Rothschild or Rockefeller or Vanderbilt. Nor were the wise ways of limiting great fortunes which some of our social reformers consider their own pet inventions, unknown to their predecessors of the sixteenth century. Among the "Twelve Articles" put forth in the Peasants' War of 1525 (for the nineteenth century read, at will, Knights of Labor, Coxey's Army, the Populist party), was one proposing to restrict private fortunes to ten thousand florins. Any merchant possessing more was to be forced to loan of his superfluity to the less comfortably off, "évangéliquement"; if he would not, the state was to take over the surplus and loan it to the "bougeois pauvres" on easy terms, with no mention of security.

Rage against foreign trade, denunciations of luxury, fierce hatred of bankers and merchants, plans to regulate private life by force, laws and ordinances by the hundred against usurers and monopolists—all these things does M. Castelot show to have been common phenomena in the early part of the sixteenth century; and the phraseology in which they were expressed has often a curiously contemporary sound. Thus, an Augsburg chronicler records, under date of 1519, that the city was then the richest of all Germany, but that, unfortunately, the great merchants were all "great robbers." By their black art of "keeping accounts" and charging interest, they had impoverished all their more honest and less skilled neighbors. For Augsburg read Wall Street, and for the chronicler take one of our Christian Socialists, and the thing becomes at once up to date. The Christian Socialists, in fact, have a good right to call down curses on the heads of Luther, Zwingli, and Ulrich von Hutten, for having said all their good things before them. All the reformers appear to have taken their turn against capital and banking and trade. Luther admitted that commerce must go on, but contended that it must be conducted "chrétiennement." This is to be understood in the same sense as the "evangelical" mode of making loans—that is, to "lend, hoping for nothing again." Of course, Luther, in his charming offhand manner, was for putting "a hook in the snouts" of those merchants who were reluctant to carry on their business in the pure spirit of the Gospel.

Popular rights and the privileges of labor, also, made as great a stir, in their way, in the sixteenth century as they do now. The trades unions took hold of the City Council of Augsburg and proposed to legislate with as high a hand as their lineal descendants in the London County Council. Another link between the centuries will be found, we fear, in the statement that the minority of patricians in the Augsburg Council had little difficulty in managing the majority artisan members, by means of "petits emplois" and a little ready money on occasion. The development of manufacturing brought with it a turbulent working-class, which raged against the competition of foreign manufacturers, and demanded a "minimum wage," in the true spirit of modern enlightenment. There was even a sixteenth-century Grand Army, to complete the happiness of the times and to complete the parallel, as we read that the soldiers who had made the campaign in Italy came back wholly averse to earning an honest livelihood, and loudly insisting on grants from the public treasury with other privileges.

M. Castelot's article is written in a purely historical spirit, and, except in his title, and here and there an incidental phrase, he scarcely glances at the bearing of his investigations on present-day difficulties. Of course, no analogy of the kind can be completely made out. When all is said that can be said for the essential identity of ideas, the modes of expressing them and propagating them and fighting for them are so different from age to age as really to make each affair a new one. It would occur to any one's mind, for example, that socialistic and industrial troubles in a few sections of Germany three centuries ago must be very different, in their magnitude and peril, if not in their fundamental causes, from our world-wide disturbances. But it should be noticed, after all, that the international character of labor troubles and social unrest has already ceased to have the terror which enveloped it, for many thoughtful minds, ten and twenty years ago. The scale of the problem does not alter its essential nature. International resistance has met and conquered international aggression. Capital has always known how to defend itself from attacks of the kind M. Castelot describes, and doubtless always will know how.

LECTURES BEFORE COLLEGES.

The Boston *Congregationalist* printed some unpleasant remarks a few days ago on the invitation given by Cornell University to Mr. C. A. Dana of the *Sun* to lecture to the students on "Journalism." An announcement that a students' lecture course at the Michigan University is to be opened on October 25 by Senator David B. Hill shows that the point of view on which it commented is spreading among the colleges—or, in other words, that the young men are taking the suggestion of their teachers to heart. To speak more plainly, the colleges are evidently following the example which has been set now for many years by the periodicals in refusing to maintain standards of morality of any kind, or to make any discrimination between writers, on moral grounds, or to consider anything in the selection of contributors, or even of subjects, except the questions, "Will he be read? Will his article pay?" There were visible signs of a tendency towards this commercial standpoint a year or two ago over the football matter. As the football craze grew among the youth, the opinion (mistaken opinion, it would seem) gained ground that football triumphs would draw students to the institution which achieved them, and there were too many instances in which the faculty seemed to encourage this belief—that is, to encourage the athletic mania, not in the interest of either health or learning, but as a matter of business. And yet if there be a single place in the United States in which commercial considerations should never tell, it is in seats of learning. It is of the last importance that the American man, in the period when his moral gristle is turning into bone, should find himself in a region in which things are not expected to pay.

Asking people to lecture to young men without reference to the moral place they occupy in the community, and without reference to the influence their career has had in lowering or raising the standard of public morality, or in moulding the tone and temper in which men approach the great social and political questions of the present day, is surely a very serious matter. A lecturer always seems to young men to be armed with some sort of authority; and some sort of authority he ought to have—that of learning, or public service, or intellectual distinction. Some such authority he generally has, though men lecture often who have none of it, and propose simply to gratify people's curiosity, like the Claimant, or Breckinridge, and the story-tellers and funny men to whom Major Pond sometimes treats us. But certainly no lecturer should be introduced into a college and presented by the faculty or by any lecture committee to the students, whom they are not willing to present for admiration or imitation; of whom they cannot say: "Here is a man worth listening to because he has deserved well of his country and his kind, because his success in life has been achieved through manly arts, and because the record of his experience in his calling is sure to be pure and inspiring."

No other kind of lecturer should ever get a hearing in any such place.

We think it would be well for the public if the magazines adopted a rule of the same kind about their contributors, but then, magazines are avowedly published to make money and not to instruct youth. Their selection of writers, therefore, on the ground of simple notoriety we can object to only for the reason for which we might object to the exhibition of "freaks" and monsters in a dime museum. Such displays may do harm, but no one pretends that they are meant to do more than amuse, or gratify a more or less vulgar curiosity. Furthermore, the objections of moralists would probably do no more to purify the magazines than the newspapers. Business is business, and when the money is coming in, the cry of the preacher waxes very faint.

But colleges are not, or ought not to be, in business. They are in ethics, in civics, in philosophy, in jurisprudence, but they are not in business. Consequently, even though Croker were to draw a full house by discoursing on organization or blackmail, or "Rocky" Moore on the registration of deeds, it would be wrong for a college faculty to invite either to deliver a course to the undergraduates. We may say the same thing of David B. Hill. If there be any standard of morality left in our churches, schools, and colleges in this country, Hill is an infamous man. Why? Because he concocted, carried out, and boldly defended some gross election frauds on the people of the State of New York. For this the people punished him by defeat at the polls by an enormous majority. Now, if on moral grounds he is not fit to be Governor, he is still less fit to lecture in colleges on any subject. You cannot in such places separate the lecturer or the politician from the man. When a man gets up before a body of youths to tell them the results of his experience, he cannot cut himself in two and leave his worse half in the ante-room. He stands before them not simply as an orator, but as an influence and career. The audience are sure to think of him as such. If Hill were to lecture on any subject that he thoroughly understands and on which he can speak with authority, that subject would be tricks, intrigues, chicane, fraud, and the art of deception for base purposes. It is by such arts he has risen into prominence. It is these arts which have made him known at Ann Arbor, and which have suggested the invitation to lecture. On no subject which it concerns a young man to understand thoroughly, and upon which it is his duty to listen to the voice of a master, can Hill speak as one who knows; while his whole history as a public man suggests nothing but "ways that are dark and tricks that are vain."

We trust sincerely that this mania for listening to notorious people is not going to run now through all the colleges of the country, as such things sometimes do. It is an honor to be asked to lecture before a college, and, if we are to maintain any standard either of professional competence or of personal morality, it is an honor which should be bestowed with great discrimination. It is in vain that we ask our young men to live with the mighty dead, with Plato and Shakspere and Milton and Fénelon, if we ask them at the same time to live also with Dick Croker, Dave Hill, and Matt Quay. We must make our election. If colleges are meant to make tricky politicians and electioneering cheats, there must be no hypocritical pretence of respect for the great names of other ages, for the men of light and leading who make the glory of the race.

AMERICAN COLONIAL MANUSCRIPTS IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM.—I.

LONDON, September 1895.

IN my recent letter upon manuscripts relating to the history of America which are preserved in the British Museum, a list of some of those manuscripts was promised. This list is now given: D. D.

Egerton MSS. 1,717, f. 117—Extract from a letter respecting the discoveries by the Russians on the northwest coast of America, September 23, 1764

Lansd. MSS. 1,177, f. 217.—Dissertation sur les côtes occidentales de l'Amérique Septentrionale.

Lansd. MSS 1,177, f. 268.—Remarque sur les côtes occidentales de l'Amérique Septentrionale, la terre de Jesso, et la Californie.

Add. MSS. 28,140, f. 34b.—A generall description of the American coasts and seas, with bearings and distance of capes and headlands, observations on currents, etc., translated from a Spanish MS. written by Capt. Domingo Gonzales Caranza, royal pilot 1718.

Add MSS. 27,856–27,858.—Francis Place. Papers relating to the discovery and history of America. Three volumes Paper, xix. cent., quarto.

Add. MSS 27,891, f. 1.—Sailing directions for different parts of the eastern coast of the United States, 1772–1778.

Sloane MSS. 3,861, f. 67.—History and description of the English Dominions in America.

Add. MSS. 15,898, f. 129.—An account of his Majesty's Plantations in America, n. d.

Add. MSS. 23,615.—Copy of the representation of the Lords Commissioners for Trade and Plantations upon the state of His Majesty's Colonies in the Continent of North America; Whitehall, 8 Sept., 1721. At the end is "A Map of the English and French Possessions on the Continent of North America. 1727. H. Popple." See King's MS. 205. Paper, xviith cent., folio.

Add. MSS. 21,886.—List of plans, chiefly of places in N. America Paper, xviii. cent., quarto.

Egerton MSS. 2,395.—Miscellaneous official papers relating to the English settlements in America and the West Indies, chiefly documents submitted to or issuing from the Council of Trade and Plantations, with a few original letters; 1627–1699. A large part of the collection appears to have been formed by Thomas Povey, Secretary to the Council. The contents are:

Folio 202.—Draft of an Act to incorporateing a Company for the trade of America; n. d. [? 1659]

Folio 370.—A grant of the office of Receivor Generall of the Revenues of the Forreigne Plantations in America & Affrica to Thomas Ross and Thomas Chiffinch, Esqrs.; 9 Apr. 15, Chas II. [1663]. Copy.

Folio 380.—Appointment of a Receivor General for Revenues out of America; circa 1668.

Folio 672.—Mémoires d'une découverte . . . depuis la source du fleuve St. Laurens en Canada jusqu'à la Rivière de Michichipsi dans la Floride, addressed by L[ouis] Le Page de l'Omesnil to [? Charles II.].

Add. MSS 31,358.—A Survey of Lake Huron by Lieut. Henry W. Bayfield, R. N.; 1819–1822, 4 ft. 9 in. square.

Cotton MSS. Otho E. viii, f. 145.—An account of a country between 35 and 45 degrees lat. fit for a settlement.

Harl. MSS. 2,334, f. 86b.—Off America.

Harl. MSS 2,334, f. 88.—Off the American Islands.

Egerton MSS.—2,395, ff. 86–109.—Papers on the advancement of the English interests in America; [circa 1656–1658].

Add. MSS. 24,982, ff. 60–287.—Estat présent des Isles et Territoires du Roy d'Angletterre en Amérique . . . avec les cartes de chaque place et des tables astronomiques, qui serviront de calendrier aux habitants Anglois de ces pais là, depuis l'an 1686 jusqu'en 1700, etc. Most of the maps and part of the text are from Robert Morden's Geography Rectified [London, 1700].

Harl MSS. 6,273, art. 1.—A Memorial of Col. Quary concerning the State of Pensylvania & the other Colonies of America. Date June 16, 1703.

Add. MSS. 15,483.—Lists of the Councils in the several Plantations in North America, with the names of the persons recommended to fill up the vacancies in the said Councils, 1703–1711.

Add. MSS. 15,484.—Description of the Ports in the different Provinces of North America, their trade, extent, etc.; drawn up about the year 1770.

Add. MSS. 15,485.—Accounts of the exports and imports, with the number of vessels, their tonnage, etc., that have entered inwards and cleared outwards, in the several Provinces of North America, and its Islands, between 5th Jan., 1768, and 5th Jan., 1769.

Add. MSS. 27,856.—Notes on voyages and the discovery and geography of America.

Lansd. MSS. 100, art. 14.—A discourse on the discovery of the hithermost parts of America, written by Capt. Carleill to the Citizens of London.

Add. MSS 24,982.—Memoirs, etc., relating to the English and French possessions in America and the West Indies.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 448.—Order of the Privy Council to the Committee of Plantations to advise "about the Rendition [to the French] of places in America," Aug. 30, 1667. *Signed* by [Sir] Edward Walker [clerk of the Council, and Garter King at Arms].

Add. MSS 22,875.—Plans, etc., of Fortifycations in British North America, 1750.

Add. MSS. 32,450 z.—Hale County, *Alabama*, U. S. Plan by V. G. Snedecor, 1870.

Add. MSS 31,981 B.—Cape Fear River, in N. Carolina. Plan of the mouth of, 1749.

Add. MSS. 32,496, f. 44b.—Carolina, North. Massacres by Indians in, 1711.

Add. MSS. 33,028, f. 400.—Carolina, North. Memorandum of ships entering the ports of, in 1739–1740.

Add. MSS. 32,715, f. 172.—Carolina, North. Observations on the Colony, 1748.

Add. MSS. 33,030, ff. 351 356.—Carolina, North. Memoranda relating to; 18th cent.

Add. MSS. 33,029, f. 204.—Carolina, North. Abstract of letter from, 1755.

Add. MSS. 6,727, f. 84.—Carolina, North America. Charter, 17 car. II.

Add. MSS 6,194, p. 280.—Carolina, North America. Memorandum of a brief description of Carolina, 1660.

Add. MSS. 15,903, f. 115.—Report relative to the English discoveries in Carolina and Florida, and the settlement of English and French claims [temp. George I.]; the writer [Edward Billing ?] speaks of himself as having been Governor of New Jersey towards the end of the reign of Charles II.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 661.—Proposals in order to the improvement of the county of Albemarle in the Province of Carolina in point of Townes, trade, and Coyne, by George Milner; [? temp Chas II.].

Add MSS. 32,693, f. 37.—Carolina, in America. Lord Carteret's statement of his claims in relation to, 1740

Add. MSS. 33,028, ff. 185, 187.—Carolina, South. Calculations of the revenue of, 1728.

Add. MSS. 32,709, ff. 123, 125.—Carolina, South. Letters, etc., conc. disputes of the Assembly with their agent in England, 1746.

Add. MSS. 33,030, f. 283.—Carolina, South. Observations on the state of; 18th cent.

Add. MSS. 33,030, ff. 346, 351–355.—Carolina, South. Memoranda relating to; 18th cent.

Add. MSS. 22,680, f. 14.—A short Abstract of the

Contract for transporting a Number of Swiss to S. Carolina.

Add. MSS. 33,029, f. 357.—Plan for the protection of South Carolina, 1756.

Add. MSS. 29,973.—Carolina, South. A Short Description of the Province of, written in 1763 by George Milligen Johnston, M.D., late Surgeon-General to all the Garrisons for his Majesty's forces in S. Carolina and Georgia. Printed with some corrections and notes by the author.

Add. MSS. 32,860, f .301.—Newberry, in South Carolina. News from, 1755.

Add. MSS. 22,680, f. 11.—Reasons humbly offer'd for fortifying Port Royal harbour in S. Carolina and for erecting an Hospital and Store houses there.

Add. MSS. 33,029, ff. 204, 229.—Connecticut in N. America. Abstract of official letters from, 1755.

Add. MSS. 15,487.—Connecticut, Province of. Papers relating to its boundary line, 1735–1754.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 393.—Instructions to Colonel Richard Nicolls, Sir Robert Carr, George Cartwright, and Samuell Mavericke, Commissioners, for the visitacion of our Colony of Connecticott; 23 Apr., 1664. Sig.ed, with seal.

Egerton MSS. 2,646, ff. 181, 240.—Saybrook, in Connecticutt. Letters from G. Fenwick, in 1642, 1643.

Egerton MSS. 2,648, f. 1.

Lands. MSS. 707, f. 70.—A geographical and historical narrative or summary of the controversy between Daniel Nimham, Sachem of the Wappinger tribe of Indians, and Roger Morris and others of New York, heirs and representatives of Col. Frederick Philipse, also of New York, concerning a large [ ] of land contained within the limits of Philipse's Upper Patent, so called, in the southernmost part of Dutchess County in the aforesaid Province. With the decision of the above controversy by the Council at Fort George in the City of New York, March 11th, 1767.

Add.MSS. 21,782–21,783 —Correspondence of General Haldimand with officers commanding in Detroit and its dependencies. With enclosures and papers relating to Detroit; 1772–1784. Two volumes.

Harl. MSS. 1,589, f. 22-22 b.—Histoire de la Floride, par Bazanier.

Add. MSS. 14,034, f. 227.—Papers relating to East Florida and Pennsylvania, 1767, 1771.

Add. MSS. 14,034. f 382.—Memoranda relating to the Colony of West Florida, by Capt. Johnston.

Add. MSS. 13,988, f. 169.—Paper relating to the conquest of Pensacola in Florida.

Add. MSS. 21,675.—Letters and papers, relating chiefly to Ordnance affairs at Pensacola, during Gen. Haldimand's command in Florida, 1765–1773. At the end of the volume are plans of the city and fort of Pensacola.

Add. MSS. 33,029, ff. 71-76, 122.—Georgia, in N. America. Establishment of the colony circa. 1751-1754.

Add. MSS. 33,029, f. 357.—Georgia, in N. America. Plan for the protection of, 1756

Egerton MSS. 1,137, 1,138.—Georgia, in N. America. Drawings and natural history of the birds of, by I. Abbot, 1804.

Add. MSS. 14,036 —Georgia, in America. Maps of.

Add. MSS. 13,970 b.—Georgia in America. Map of part of, by W. Hack [?].

Add. MSS. 21,672, ff. 227, 229.—Addresses of the Houses of Assembly to Sir James Wright, Bart., Governor of Georgia, March 9, 1774.

Egerton MSS 1720.—Correspondence of Gedney Clarke, senior, and Gedney Clarke, his son, with William, Count Bentinck, President of the States-General of Holland, on the affairs of the newly formed settlement of Demerara and the insurrection of negroes in Berbice, with translations in Dutch and French, and other papers; 12 July,1762—23 Aug. 1766.

Add. MSS. 6,807, f. 108. 6,816, f. 85, 6,825, f. 42.—Louisbourg, in North America. Notice of its surrender, Aug., 1758.

Add. MSS. 33,029, f. 357.—Louisiana, in N. America. Plan for conquest of, 1756.

Add. MSS.17,569, f. 126.—Report of Francisco Honibrados on the climate and commercial advantages of Louisiana, 1763.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 497.—Letter about Maine, Dec. 18, 1674.

Add. MSS. 15,488.—A volume of Papers, manuscript and printed, relating to the case of the Kennebeck River, in the province of Maine, between the Brunswick Proprietors and the Plymouth Company, 1752–1762.

Add. MSS. 28,089, f. 1.—The proposalls of Ferdinando Gorges, Esq., for the sale of the province of Maine in New England to his Maiestye, 24 Feb., 1675–6 Signed.

Add. MSS 21,685.—Copies of accounts and papers relating to the farm of Long Meadow, in Maryland, belonging to General Haldimand, 1766.

Add. MSS. 21,494, f. 60.—Memorial to John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, on the plantation of land between Maryland and Carolina; n. d, temp Anne.

Add. MSS. 15,489, f. 61.—Prince George's County in Maryland. Papers relating to, 1740–1748.

Add. MSS. 33,231, NN. 9.—Fort Bedford. Maryland. Plan of.

Add. MSS. 15,486.—Copies and drafts of papers, consisting chiefly of Reports, etc., relating to the Memorial of the Governor of Massachusetts Bay, in which he sets forth divers encroachments committed by the House of Representatives on the King's Prerogative, 1720–1724.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 387.—Instructions to Colonel Richard Nicolls, Sir Robert Carr, George Cartwright, and Samuell Mavericke, Commissioners to visit our Colony of the Massachusetts in our Plantacion in New England, Apr. 23, 1664. Signed by Charles II. and countersigned by Henry Bennet [Secretary of State, afterwards Earl of Arlington] With seal.

Add MSS. 5,489, f. 69.—Massachusetts Bay, Company of. Abstract of the charter for its incorporation, 1628

Add. MSS. 15,487.—Collection of Papers, chiefly original, relating to the settlement of the boundary line between the provinces of Massachsetts Bay and Connecticut, with maps and surveys, 1735–1754.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 199.—Objections to the encroachments of the Massachusetts Proprietors ; [temp. Commonwealth (?1659)].

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 442.—Command to the Governor and Council of Massachusetts to send representatives to England; 1666.

Egerton MSS 2,395, f. 299.—Report of the Councill for forreigne Plantations concerning the Encroachments of the Massachusetts Colony; endorsed Apr. 8, 1661.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 671 —Petition of Lyonell Copley and other "Merchants adventures trading in the Iron Workes in New England" to the "Committee for forraine affaires," for redress on account of the seizure of their Estates in Massachusetts; [? temp. Chas. II.] Copy.

Egerton MSS. 2,659-2,675.—Massachusetts, N. America. Correspondence and papers of Gov. T. Hutchinson, his family and others, 1741–1821.

Add. MSS. 33,029,f.21.—Massachusetts, N.America. Treatise on the paper currency in, circa. 1745.

Add. MSS. 32,735, ff 119, 123, 129.—Massachusetts, N. America. Papers relating to, 1754.

Add. MSS. 33,029, ff. 204, 206.—Massachusetts, N. America. State of the colony, etc., 1755.

Add. MSS. 15,486.—Massachusetts, Province of. Papers relating to the Governor's memorial touching encroachments by the House of Representatives, 1720, 1724.

Add. MSS. 15,487.—Massachusetts, Province of. Papers relating to its boundary line, 1735–1754.

Add. MSS. 32,975, f. 477.—Massachusetts, Province of. Vote of thanks to the Duke of Newcastle from the House of Representatives, 1766.

Add. MSS. 32,980, f.116.—Massachusetts, Province of. Protest of the House of Representatives against the Stamp Act, 1767.

Add. MSS. 32,982, ff. 62, 64, 66, 68, 71, 73, 97, 121, 134, 198.—Massachusetts, Province of. Papers relating to, 1767.

Egerton MSS. 2,660, ff. 164–212, *passim*.—Massachusetts, Province of. Letters, etc., relating to Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts Bay, 1817–1828.

Add. MSS. 32,851, f. 108.—Mississippi, River. Intelligence of French troops being sent to, 1754.

Egerton MSS 2,395, f. 573.—New England. Lists of Books treating of New England, circa., 1677.

Sloane MSS. 3,105, ff. 1-8.—A treue relation concerning Newe England as it was presented to his Matie.

Lansd. MSS 204 ff. 105-114.—New England. A relation of New England. Imperfect.

Sloane MSS. 172, ff. 119-127. Relation of the state of New England [temp Car. I.]—It begins, "For the perfect understanding of the state of New England these three things deserve consideration, viz.: 1. The Countrie. 2. The Comoditie. 3. The Inhabitants."

Egerton MSS. 2,395, ff. 426-441.—Reports upon the state of the New England Colonies, 1665.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, ff. 396, 397, 414, 522.—Papers on the state and government of New England; [circa 1660-1644], 1665.

Add MSS. 14,034, ff. 202, 211.—Papers concerning New England and the Islands of Madelaine, 1754, 1763.

Egerton MSS. 2,675.—New England, N. America. History of, from 1620 to 1680 by W. Hubbard, 18th cent.

Egerton MSS. 2,645, f 245. 2,646, ff. 58, 76, 181, 240. 2,648, ff. 1, 6, 10, 12, 84, 105, 133. 2,650, ff. 333, 348.—New England, N. America. Letters from settlers in, 1631-1646.

Add. MSS. 33,029, ff. 21, 52, 54.—New England. N. America. Treatise on the paper currency, etc., circa 1745–1747.

Add. MSS. 33,231. H. H.—New England, N. America. Chart of the coast, 1711.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, ff 518,520.—New England, N. America. Accounts of Indian raids on New England; 1675; MS. and printed.

Lands. MSS. 1,052.—A Collection of sundry original Deeds of Conveyance of Lands ceded by Indian Sachems to English Settlers in New England, from 1659 to 1711; with Covenants and Agreements made between the English Inhabitants within the jurisdiction for the river of Connecticut, and Miantinome, Chief Sachem of the Narregan Sets and Poquaumor Unkas, Chief Sachem of the Montegrins, Sept. 21, 1638.

Harl. MSS. 167, ff. 105, 106.—Some notes written by Sr. Simonds D'Ewes concerning the planting of New England.

Add. MSS. 24,516, f. 115.—Emigrants to New England, etc., in 1635.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, ff. 449, 454.—Order of the Privy Council to the Committee of New England to "make a review of what hath been done concerning that plantation"; Oct 2, 1667. Signed by [Sir] Richard Browne [Clerk of the Council].

Add. MSS. 33,029, f. 212.—Boston in New England. Abstract of official letter from, 1755.

Egerton MSS. 2659, ff. 50, 56-59, 68, 70.—Boston in New England. Letters relating to the tea destroyed in the harbour, 1773-1774.

Add. MSS. 33,231, NN. 1.—Bunker's Hill, near Boston, U. S. Plan of action at, 1775.

Egerton MSS. 2395, f. 425.—Proposals for the Incouragement of Merchants inhabiting and residing in New England and other his Majesties plantations in those parts of America and for the benifit and aduantage of his Majesties Coustomes [circa 1664]. Signed by James Bollen.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 670.—An Account of all the trading townes and ports lying upon the sea and navigable rivers in [New England] with number of houses in every town; [? circa 1675].

Add. MSS. 15,874, f. 208—Narrative of what passed upon the river Ohio [Aug., 1753—July, 1754.]

Egerton MSS 2,395, f. 497.—Letter about New Hampshire, 18 Dec. 1674.

Add. MSS. 32,692, f. 31.—New Hampshire, N. America. Letter from Councillors and others of, to I. Thomlinson, 1739.

Add. MSS. 15,489, f. 1.—Papers relating to Rumford and Suncook in New Hampshire, 1729–1762.

Add. MSS. 33,029, ff. 243-288, 306, 317.—Ohio, River. N. America. Account of hostilities, and negotiations on, between the French and English, 1754-1755.

Add. MSS. 33,029, f. 34.—New Jersey, N. America. —Appointment of R. H. Morris as Governor, 1746.

Add. MSS. 15,489, f. 44.—New Jersey, Papers concerning, 1722-1772.

Add. MSS. 25,463, f. 78.—Founders of New Plymouth.

Add. MSS. 25,466—"Collections concerning the Early History of the Founders of New Plymouth by Joseph Hunter, F.S.A.," an imperfect draft of the work so entitled, published in 1849, but differing in many respects from the printed copy. Paper; xixth cent.

Add. MSS. 15,490.—New Yorke considered and

improued, Anno Dni. 1695; being an Account of the Province of New York, by John Miller, with a dedicatory Epistle to Henry [Compton] Lord Bishop of London: accompanied by two plans. *Autograph.* Small quarto.

Church Brief B., II. 9.—New York in America. Brief in support of the College there, 2 Geo. III.

Add. MSS. 5,253, art. 18.—New York, Costume of the Indians in the neighbourhood of.

Harl. MSS. 7,021, f. 11.—An Account of the Settlement of the Palatines in New York. With a Letter signed James Du Pré.

Egerton MSS. 2,135, f. 5.—"A real Churchman" to —— Vardill, on the popular disturbances at New York, etc.; New York, May 2, 1775.

Egerton MSS. 2,395, f. 601.—Reasons for granting an act of naturalization to the Dutch and other foreigners in the state of New York; [temp. Chas. II.]

Add. MSS. 33,028, f. 398.—New York, City of. Note of trading vessels entering N. York from 1733-1739.

Add. MSS. 33,028, f. 22.—New York, State of, N. America. Bill for establishing a revenue from, 1710.

Add. MSS. 33,028 f. 221.—New York, State of, N., America. Proceedings on the erection of a French fort at Crown Point, 1732.

Add. MSS. 33,029, f. 67.—New York, State of, N. America. Papers on release of prisoners of war at, 1749.

Add. MSS. 32,818, ff. 53, 67.—New York, State of, N. America. Minutes of the Council of, 1749.

Add. MSS. 32,732. f. 668.—New York, State of, N. America. Minutes of meeting of the Captain-General with Mohawk Indians, 1753.

Add. MSS. 32,735, ff. 152-170.—New York, State of, N. America. Papers relating to, 1754.

Add. MSS. 33,029, ff. 219, 238.—New York, State of, N. America. Abstract of official letters from, 1755.

Add. MSS. 22,679, f. 1.—"Objections offered by the Magestrates of New York to his Honor the Lieut. Governor in Council against a Commission of the Peace being issued for the City and County of New York"; Dec. 19, 1764; with signatures.

Add. MSS. 33,231,NN. 2 —Albany, New York State, N. America, Plan, 1757.

Add. MSS. 33,231,NN. 3.—Albany, New York State, N. America, Lake Champlain.

Add. MSS. 33,231,NN. 4.—Fort Ticonderoga, and environs, on Lake Champlain, 1759.

Add. MSS. 33,231,NN. 5.—Fort George, on Lake George, State of New York, 1759.

Add. MSS. 21,778.—A letter giving a sketch of the natural and civil history of the State of Pennsylvania. Paper, 18th cent.

Add. MSS. 27,363, A—E.—Survey of the Oregon Territory, betw. latitudes 45 degrees and 54 degrees, including portions of the present States of Oregon, Washington, and Wyoming, and part of British Columbia; and a map of Lake Superior; by David Thompson, Astronomer and Surveyor. Paper Rolls, 19th century.

Add. MSS. 21,778.—Haldimand Papers. Report on the Indian Nations and province of Pensylvania, by Pellycrow. 18 cent.

Eg. 2,395, f. 593.—"Letter to Mr. Lewen at New York concerning Mr. Pens Patent," of Pensylvania, n. d. [?1680].

Brief, B. II. 9.—Philadelphia, United States. Brief in support of the college there, 2 Geo. III

Add. MSS. 33,231, f. 6.—Fort Pittsbury, Pennsylvania, 1759. Plan of.

Add. MSS. 33,231, f. 7.—Fort Ligonier, Pennsylvania. Plan of.

Add. MSS. 33,231,NN. 8.—Philadelphia, in Pennsylvania, N. America. Plan of operations against, by the British Forces, 1777.

Add. MSS. 32,420, f. 147.—Pennsylvania, N. America. Observations, by B. Franklin, on the present state of the Germans in, 1753.

Add. MSS. 32,852, f. 108.—Pennsylvania, N America. Address of the Assembly to George II., 1755.

Add. MSS. 33,029, ff. 341, 343 —Pennsylvania, N. America. Abstract of letter from, 1755.

Add. MSS. 32,901, f. 417, 32,932, f, 68.—Pennsylvania, N. America. Accounts of free schools in, 1760, 1761.

Add. MSS. 32,934, f. 283.—Pennsylvania, N. America. List of those holding money for the German emigrants, 1762. Printed.

Add MSS. 33,029, f. 205.—Rhode Island, U. S. Abstract of official letter from, 1755.

Add. MSS. 15,489, f. 33.—Rhode Island. Papers relating to, 1769.

Add. MSS. 15,326 —Rhode Island, Plans of.

Add. MSS. 30,567, f. 207.—Letters patent of James I. for the colonization of Virginia in 1606.

Add. MSS. 28,620.—"A Journal of the Divideing Line drawn between the Colonies of Virginia and North Carolina, begun March 5, 1728, per Colonel Byrd and others." Paper. 18th century. Small quarto.

Eg. MSS. 2,395, f. 354.—"A discourse and View of Virginia," by Sir William Berkeley, Governor of Virginia. Printed in 1662.

Sloane 159, ff. 100-102.—"Certaine overtures made by [Francis fifth] Lord Willoughby, of Parham unto all such as shall incline to plant in the colonye of Saranam, or the continent of Guaiana," 1662-1665.

Add. MSS. 21,993, f. 174.—Documents relating to the foundation of the colony of Virginia in America. 1609.

Add. MSS. 12,496, f. 452, f. 454, f, 456, f. 458.—Proposals of Thomas Martin (brother-in-law of Sir J. Caesar) respecting the question between the Virginia Company and himself, Dec. 9, 1622 ; Capt. Bargrave's project touching Virginia, Dec. 8, 1623 ; "The manner howe Virginia may be made a royall plantation," by Thomas Martin ; Proclamation of the Commissioners for Virginia, 1624 (printed).

Harl. MSS. 7,021.—A Tract, entitled, "Virginia reviewed," addressed to the King (Charles I.) and signed, "George Donne."

Roy. MSS. 18 A. XI.—John Rolf's Relation of the State of Virginia.

Add. MSS. 12,496, f. 459.—"The manner how to bringe in the Indians into subjection, without making an utter exterpation of them," by Thomas Martin, 15 Dec., 1622.

Sloane MSS. 1,039, f. 90.—"A true answeare to a writing of informacion presented to his Majesty by Capt. Nath. Butler, intituled, The unmasked face of our Colonie in Virginia, as it was in the winter of the yeare 1622" (imperfect).

Add. MSS. 12,496, f. 464.—Commission of James I. for the settlement of Virginia, 15 July, 1624.

Eg. MSS. 2,395, f. 666.—"Proposalls concerning building of towns in Virginia" (in the handwriting of Martin Noel?) temp. Charles II.

Hargreave MSS. 494, f. 88.—Report of the Case between the Gov. of Virginia and the House of Burgesses there, heard before the Privy Council. 18th June, 1754.

Add. MSS. 17,019, f. 110.—Virginia. Declaration of the people against the Governor, 1676.

Eg. MSS. 2,395, f. 147.—Report of the Committee for Jamaica and the West Indies to the Lord Protector, on the unsettled government of Virginia, and suggesting Edward Diggs as Governor; (Dec. 18, 1657). Copy.

Eg. MSS. 2,395, ff. 539 to 553.—Copies of letters and papers relating to the rebellion in Virginia under the leadership of Colonel Nathaniel Bacon; May-Aug. 1,676.

Add. MSS. 15,317.—Copy of the Proceedings in the General Court of the colony of Virginia, between John Hita and others, plaintiffs, and Thomas, Lord Fairfax, and others, defendants, relative to certain lands there, illustrated with plans and surveys; attested by Benjamin Waller, Clerk of the Court, and certified by John, Earl of Dunmore, Governor-General of the colony of Virginia, 1771; with various other papers relating to the same. Folio.

Add. MSS. 18,556, f. 13.—Sir R. Kaye's notes relating to Virginia.

Eg. MSS. 2,395, f. 496.—Order of a General Court of Virginia for a fine upon Giles Bland, collector of customs, for an outrage upon Thomas Ludnell, Secretary of State of Virginia; 21 Nov. 1674. Copy.

Add. MSS. 27,382, f. 197.—An Account of the Present State and Government of Virginia, by Henry Hartwell, James Blair, and E. Chilton.

Eg. MSS. 2,395, f. 296.—Queries "concerning the naturall products of Virginia," 4 Mar. 1660(1.)

Eg. MSS. 2,395, f. 368.—"Computation of an Iron Work in Virginia," n. d. [?1662.]

Add. MSS. 29,975, f. 63.—Abstract of a commission on Virginia and the Summer Islands; 9 May, 1623.

Add. MSS. 30,999, f. 100.—Directions for the Capes of Virginia and Channel up to Hampton Road; 18th cent.

Add. MSS. 33,055, f. 33.—Virginia, Colony of. Mem. of the state of the naval offices before they were filled up by the crown, circa. 1752.

Add MSS. 32,736 f. 515.—Virginia, Colony of. Plan for defence of, 1754.

Add. MSS. 32,850, f. 231.—Virginia, Colony of. Extract from Gazette rel. to action with the French, 1754.

Add. MSS. 33,029, ff. 106, 126-135, 174, 210, 234. —Virginia, Colony of. Abstracts of official letters, etc., on affairs in, 1754, 1755.

THE POLICY OF UNIONISM.

LONDON, September 25, 1895.

WHAT can the Unionist Government do to secure the maintenance of the Union?

My purpose is to answer this inquiry from the point of view of a Unionist; but, that my reply may be understood, I must insist upon two preliminary considerations which sometimes escape the attention of Americans. The policy of Unionism is, in its essence, a policy of conservatism. Its aim, as regards England and Ireland, is to maintain the existing Constitution; its aim is not, directly at any rate, to introduce a new condition of affairs. A Unionist Government, therefore, by the mere fact that it prevents the Act of Union from being tampered with, to a great extent fulfils the object of its existence. To place a check, even for a time, on innovation, is in itself no small matter. The mere dead opposition of English statesmen to repeal from 1834 to 1844 broke the power of O'Connell and terminated the agitation for the Repeal of the Union; the six years of Unionist administration from 1886 to 1892 have assuredly weakened, if it be only for the moment, the strength and the prestige of the Irish Nationalists. The party which nominally follows Mr. McCarthy does not wield half the influence of the party which in fact obeyed Parnell. Resistance, let it be conceded, is in one sense no remedy; but a policy of resistance has constantly given time for a rally on the part of the conservative forces in the state and for the gradual spread of disunion among a revolutionary Opposition. A period, moreover, of opposition to change ought to supply, though it rarely does supply, the time within which to cure the real evils which are the sources if not the justification of revolution.

The danger to England of Irish discontent is, in the judgment of Unionists, less pressing than it appears to foreign critics. This is a point on which it is painful to write. That a large proportion of the citizens of a country should be discontented with its form of government is in any case a most deplorable fact; it is the outward sign of a disease the cure whereof is imperatively demanded by every feeling of patriotism. There are few Englishmen who would not make heavy sacrifices for the sake of rendering the majority of Irishmen as loyal citizens of the United Kingdom as are the vast majority of Scotchmen. Yet on all topics of public interest it is well that the plain truth should be spoken. It is therefore right to assert that the actual peril to England of the disloyalty now existing among large classes in Ireland easily admits of exaggeration. This discontent is a subject of the deepest regret; it is not and ought not to be to Englishmen a source of fear. For the most painful feature of the relation between England and Ireland is in one sense a ground for confidence. Irish disloyalty, caused to a great extent by gross misgovernment in the past, is a chronic or a secular phenomenon in the history of the English people. The hatred of

England on the part of many Irishmen has been in former times a much more intense feeling than at the present day, and in past generations Irish discontent has threatened England with far greater peril than at present. In the midst of the war with the American colonies, not only the populace but the leading men of Ireland were united in resistance to England. Yet England survived the loss of the American colonies, and, for good or bad, did not finally lose the control of Ireland. A century ago the Irish people were on the verge of rebellion; the disloyalty of Belfast was as marked as the disloyalty of Cork or of Dublin, and far more dangerous. During the whole of the great war, any French army which had landed in Ireland would have found, as Gen. Humbert's army did find, thousands of Irishmen prepared to welcome the invader. The population, moreover, of Ireland was at the beginning of this century larger than at present: it formed also a far larger proportion than to-day of the population of the two islands which now make up the United Kingdom. Yet England, though surrounded by perils, came victoriously through the severest contest which the country has ever sustained.

Do not let any one for a moment suppose that in recalling these facts I argue or suggest that England can or ought to resist just claims on the part of Irishmen. Might is not right, and no policy will ever, in the long run, succeed which rests upon their identification. But facts must always be recognized. A war between England and some great Power, say with France, is a possibility. In such a war the present condition of Ireland would be a source of English weakness, though, in the judgment of Unionists, not nearly so great a source of weakness as would be the existence of an Irish Parliament controlled by Mr. Healy or Mr. Redmond. My only contention is, that were things to remain as they now are, Irish discontent cannot in 1895 be anything like the same peril to England that Irish disloyalty was in 1782, in 1795, or in 1800.

If these preliminary observations be taken into account, it will be understood why Unionists perceive some great advantages even in a merely defensive policy. Their position in this matter, as in some others, resembles the position of American Republicans during the war of secession. Let me now, however, proceed to answer my question.

My reply, in its most general terms, is that Unionists ought to set before themselves two objects, of which the first is to strengthen the political defences of the Constitution, and of which the second is to remove every cause of Irish discontent that can be removed without touching the Act of Union. Each end, they believe, is attainable by appropriate measures.

First, as to the political defence of the Constitution. Parnell forced Irish grievances upon the attention of the English public by his system of parliamentary tactics. He organized, if he did not invent, obstruction, and thereby for a short time rendered the working of parliamentary institutions all but impossible. Any man who carries his memory back over twenty years or so can remember the striking immediate effect produced by this new plan of party warfare; but any one who looks a little beyond mere momentary success will probably admit that a system of annoyance cannot in the long run insure the triumph of those who adopt it. A nation cannot be brought into bondage by the misuse of parliamentary forms. Obstruction may change and permanently damage English parliamentary procedure, but it will never enable a minority to usurp the authority of the nation. Parnell's success, however, and the passing through the House of Commons in 1893 of a measure of home rule which it is now all but admitted could never have commanded the assent of the nation, are warnings to Unionists that the Constitution must be guarded against insidious or hasty attacks; and Unionists, as it happens, have it in their power both to render Parnell's parliamentary tactics impossible of repetition, and to increase the difficulty of any attack on the Act of Union. They can, by adopting the democratic principle, which prevails in France, in Switzerland, and in other countries, that representation ought to be strictly in proportion to numbers, at once transfer twenty representatives from Ireland to England. This reduction of the Irish representation to eighty or eighty-one members would probably reduce the number of Irish Nationalists in Parliament to a little over sixty. It is, again, on every ground desirable to do away with illiterate voters throughout the United Kingdom, and this step would lessen, though to what extent no one can tell, the parliamentary strength of the Irish Nationalists. Add to all this that, in consequence of recent events, the House of Lords has obtained the power of insisting that no home rule bill shall pass into law until it has definitely received the sanction of the electors at a general election, and that it is easy to trace the slow but certain growth throughout England of the opinion that fundamental changes in the Constitution ought to be submitted directly to the verdict of the electors. Whoever will fairly consider these things will come to the conclusion that the Unionist majority will find no insuperable difficulty in providing political safeguards for the maintenance of the Act of Union.

Secondly, as to the removal of Irish discontent. There exist, as most Unionists conceive, at least three different methods for removing some of the sources of Irish dissatisfaction. In the first place, the desire for home rule may, as most Liberal Unionists suppose, be partially satisfied by the extension to Ireland of the kind of local self-government which now exists in England and Scotland; and Lord Salisbury's Government will, we may feel sure, introduce some measure of which this is the object. Nor is there any reason to doubt that such a measure, if supported by the Irish members, may pass into law. There is some advantage in establishing throughout the United Kingdom the same system of local self-government, and it is at least possible that some Gladstonians whose zeal for home rule, which was not very warm at any time, and has now grown extremely cool, may, on the extension to Ireland of local self-government such as exists in England, desist from the advocacy of home rule. But, though most Liberal Unionists hope much from the effects of an Irish Local Government Act, many persons outside politics find it impossible to share these hopes. Whether such a system of local administration as now exists, but has not yet received a complete trial, in England would meet the needs of the Irish people, must appear problematical. It is difficult, further, to believe that, under the present condition of Ireland, the central Government will not be compelled to retain and exercise a power to check the aberrations of local authorities such as the Government does not possess and does not need in England. But, if this be so, it will be hardly possible to assert that Ireland has received the same kind of local government as England. Nor is it easy to convince one's self that the desire for home rule, which is either a wish for Irish independence or at lowest for the recognition of Ireland as a nation, can be satisfied by any extension whatever of self-government to Irish counties or parishes. My doubts, whatever their worth, are not shared by Unionists, who as a party certainly believe that a measure of local self-government will meet whatever is reasonable in the demand for home rule.

In the second place, Unionists, or at any rate Conservative Unionists, hold that a Unionist Government can go a good way toward meeting the wishes of Irish Catholics, and especially of the Irish priesthood, in the matter of education. This is certainly a course more easily pursued by Lord Salisbury and his colleagues than by a cabinet kept in power through the votes of English Nonconformists. What are the concessions, if any, which an English Government could rightly make, or which would conciliate the Irish priesthood, no one could pronounce who has not an intimate knowledge (certainly not possessed by the present writer) of the state of education and of public feeling in Ireland. All that a Unionist can assert is, that to leave questions as to the education of Irishmen, in so far as the state is concerned therein, to be decided in accordance with the wishes of the Irish people in the same sense in which questions as to education in Scotland are decided in accordance with the wishes of the Scotch people, is consistent with every principle of Unionism.

Lastly, Unionists hold that the root of Irish discontent is dissatisfaction (which has lasted in one form or another for centuries) with the system of Irish land tenure, and that just and vigorous legislation may turn Irish tenants into the owners of the land they occupy and thus deprive the home-rule movement of its effective strength. Here we come upon the fundamental disagreement which divides Gladstonians from Unionists. The followers of Mr. Gladstone maintain that Ireland is disturbed by the ardent desire of the people for the recognition of Irish nationality; that the agitation for home rule is part of the great nationalist movement which has distracted Europe for more than half a century, and conclude (as Unionists think) not quite consistently, that aspirations for national independence may be satisfied by the concession of the qualified political dependence which is known as home rule; hence, to English Home-Rulers, the wish of Irish tenants for changes in the tenure of land appears to be a subordinate portion of the demand for the recognition of Ireland as a nation. Unionists, on the other hand, if they are wise, never deny that the agitation first for repeal, next for home rule, and, when occasion has offered, for independence, does represent a real and widespread feeling; but they believe that aspirations for independence would remain little more than aspirations unless they were connected with a very ardent and effective wish on the part of the Irish peasantry for the ownership of the land. This view finds its confirmation in the experience of other countries, in the conclusions of foreign thinkers such as Gustave De Beaumont, who explored the intricacies of the Irish question with thoroughness and impartiality, and above all in the conduct of Irish leaders, who have never found any effective response to their appeals till, so to speak, they touched the earth. Labor has, curiously enough, been the teacher quite as much of Mr. Balfour as of Parnell. Whether the Unionist view of the situation be well or ill-founded it is not my purpose on this occa-

sion to discuss; my wish is only to urge that this view dominates their whole position, and leads to the conclusion that they can take away the sting, so to speak, from Irish discontent by boldly carrying out the system of the purchase of land by means of loans from the state.

For the achievement of this end the present Government have several advantages. The purchase of land (Ireland) act, 1891, committed the whole Unionist party to the settlement of the Irish land question. The certainty that all hope or expectation of the immediate establishment of a Parliament at Dublin is at an end, makes it impossible for any tenant to count on obtaining within a few years almost for nothing the land which he now occupies; an Irish farmer therefore will, it may be supposed, look favorably upon any scheme for purchase on easy terms. Irish landlords, again, must know that there is never likely to be in power in England a Government more disposed than the present Ministry to treat their claims with justice. They may think, and with reason, that the only choice open to them is the choice between immediate purchase or future spoliation. Then, further, though on this point every one must form his own opinion, it is, to say the least, very doubtful whether the mass of the British electors would refuse to sanction a bold and liberal scheme, even if it involved considerable expense, for turning the Irish tenants into peasant proprietors. Neither the vices nor the virtues of the present electorate run in the direction of rigid economy. Be this, however, as it may, Unionists hold, and this is the only point on which I insist, that, by an extension of the policy embodied in the land-purchase acts, they can at any rate prepare the ground for the growth of contentment and loyalty in Ireland. A century ago discontent, not to say sedition, prevailed in Ulster. Gladstonians now blame Ulster for loyalty to the Union. AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE CHICAGO LAKE-FRONT SETTLEMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 3d inst., you publish, under the heading "Suppression by the Press," a letter from Mr. Edwin Brainard, dated the 26th of September.

Of course, you can know nothing of the merits of the matter referred to in Mr. Brainard's letter, but it seems to me that I have scarcely ever seen a clearer instance of pure impudence and unadulterated falsehood. The arrangement come to with Mayor Swift is universally recognized by all parties having the real interest of Chicago at heart as being an extremely beneficial one to the city, and the only sentiment one hears generally among citizens is that of surprise that the railroad company should have been brought to accede to the terms which its officers have agreed to.

There has been no "suppression by the press" in this discussion. The general feeling of the community and among newspapers is one of congratulation at the result obtained, and hope and expectation that the City Council will have the good sense to ratify the arrangement come to by the Mayor. It is only this morning that in the Chicago *Tribune* appeared a whole column of interviews with the leading citizens in the city, all men of almost national reputation, and the unanimous consensus of opinion is that the arrangement is a beneficial one to the city of Chicago and should be carried through.

I think that Mr. Brainard has hit upon a very unfortunate instance to illustrate "suppression by the press." Even the *Daily News*, a paper which has for years been the most active opponent of the Illinois Central Railroad, has little to say about this arrangement.—Yours respectfully, EDWARD A. BRANDEN.

304 OHIO STREET, CHICAGO, October 7, 1895.

PIECE-RATE WAGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Through the kindness of a friend who is an engineer my attention has been called to a short paper entitled "A Piece-Rate System," by Fred. W. Taylor of the Midvale Steel Company, Philadelphia, which ought to prove of interest to a larger group than will have opportunity to see it in the Transactions of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, where it has been printed. I beg leave to report it briefly.

The essence of the system consists in determining the least time in which each and every one of the elementary operations can be performed successfully. The time required for any new piece of work is to be accurately computed, not guessed at. In making out the scheme, such questions had to be considered as: "To determine, formulate, and finally practically apply to each machine the law governing the proper conditions for obtaining the best results." As a first result many machines and tools of standard make had to be altered according to designs determined by the company.

Commissioner Wright (Sixth Annual Report, p. 87) says of the production of iron: "There is not, as yet, a scientific determination of the necessary expenditures in labor, in administration, or in the different classes of supplies in the production of these materials." Mr. Taylor's testimony is that, "of the three managing departments, the commercial, the financiering, and the productive, the latter, in most cases, receives the least attention from those that have invested their money in the business, and contains the greatest amount of risks." Systematization is recognized as a proper means to secure economical management. But can it be introduced into the machine shop and mill? Will it not become "red tape," *i. e.*, be abused and become a hindrance? Mr. Taylor answers from his experience.

The plans for increasing the output were introduced into the shops in connection with a "differential piece-rate" wage. Not only were the men stimulated, but the friction between the men and their employers was reduced, their *morale* improved, and their individuality developed. Whether or no this system of wages proves to be the "final solution of the wages problem," the possibilities arising, through a scientifically economical method of production, for a greater output to be divided between the men and the company, are strongly suggested by the following:

"A standard steel forging, many thousands of which are used every year, had for several years been turned at the rate of from four to five per day under the ordinary system of piece-work, 50 cents per piece being the price paid for the work. After analyzing the job . . . the writer became convinced that it was possible to turn ten pieces a day. . . . In place of the 50-cent rate that had been paid before, they [the men] were given 35 cents per piece when they turned them at the speed of 10 per day, and when they produced less than ten they received only 25 cents per piece. . . . From the day they first turned 10 pieces to the present time, a period of more than ten years, the men who understood their work have scarcely failed a single day to turn at this rate." FREDERICK W. MOORE.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY.

UDALL AND CHAUCER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some time ago, in tracing the sources of the "Roisterdoister," I found that, as had already been pointed out by various German scholars, our first comedy was based upon the two allied Latin plays, the "Miles Gloriosus" of Plautus and the "Eunuchus" of Terence. I was, however, unable to account for certain things in the English play which I felt were not original with Udall. As I believe I have now found an English source of Udall's inspiration, I take this means of calling attention to it, postponing for the present the detailed treatment of the general subject of the sources of the English play.

In his Latin models, Udall found his heroine, if we may so call her, a courtesan, who, in the absence of her lover, entertains another admirer. This character he transforms into a widow, named *Dame Custance*, betrothed to a merchant *Gawyn Goodluck*, who is temporarily away on a journey. During his absence *Dame Custance* is pestered by a young fop of the place, whose approaches she repels. In revenge, he makes an assault upon her house, but is put to rout (iv. 7–8). Nevertheless, the affair places *Dame Custance* in a suspicious light (iv. 3), and when *Gawyn Goodluck* returns, he is loath to admit her innocence until he has made a careful investigation among his friends (v. 1, etc.). Alone and disheartened, *Dame Custance* offers up this prayer:

"O Lorde, howe necessarie it is nowe of dayes,
That eche bodie live uprightly all maner wayes,
For lette never so little a gappe be open,
And be sure of this, the worst shall be spoken.
How innocent stande I in this for deede or thought?
And yet see what mistrust towardes me it hath wrought.
But thou Lorde knowest all folkes thoughts and eke intents
And thou arte the deliverer of all innocents.
Thou didst helpe the aduoutresse that she might be amended,
Much more then helpe Lorde, that never yll intended.
Thou didst helpe *Susanna*, wrongfully accused,
And no lesse dost thou see Lorde, how I am now abused,
Thou didst helpe *Hester*, when she should have died,
Helpe also good Lorde that my truth may be tried."
(v. 3.)

Her innocence is proved, the betrothed are reconciled, and all ends well with a grand supper at *Gawyn Goodluck's* house (v. 4).

In the "Tale of the Man of Law," Chaucer, like Gower, retells one of the stories in the Anglo-Norman Chronicle of Nicholas Trivet, written about A. D. 1334 (Skeat's 'Chaucer,' iii. 409 ff.). A widow, *Dame Custance*, living in seclusion, is pursued by a young knight dwelling in the town (line 585), whose ardent approaches are repelled (589). In revenge (591), he enters her house at night, slays the woman with whom she is sleeping, and later charges her with the crime. The king, who has been away on a journey, returns (604), and, while pitying *Dame Custance*, institutes a trial (618).

"Allas! Custance! thou hast no champioun,
Ne fighte canstow nought, so weylawey!
But he, that starf for our redempcioun
And bond Sathan (and yit lyth ther he lay)
So be thy stronge champioun this day!
For, but if Christ open miracle kythe,
Withouten gilt thou shalt be slayn as swythe.

"She sette her doun on knees, and thus she sayde,
'Immortal god, that savedest Susanne
Fro false blame, and thou, merciful mayde,
Mary, I mene, doghter to Seint Anne,
Bifore whos child aungeles singe Osanne,
If I be giltless of this felonye,
My soccour be, for elles I shal dye!'"
(631–644.)

Her innocence is proved and she becomes the

King's wife. Troubles are not wanting, but in time all is well.

"Who can the pitous joye tellen al
Bitwix hem three, sin they ben thus y-mette?
But of my tale make an ende I shal;
The day goth faste, I wol no lenger lette.
This glade folk to diner they hem sette;
In joye and blisse at mete I lete hem dwele
A thousand fold wel more than I can telle."
(1114-1120.)

The touching episode in which the prayer is found is an insertion of Chaucer's, and so could not have been borrowed by Udall from the original or from Gower. There is, however, a somewhat similar passage in the "Eunuchus":

Thais. me miseram, forsan hic mihi
parvam habeat fidem
atque ex aliarum ingeniis nunc me iudicet.
ego pol, quæ mihi sum conscia, hoc certo scio,
neque me finxisse falsi quicquam neque meo
cordi esse quemquam cariorem hoc Phædria:
et quidquid huius feci, causa virginis
feci, etc. (i., 3.)

It is probable that this was the original source of the scene in the "Roisterdoister"; but that Udall changed the soliloquy into a prayer in which *Custance* refers to Susanna, must be due to the recollection of Chaucer's *Custance*, who did the same thing.

The letter sent by *Roisterdoister* to *Dame Custance*, which, by wrong punctuation, is made to say just the reverse of what the lover meant to convey (iii., 5), may possibly have been suggested to Udall by the episode in the "Tale of the Man of Law," in which the letter sent by the King to his wife *Custance* (757 ff) is intercepted and replaced by one of exactly opposite import (792 ff). GEORGE HEMPL.

ANN ARBOR, October 5, 1895.

Notes.

T. Y. CROWELL & Co. include among their fall announcements: 'Beautiful Houses,' by Louis H. Gibson, with many illustrations; 'The Narrative of Capt. Coignet,' in a new and cheaper edition; 'The Hawthorn Tree, and Other Poems,' by Nathan Haskell Dole; a new edition, two volumes in one, of Hepworth Dixon's 'Her Majesty's Tower'; Keats's Poetical Works in two volumes, with biographical sketch by N. H. Dole; a revived 'Scottish Chiefs,' and Prof. Bascom's latest book, 'Social Theory' (vol. vii. in Crowell's Library of Economics and Politics).

E. P. Dutton & Co. will get out a new and fully illustrated 'Robinson Crusoe,' and will also publish 'The Blue Balloon,' a war-story for boys.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have nearly ready 'Old Boston,' being half-tone reproductions of etchings, with descriptive text by Henry R. Blaney, and 'Gymnastics,' by W. A. Stecher, a text-book of the German system. The same firm also publish collected 'Poems of the Farm'; a new edition of Clifton Johnson's 'The New England Country,' at a reduced price; and 'Two Years on the *Alabama*,' by Lieut. Arthur Sinclair, C. S. N.

The Macmillans will soon publish M. A. Flory's 'Book about Fans,' carefully illustrated, together with a chapter on fan-collecting, by Mary C. Jones. They also announce Mr. Frederic Wedmore's work on the art of etching, in which particular attention will be given to certain neglected artists of the past, while the work of the best contemporaries will not be overlooked. The volume is to contain fifty illustrations.

Prof. F. M. Warren of Adelbert has edited Corneille's "Le Cid" for Heath's Modern Language Series.

Mayer & Müller, Markgrafenstrasse 51, Berlin, W., write us that the library of the late Julius Zupitza, Professor of Modern Languages in Berlin University, has been put in their charge, and that they hope to dispose of it "als Ganzes."

Frederik Muller & Co., Amsterdam, invite subscriptions to 'Abel Jansz. Tasman's Journal of his Discovery of Van Diemen's Land and New Zealand in 1642,' with documents relating to his exploration of Australia in 1644. The volume will consist of photolithographic facsimiles of the original MSS. at The Hague and elsewhere, with an English translation, under the care of J. E. Heeres, of the Dutch State Archives, and C. H. Coote, of the British Museum. The edition will be sumptuous and will be limited to 200 copies. The same firm will continue its reproduction of "Remarkable Maps" in their original size, begun last year, with a double Part ii.–iii., containing about twenty large maps of the seventeenth century showing the various epochs in the cartography of Australia, as understood by the Dutch cartographers. Mr. Coote again furnishes the notes.

A collection of reproductions of sixty-four of the best specimens of Lucas Cranach's woodcuts has just been issued by G Grote, Berlin (New York: Westermann). It is accompanied by an introductory sketch of the artist's development and productiveness by F. Lippmann.

An interesting discovery has been made in the public library of Perugia. It is a copy of the original edition of Dante's 'Questio de Aqua et Terra,' a volume of such exceeding rarity that five copies only are now known. One of these is among the recent acquisitions of the British Museum.

We notice somewhat tardily the fifth and sixth volumes of Dr. Thomas Hodgkin's 'Italy and her Invaders' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). The history in its original form has been before the public for ten years; but Dr. Hodgkin, not content with the high praises it has received, has so amplified it as to make of this late edition a new work. In the present fifth volume, which covers the period from 553 to 600, he describes the Lombard Invasion, following as surely as the somewhat meagre authorities permit the course of intricate events. The great figures of this period are Alboin and Gregory the Great. The sixth volume treats of the Lombard Kingdom, 600-744, and in it we have the story of the remarkable race which seemed likely, at one time, to conquer all Italy and to establish there a united kingdom. That it failed was due to the intervention of the Frankish King, Charlemagne, whose overthrow of the Lombards will be the subject of Dr. Hodgkin's next and concluding volume. It is hard to see where any future historian will find a field to glean after Dr. Hodgkin's careful, thorough, and intelligent harvesting. He has exhausted all sources, and embraces in his survey the political, social, religious, and legal conditions of the age under consideration. The importance of his work is apparent when we reflect that the centuries between the fall of the Western Empire and the advent of Charlemagne were the period not only of the dissolution of the Roman world, but also of the rise of the races from which modern Western Europe has sprung. Maps, views, and genealogical tables add value to these volumes.

'The Islands of the Pacific' (American Tract Society), by Rev. James M. Alexander, is a brief sketch of Protestant missions in those regions. The larger part of the volume is taken up with the narration of the familiar facts of their early history, and comparatively little information is given as to the present condition of the islands. There are evident marks of haste or carelessness in the preparation of the book, which detract from its value. The illustrations of the natives and the scenery are interesting.

The *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* for October prints in full the interesting will of Benjamin Harrison, father of the signer of the Declaration of Independence and also Governor of Virginia, and ancestor of his namesake our ex-President; ancestor, too, as the name of one of his sons, Carter Henry Harrison, indicates, of the notorious ex-Mayor of Chicago. He was a large slave-owner, and in his bequest to his son Charles he expresses his desire that "there may be Five Slaves bought (Vizt) three women and two men as soon as Conveniently can be to Full slave the three Plantations on Secarnis"—a sentence hardly more afflicting to the moralist than to the enemy of the split infinitive. However, respecting some slaves to come to his estate by reversion, he directs that they be "divided into six as equal Parts as Possible, Without Parting men and their Wives." There are more letters of William Fitzhugh in the seventeenth century, a valuable series. "I add no more in this," he says to Nicholas Hayward, "because I am hurried away & hard in drinking with two masters taking their leave"; and twelve days later (August 20, 1690) he asks Mr. John Cooper's aid in "getting of us an able, learned, serious and sober Minister." It is odd to find this number closing with a censure of John Fiske's 'History of the United States' for its neglect of the Plymouth Governor Winslow by one of his descendants writing from Boston.

Lafayette College is to celebrate on October 24 the seventieth birthday of Prof. Francis A. March. The same date will mark the completion of forty years' service of the college by this distinguished philologist.

The American School of Classical Studies in Rome opens this week. Courses for 1895-'96 (the full school year is ten months) cover instruction in the following subjects: Latin literature as relating to customs and institutions; Latin epigraphy and palæography; the antiquities of ancient Italy, and especially the topography and monuments of Rome; early Christian antiquities; mediæval art in Italy. Graduates of American colleges, as well as other persons submitting proof that their studies have been such as to enable them to profit by the advanced work of the School, will be admitted on application. No charge will be made for tuition. The Director for the coming year is Prof. W. G. Hale of Chicago, and the Associate Director Prof. A. L. Frothingham of Princeton. Three fellowships are within the award of the School, two of $600 and one of $500; these have been assigned for the current year. The circulars, announcements, and regulations of the School may be had by applying to the temporary secretary, Prof. Samuel Ball Platner, Adelbert College, Cleveland, O.

The privy councillor, Dr. Von Anrep, has been appointed Director of the Medical Institute for Women at St. Petersburg, which is designed chiefly to provide female practitioners of the healing art for the country districts of Russia. The courses of study, while giving special attention to diseases of women and children and to obstetrics, embrace anatomy, physiology, general and special pathology, therapeutics, diagnostics, physics, chemistry, mineralogy, toxicology, surgery, sanitary science, dermatology, ophthalmology, psychiatry, neu-

rastheny and kindred disorders, and extend over five years. A school of pharmacy is also to be established in connection with the institution. For the benefit of non-resident pupils there is a dormitory, with dining-room under the supervision and control of an "inspectress," who is appointed by the Director. Candidates for admission must be, as a rule, not less than twenty nor more than thirty-five years of age—and they must also be Christians! Every student is required to wear a uniform.

—The September number of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is devoted to a study of the 'Dutch Etchers of the Seventeenth Century,' other than Rembrandt and his school, from the competent hands of Laurence Binyon of the department of prints of the British Museum. Rembrandt's etchings and, to some extent, those of his pupils were dealt with by the late Mr. Hamerton in the first number of the new series of the periodical that writer created. Ostade, Ruisdael, and Paul Potter are the most important of the artists dealt with in the present number, and a fair idea of their etched work, together with that of Backhuysen, Van der Velde, Berchem, Dujardin, and others, is given by the four plates and twenty-nine text illustrations. Ostade is much the most fully illustrated of any of them, with one plate and ten cuts, and justly so, as he is by far the best etcher of them all, and at his best not too far below Rembrandt's average. We could wish that some other example of Ruisdael had been chosen than "The Cornfield," which has been so often reproduced. Paul Potter shows better, perhaps, as an engraver than as a painter, but an engraver rather than an etcher he was. The same inflexibility that mars his painting marks his work on copper. Mr. Binyon's text is scholarly and critical.

—Volume xxii. of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan is completed by parts ii. and iii. just issued, volume xxi. being in one part. Besides the paper already noticed in these columns, we have an account of "Three Popular Ballads" by Lafcadio Hearn. Living in Izumo, one of the oldest seats of Japanese culture, he finds near Matsué four pariah or outcast classes dwelling in villages apart from the thirty-six thousand residents of the city. The normal Japanese shun these villages "as they would a place of contagion." Only by concealing their identity and emigrating to distant places, can these former Eta and assistants at public executions secure the rights and privileges of ordinary citizens; and this, notwithstanding that their legal disabilities were removed and they were "elevated to citizenship" in 1870. The materials for a Japanese 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' are abundant; and in Japan no more than in the United States do social prejudices melt away upon the issue of an edict or even of the gift of suffrage. In two of these settlements of outcasts, the people are believed to be descendants of the family and retainers of Taira no Masakado, the only man in all Japanese history who (in A.D. 939) conspired to seize the throne for his personal occupancy, and whose wooden statue (as the local deity of Kanda) in Tokyo was in 1868 chopped to pieces by the imperial troops. The three ballads preserved by these singularly situated people are in still more singular contrast with Japan's life at this end of the nineteenth century. They are faithful mirrors of very ancient customs and superstitions, and show how much human nature at a similar grade of culture is alike whether in Nippon or Britain. The Rev. A. Lloyd is one of the comparatively few missionaries in Japan who have given earnest study to the peculiar phases of Buddhism in Japan. His presentation of its "Developments," as expressed in prose and verse, occupies 163 pages in volume xxii, part iii. Besides setting forth a general historical view, derived from the best foreign sources, and some suggestive parallelism with and contrasts to Christianity, this English clergyman gives a valuable digest of Japano-Buddhistic moral teachings. He agrees with other critical students in declaring Nichiren (born A.D. 1222), with whom the doctrinal evolution of the Indian faith in Nippon culminated, "distinctly the most picturesque character in the whole history of Japanese Buddhism." It is clearly shown that the coming of Roman Christianity in the sixteenth century saved Japanese Buddhism from self-destruction through intestine quarrels. The appendix on Japanese hymnology, showing the use of popular sacred music to an extent undreamed of by foreigners, is of high value. These twenty-two volumes, now indexed, have no peer in worth to the student of the Japanese country and people.

—The *Korean Repository*, conducted by American scholars in Seoul, continues its good work of enlightening the small world of its readers concerning a nation not yet out of the traditions of hermitage. In the April, May, and June numbers, Dr. H. N. Allen writes of places of interest in the capital, describing especially the white marble pagoda, around which, as rumor has it, the renaissance of Korean Buddhism will be celebrated by the erection of a new monastery. Dr. J. B. Busteed tells of the Korean doctor and his methods. Apart from inevitable quackery and superstition, "the same qualities which characterize a successful physician at home must be found in a good doctor here." The Korean pony, with infallibility in his feet, exhibits total depravity in his general behavior, but affords plenty of fun to the linguist, James W. Gale. Prof. H. B. Hulbert, in a striking article on the origin of the Korean people, works out the clue derived from Dallet, attributes to them a southern beginning, and connects them with the Dravidian tribes of India. The linguistic part of the argument is strong. Of direct American interest is the graphic narrative of a native eye-witness of the massacre of the adventurers who made "an experimental trading voyage" into this country, not yet open by treaty, in 1866. In the schooner *General Sherman* they penetrated to Ping Yang, in defiance of warnings to leave. After resisting with rifles and artillery, during four days, the archery and jingal-fire of the native soldiery, they were driven from shelter by fire-boats, and the whole company of nineteen (three Americans, with two British citizens) were shot, drowned, or beheaded. This episode led to the American expedition of 1871. Wholesome reviews of recent books on Korea, with notes, news, and linguistic essays, fill up this very creditable magazine.

—Some years ago Prof. Raoul Pictet of Geneva, Switzerland, invented a refrigerator for the purpose of fluidizing gases by means of atmospheric pressure combined with a rapidly cooling process. He afterwards experimented in a Berlin laboratory with dogs and other animals in order to determine the effects of extreme cold on living organisms. It was observed that a dog at a temperature of —92 degrees C. breathed more rapidly and showed signs of great hunger, voraciously devouring pieces of bread which a few minutes before he had refused to eat. On February 23, 1894, Prof. Pictet placed himself up to the shoulders in the refrigerator, warmly dressed and wrapped in a fur cloak so as to prevent his skin from being blistered by contact with the metallic sides of the apparatus. He found that at a temperature of —50 C. the fur cloak sufficed to check any perceptible radiation of the natural warmth of the body, but proved to be of no avail at a temperature below —70 degrees C. At a temperature of —105 C. Prof. Pictet experienced, after the expiration of four minutes, an indescribable sensation of tickling in the legs and thighs and even in the interior organs, accompanied by gnawing hunger; his pulse rose from 63 to 67 beats in a minute, and his respiration from 15½ to 19. After remaining 8⅔ minutes at this temperature, he emerged from the refrigerator with a prickling sensation in his whole body and a ravenous appetite that began to be positively painful. After walking two or three minutes on his way home, a reaction set in like that which follows a cold bath, but far more intense. As the circulation returned to its normal condition, his whole body seemed to be full of little needles, and this feeling continued for at least a quarter of an hour. He then ate a hearty dinner and digested it. Since that time the dyspepsia which had made his life a burden for six or eight years has not given him the slightest trouble. This result was all the more gratifying because it was wholly unexpected, for it was with considerable reluctance that Prof. Pictet had entered the refrigerator, simply because he regarded himself as a confirmed dyspeptic. He calls the new method of healing "frigotherapy," and believes it to be an equally effective cure for gout, rheumatism, and similar disorders due to the functional inactivity of any organ arising from lack of vital energy. A building is now being erected in Usedom-strasse, Berlin, under the direction of Prof. Zuntz, as a "Kälteklinik," in which diseases will be treated on the frigotherapeutic principle.

—In a biography of Goethe to be completed in two octavo volumes (the first of which, containing nearly five hundred pages, has just been issued by Seemann of Leipzig), Dr. Karl Heinemann, author of 'Goethes Mutter,' has made a careful study and critical use of the newer sources of information, and has thus produced a work which promises to be by far the best hitherto written on his fascinating theme. The knowledge derived from archival researches has been supplemented by special visits to Frankfort, Leipzig, Strassburg, Sesenheim, Wetzlar, Weimar, Rome, Naples, Palermo, Syracuse, and other places in which Goethe sojourned, and which exerted a more or less marked influence upon his intellectual and literary development. Thus, in the opening chapter, describing the poet's childhood, we have a vivid picture of life in Frankfort during the latter half of the eighteenth century. Interesting, too, is the study of Goethe's pedigree in the light of the doctrine of heredity based on the theory of evolution: on his father's side a stern and sturdy race of North German artisans, and on the mother's side generations of genial and accomplished South German scholars, mostly men of eminence as jurisprudents and of high authority as magistrates; himself the harmonious combination and resultant of these antagonistic factors. Equally graphic are the descriptions of manners and customs in Leipzig and Strassburg,

where Goethe pursued his university studies; and it is curious to note that in 1770 the latter city, although annexed to France, was far more German than the former. The leaders of society in Leipzig were in fashions, ideas, and morals servile imitators of the Parisians, and deemed French the only proper language for conversation. The Strassburgers, on the other hand, still remained German in speech and sentiment as well as in dress. The present volume ends with Goethe's return from Italy in 1788 and the completion of "Tasso" in the following year. The work is profusely illustrated, and will contain about four hundred engravings, among which are thirty different portraits of Goethe. It is to be hoped that the rather meagre table of contents will be supplemented by a full index.

MORE FICTION.

In the Year of Jubilee. By George Gissing. D. Appleton & Co.

The Story of Bessie Costrell. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan & Co.

The Zeit-Geist. By L. Dougall. D. Appleton & Co.

The Plated City. By Bliss Perry. Charles Scribner's Sons.

In the Fire of the Forge. By Georg Ebers. Translated by Mary J. Safford. D. Appleton & Co.

An Errant Wooing. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. The Century Company.

Almayer's Folly. By Joseph Conrad. Macmillan & Co.

Kafir Stories. By William Charles Scully. Henry Holt & Co.

In 'The Year of Jubilee,' Mr. Gissing's dreadful subject is "The New Woman," whom he handles without gloves. He does not pluck her from among the idle ladies of the aristocracy who live for notoriety, nor from the needy literary ladies who perhaps can't manage to live without it, but hales her forth from the obscurity of the middle class. Here he finds her diversely manifested, but always in active revolt against the respectable dulness proudly enjoyed by her mother. In the French family she assumes deplorable shape or shapes. There are three Frenches, each provided by a defunct father with an income sufficient for an old-fashioned girl, and by nature with a store of coarseness and vulgarity. Not one has an elementary notion of duty or regard for religious, moral, or social restrictions of personal liberty. Each pursues her own ends with an unflinching selfishness which excludes not only family affection, but the tribal instinct of union for defence. Flouting principles and propriety, and cynically frank of speech, there is little to choose between the clever, commercial Beatrix, the frivolous Fanny, and the mendacious virago, Ada. The last-named lives earnestly up to the conception of matrimony as of a blessed state in which a woman may shed responsibility, do no work, dress gorgeously, and behave badly, all at the expense of her hapless deliverer from spinsterhood.

Scarcely less offensive than the Frenches, but not so devoid of virtue, is Jessica Morgan, the daughter of reduced circumstances and a vague tradition of gentility. She declares her right to belong to the new order by setting herself to achieve intellectual distinction so far as that may be advertised by matriculation at London University. Worsted in her struggle with "exams.," this feeble creature avenges herself for failure by vindictive betrayal of her friend Nancy Lord, and, that occupation gone, grasps a poor publicity as a fervent leader of the Salvation Army.

The several streams of the narrative merge in the story of Nancy Lord, and the romance interest is attached to her and a lover socially superior to Camberwell trades-people—Mr. Lionel Tarrant. Nancy is sown with the seeds of corruption, but, for various reasons, offers some resistance to their growth. She is as discontented as are the Frenches and Jessica, but saner; as keen for "life," but more fastidious, less egotistical, more passionate, infinitely more difficult to see through and forecast. She alone of the group is capable of abandonment to feeling without calculation of cost; she alone has enough moral sense to know when she has transgressed and to be ashamed. The unpleasantness of the situation between her and Tarrant is seldom mitigated by its treatment in fiction, and it is not for Mr. Gissing to gild facts; yet, alike without gilding or grossness, by a presentation which impresses our reason and feeling, he has stamped the episode with an inevitableness which lifts it beyond questions of taste, and relieves it from any need for justification. The delineation of Tarrant is quite appallingly cold and judicial. A faint suspicion of possible virtue always surrounds him, but the evidences are so scanty and intermittent that, almost to the end, one cannot determine whether such suspicion has not done him injustice. There is, however, no doubt that he is a common product of his time, that Mr. Gissing knows all about him, and, in imparting that knowledge, shows fine technical skill, particularly in illustrating the principle of dramatic suspense.

Since we have and support a school of fiction that aims only at reproducing more or less shocking reality, to 'The Year of Jubilee' let a high place be given. The reality here is perhaps of the most shocking kind, because the author's observation is radical, his courage to expose dauntless, and his criticism of wide application. Yet is he not comprehensive! A not unfair generalization from the novel would be that modern education and opportunity have demoralized women, that they have dropped religion, discarded duty, and, in pursuit of luxury and license, may be led into any immorality that seems to pay. This is, of course, not true, for it takes no account of the women who use freedom from narrow domesticity for intellectual and spiritual advancement. Nancy Lord, it may be remarked, escapes the worst results of her follies from causes quite independent of education or opportunity. Perhaps no novelist can escape his temperament, certainly not Mr. Gissing, no matter how studiously he avoids the appearance of prejudicing the reader. His story is fashioned by his feeling as certainly as his method is devised by his strongly constructive mind. Technically his work is very admirable, and his cold, undecorated style is perfectly suited to concentrate attention on the narrative, and not on the narrator. He is as good a novelist as his school has produced, and for his not being a better one we may blame the pressure of the times.

In 'The Story of Bessie Costrell' Mrs. Ward confines herself to narrative from which we are not distraught by consideration of widely significant problems, social, ethical, or religious. She has so well escaped from generalization that it is permissible to hope that the sordidness, envy, and malice displayed by the village of Clinton Magna may not be intended to indicate an even distribution of bad nature among English rural communities. The incident on which the short tale hangs is flagrantly exceptional, but the three people chiefly involved in its development appear very probable and natural. These are John Bolderfield, an elderly laborer, contemplating an old age of ease to be derived from seventy-two pounds hoarded in solid coin through many years of toil; his flighty niece, Bessie, and her most incompatible husband, Isaac Costrell, an upright and gloomily religious man. Bessie's character is cleverly reasoned. Without the special temptation, her respectability might have long endured unimpaired; with it she was doomed to rapid and complete destruction. Her burning desire to be thought a person of consequence, and not dishonest intention, prompted her to urge her uncle to confide to her his treasure-chest. Then the money was in her cupboard; the shops and the taverns were close at hand. The connection of idea was made, and theft, drunkenness, debt were but natural steps in the progress towards degradation and despair. At the climax, the strains of cowardice, audacity, and violent passion in Bessie are admirably indicated by her remorse, which meant terror of detection, her defiance of the commission inquiring what she had done with John Bolderfield's money, her vain appeal to Isaac to save her from the law, and her final act, impelled by mingled rage and despair.

The large public that has read Mrs. Ward's novels with a comforting sense of self-improvement, of being for the time of the company of great thinkers, will probably be disappointed in the 'Story of Bessie.' Even the satisfaction of liking somebody or sympathizing with anybody is denied them, for nobody of importance is amiable or funny or kind, and the episode, not rising to tragedy, is abominably depressing. On the other hand, the few who care for an exhibition of literary skill and finish will cheerfully grant that Mrs. Ward's short story is in these respects an immense improvement on her elaborate novels.

The motive of Miss Dougall's story, 'The Zeit-Geist,' is presumably to show the spirit of the time expressing itself through independent conceptions of God and of the right way to magnify and praise him. The name is a little large for the narrative of Bartholomew Toyner's wrestle with the devil in the form of drink, and exposition of the purely personal idea of God at which he arrived through the working of his own mind, and by which he was saved. This idea does include the prevalent feeling that love and service of humanity make a rational acknowledgment of the abiding presence of God in the universe, but is otherwise isolated and individual, the outcome of thought applied to the facts of one man's experience. Toyner, aside from his mania for drink, was a good man, especially open to spiritual influence. He wanted to keep straight, and, perceiving that nothing but firm belief in a supernatural control could withhold him from evil, when that failed him in one way, he knew no peace till he regained it in another. The study of Toyner's adjustment of conflicting natural tendencies is interesting, but his conclusions were probably more satisfactory to himself than they can be to any one else. The drama is supplied by the temptations set before Toyner, and includes two or three picturesque incidents vividly set forth. Miss Dougall begins her story at the end—not for any reason the best way, and in this instance unfortunate, because the drop from the somewhat subtle and polished discourse of Toyner of fifty to the illiterate talk of Toyner of thirty shocks the sensibilities and excites incredulity

ty. Piety allied with money may bring about many changes in twenty years, but manner of speech is largely an expression of early environment, and cannot be so perfectly transformed by the discovery of religious beliefs, however adequate to his needs, after a man has come to thirty years.

Few novelists have been more successful in giving a distinct and truthful impression of the social atmosphere of a New England manufacturing town than is Mr. Perry in 'The Plated City.' These towns, as everybody knows, are provided by nature with an excellent line for social demarcation. In the narrow streets about the mills and river are the crowded tenements of the operatives. As the houses climb the rising ground behind the flats, they improve in looks like the elms, while the hill-top rejoices in a varied assortment of pretty and even splendid dwellings, with trees to suit, which give the streets the air of stately vaulted aisles. In paying more attention to the people on the hill than to the denizens of the Flats, Mr. Perry may display a reprehensibly frivolous spirit, especially as he has not discovered among them any glaring vices, any depravity of mind, body, or soul. For this neglect of the lower quarter he partially atones by giving a prominent place to two dwellers in the lowest, that contemptuously isolated region where are permitted to exist people of that race to emancipate which 'The Plated City,' when it was rural Bartonvale, had enthusiastically given its best and dearest. Hence it will be inferred that the question at issue is the social disability which even a suspicion of African blood imposes as heavily in the North that freed the slave as in the South that owned him. Fortunately, the author's handling of a most difficult problem is deft and discreet. There is no argument or discussion; we are not bidden to harass ourselves about rights and wrongs, but only to weep for poor Tom Beaulieu, for whom neither loyalty, nor kindness, nor the glory of the baseball championship sufficed to tempt a friendly hand across the "color line."

The story of Tom and his half-sister Esther is romantic, old-fashioned enough to involve a mystery and to come to an end not hopelessly desolate. It is intricately bound up with the story of Dr. Atwood, who, after the war, had abandoned medicine and given his energies to the manufacture of silver plate. Atwood is drawn with great assurance and vigor. When he gave orders that Esther Beaulieu should be "kept on," his answer to the foreman's reluctance was: "The fact is, in the Atwood plate-works what the old man says goes." When the Rev. Whitesyde Trellys objected to certain French fiction in the Atwood library on the ground of its immorality, and wished to awe the directors with the opinions thereon of the *Flying Buttress*, "Skip it!" cries the donor; "who cares what that fellow says? You take the book, Mr. Trellys, and read us the worst things in it. We're none of us boys, and I guess we can stand it." The end of an extremely amusing incident was the confession of the Rev. Trellys that he could not read French. When an excited mob bars Esther Beaulieu's way shrieking, "Scab!" and "Nigger!" "Fall back! fall back!" shouts the doctor, and, taking the hand of the terrified girl, he leads her to his carriage. These are instances of the doctor's plainly perceived will power and resource in emergency; the plot of the story turns on the force of his concealed sentiments. The doctor is imperfect, but nevertheless a fine and lovable old man. This is the boldness and distinction of Mr. Perry's novel, that, in all his characters, there is not one who might not be well loved by somebody. Even the priggish rector becomes passionate and manly and useful when fire is devouring the Atwood plate-works and threatening scores of lives. We are grateful to Mr. Perry for thus insisting gayly on what the scientists call an "important factor," and what most of his contemporaries and confrères make it a point of duty and honor to ignore.

Since the incoherent historical romances of Dr. Ebers continue to be translated and published in the well known neat and handy edition, it must be assumed that they are acceptable to some portion of the American public, an evidence of a patient plodding spirit not superficially apparent. A little learning is proverbially dangerous, but that is safety's self for a romance-writer compared with too much. Dr. Ebers overflows with German learning and German sentimentality, and has an insensibility to the charm of order, method, form also characteristically German. Such is his natural antipathy for directness that he becomes positively ingenious in obstructive device. For instance, a large part of this tale of Nuremberg in the thirteenth century goes on under the supervision of "Luna," to whose possible comments on the action and feelings we are invited to pay extraordinary deference. Through this complicated representation of nobles, knights, and burghers, of their feuds and loves and intrigues, there doubtless runs some connecting thread, but we take it on faith, the evidence of things not seen. What we have seen and know is the author's failure to write even one of his many fundamentally picturesque or exciting incidents in a way that warms imagination or makes a clear, strong impression on the mind.

While notable British novelists are beating the middle ways of life and the slums for subjects, it is curious to observe the attachment of some Americans to the habits of the aristocracy. We say habits advisedly, for their serious aim seems to be to set their uninitiated compatriots right on questions of etiquette, correct clothing, correct service, and the true inwardness of the function of afternoon tea. To no one is our debt in this respect greater than to Mrs. Harrison. 'An Errant Wooing' is an additional testimony to her slavery in the cause of our higher civilization. Outside of this improving theme the noteworthy passages are descriptions of wanderings in rural England and in Spain, which, though not bristling with original observation, are readable. They are enlivened by some international jests, ancient, yet still able to provoke a smile. Of the story and the people the less said the better. By our manners are we known and judged in this world; then why should we care about the medium of information so helpful for engaging in the scramble of goats wishing to be transformed into sheep?

A novel in which the only white man of importance is a Dutch trader, while all the women are Malays or half castes, does not promise much entertainment. It is well, therefore, to approach 'Almayer's Folly' with no expectations. The figure of Almayer is pathetic, but almost lost in a mob of raging heathen engaged in battle for rum and wives on the banks of a river of Borneo. We have become inured to tiresome fiction supposed to be descriptive of outlandish places, but a feeling of resentment smoulders. 'Almayer's Folly' offers a good opportunity for protest. Borneo is a fine field for the study of monkeys, not of men. The only interesting native of Borneo got away and was long ago introduced to an astonished civilization as

> "The old man from Borneo
> Who's just come to town."

There is nothing intrinsically more interesting about the Kafir than about the Malay, but Mr. Scully, the author of 'Kafir Stories,' manages to use his simple savage with considerable literary effect. He has the artistic sense for selection and proportion and a just perception of dramatic value. Besides that, his way is an excellent one, for when you are done reading the stories, you reflect that his way of telling them gives much of the force and all the charm. Of the stories in which European blood tells, "The Fundamental Axiom" is the best. The incidents and characters are very vividly realized, and the detailed horrors of the last scene may be forgiven because of their forceful presentation and the unquestionable use of each item to the whole structure. "The Quest of the Copper" is a fine tale of battle, and stirs the blood as tales of battle should, though the combatants are only naked Zulus and Makalakas. The last three stories are of utterly heathen practices, and, except the very last, which is funny, decidedly revolting. From the literary point of view, all the work is good, neat, strong, effective, implying ability to tell good stories about any sort of people of whatever race or clime.

SHAW'S HISTORY OF CURRENCY.

The History of Currency. By W. A. Shaw. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

No higher praise can be accorded this book than to say that it is worthy of its subject. The amount of research which it has required is immense, and the difficulties encountered in ascertaining the details of the coinage of the precious metals in past centuries must have been prodigious. The work was, as the Germans say, of a "road-breaking" character, and it stands by itself, as practically the sole authority on the subject. To Soetbeer and Haupt alone of modern writers does Mr. Shaw confess obligation. The eighteenth century, he says, produced some grand, solid, and scholarly works on monetary history; the nineteenth century has brought forth only essays which are slight, polemic, and transitory "to a nauseating degree." But we should explain that Mr. Shaw confines himself to the history of metallic currency and standards, and avoids all reference to the use of paper money. Nor does he investigate the coinage prior to 1252, for before that date the imperfection of records and the insignificance of commerce render inquiry futile.

The most impressive inference to be derived from the vast collection of facts presented by Mr. Shaw, is that of the folly and mischief of all governmental attempts to maintain bimetallism. As he conclusively proves, every such attempt inured to the benefit of astute dealers in bullion and to the detriment of all the rest of the world. Sovereigns were incessantly engaged in fixing the ratio between the precious metals, and they were invariably unsuccessful. If they happened in rare instances to approximate to the market ratio, fluctuations in production and value soon vitiated their ordinances, and they found that one metal or the other was continually taking to itself wings and flying away, in spite of the most stringent legal prohibitions and the most barbarous punishments. In the earlier period of which he treats, "the advantage which was to be de-

rived from a trade in bullion, and from an understanding of the effects of differently prevailing ratios in different countries, was known only to the Jew and the Italian. They plied their trade in secret, and the legislator was only apprised of the result by suddenly finding a slipping away and dearth of coinage."

Gradually the influence of a law of tender came to be understood. Prior to the eighteenth century both gold and silver had been actually employed in European commerce without any idea either of declaring or of restricting the tender of either. During that century limitations on the tender of particular classes of coins came to be imposed, with a view to restricting bullion operations in them, and the final outcome of this practice was the modern monometallic system—the only system which can prevent the secret robbery of the people by the substitution in payment of debts of the cheaper metal for the dearer. England was the first country to adopt this system, and long the only one. It is a mistake to suppose, Mr. Shaw adds, that the law of 1803 worked a revolution in French practice. It abolished the seigniorage on minting, and put a stop to the debasement of currency; but it was framed without any conception of a theory of bimetallism, or of "a bimetallic function to be performed for the good of the human race by bimetallic France. The modern theory of bimetallism is almost the only instance in history of a theory growing not out of practice, but of the failure of practice; resting not on data verified, but on data falsified and censure-marked. No words can be too strong of condemnation for the theorizing of the bimetallist who, by sheer imaginings, tries to justify theoretically what has failed in five centuries of history, and to expound theoretically what has proved itself incapable of solution save by cutting and casting away."

As Mr. Shaw points out, the debasing of coins is a different affair from the attempted establishment of a ratio between silver and gold. His aim is to describe the ebb and flow of the precious metals due to the action of bimetallic laws, but he incidentally shows how debasement promoted this action. The natural effect of debasing coin is an apparent rise of foreign prices. This at once unsettles internal prices, and they rise in the same proportion, but with such inequality of motion as may happen to flow from friction, local ignorance, or want of communication. This is of course the opportunity of the bullion-dealer and speculator, and presently the country finds itself deprived of the best of its money and compelled to struggle with a mass of clipped, mutilated, and counterfeit coins which make it nearly impossible for honest traders to carry on business. Then follow complaints, protests, and petitions, and finally a recoinage, in which generally the same blunders are repeated, even if the same fraud is not attempted. The history of currency as outlined by Mr. Shaw is full of these deplorable performances, and is a pitiful record of human folly and wickedness. Fortunately the era of falsifying coin by governmental action is past, and Mr. Shaw's presentation of the facts makes it seem improbable that the equally mischievous practice of insisting upon a double standard can be maintained in the future.

As to the example of France, of which so much has been made by the bimetallists, Mr. Shaw finds no difficulty in making it clear that at no time during the present century has the actual market ratio of the metals coincided with the legal ratio of 15½ to 1; nor do we need to quote his illustrations of the mischievous results brought upon France by these divergencies. It is enough to say that the figures given by him show that the bullion-dealers alternately exchanged silver for gold and gold for silver, as the values of the metals varied, and that the French people paid the expense of these transactions.

We regret to leave unnoticed many of the merits of this scholarly and powerful work; but any review of it must be inadequate. It will at once take its place as the standard treatise on the subject, and future writers will begin their labors where Mr. Shaw has left off. His collection of mint records and statistics, arranged in tables and expressed in diagrams, is simply invaluable, and no commendation of the enormous industry he has displayed can be too high. The appendices are full of valuable matter, and an interesting index of coins is added. No other index, however, is furnished, but it must be allowed that a work composed so largely of figures is not easily susceptible of analysis, and we are not disposed to cavil at the omission. Mr. Shaw has so greatly enriched the literature of monetary science that it would be ungracious to intimate that he might have done still more.

PUTNAM'S WILLIAM THE SILENT.

William the Silent, Prince of Orange, the Moderate Man of the Sixteenth Century: The Story of his Life as told from his own Letters, from those of his Friends and Enemies, and from Official Documents. By Ruth Putnam. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895. 2 vols. Pp. xxii, 391; ix, 490.

Some careers are of perennial interest. Such, conspicuously, is that of the subject of Miss Putnam's biography. Yet so fully is the story of William of Orange woven into the brilliant narrative of Motley that a new setting forth of his history seems a somewhat courageous, albeit a desirable, undertaking. The abundance of documentary sources now accessible in printed form, to a considerable extent of recent publi cation, gives ample basis for a fresh life of the father of the Netherlands; but it renders the task of the writer necessarily one of selection. Miss Putnam's aim is well indicated in her title. Her two volumes bear throughout the evidence of minute study of and careful selection from the mass of correspondence and official papers which have been gathered by Gachard, Groen, Kervyn de Lettenhove, and others, as well as of the older histories of which Motley made so skilful use, and of the literature which has appeared since his volumes were written. In her preparation, also, the writer has searched for unpublished material at The Hague, Brussels, Breda, and Geneva, and has gained at least a traveller's acquaintance with scenes of interest in her story, including in her journeyings not only Dillenburg, where her hero was born, but Orange, which he never saw, but from which his familiar title is derived. The biographic method adopted, and probably natural limitations of style, give more of the aspect of a chronicle than of a flowing portrait narrative to the work—a characteristic acknowledged in the preface, and detracting, it must be said, from the popular readableness of the story.

Though Miss Putnam's work is thoroughly her own, she exhibits everywhere a close acquaintance with Motley's narrative. Of this she makes no concealment: "Through the labyrinth of partisan opinion . . . Mr. Motley has been my guide, and I have patiently followed his inspiring lead with growing admiration for the untiring industry of his laborious researches, and for the accuracy and skill of his adaptations from the enormous mass of matter that he examined." But her following is not blind. She recognizes the panegyric note in Motley's history as overstrained. "It is possible that, if Mr. Motley had written in the end instead of the middle of the nineteenth century, he might have painted his characters in less heavy lines of black and white, as the aim of the modern historian is to find the man under the dust of the past, not to draw an heroic portrait."

Miss Putnam's William of Orange is essentially identical in qualities with that of Motley; but the figure is more sober, its shortcomings more freely acknowledged, its growth to the greatness of its ultimate attainment more distinctly emphasized. Thus Motley represents the famous interview with Henry II. of France in the forest of Vincennes in 1559 as fixing William's purpose to resist the Inquisition, and he has the testimony of Orange himself in the 'Apologie' as to the importance of the event. But Miss Putnam suggests: "It is doubtful whether any crisis is quite so dramatic at the time as it appears in the light of after events; and the prince, writing twenty-one years later, may have let the knowledge of 1580 color the feelings he experienced in 1559." A similar criticism has sometimes been made regarding Luther's visit to Rome. In like manner, while Miss Putnam does not fail to make evident the thoroughgoing nature of William's opposition to the Inquisition, she evidently ascribes greater weight to the infringed political and commercial rights of the Netherlands, and the imposition of foreign administrators, in developing the Prince's hostility to Spanish misrule, than does Motley. "Whether," she says, "on receiving the memorable confidence of Henry II. in the forest of Vincennes, the prince did then and there resolve to devote himself to checking religious persecution, may be questioned. But, undoubtedly, in the year 1559, there began to grow in the Netherlands a resentment against foreign domination, whether over consciences or property."

Motley calls William's leaving his eldest son in the Netherlands, on his temporary abandonment of the land in 1568, "a remarkable oversight," and has no explanation to offer of an exposure which made the Count de Buren a captive and a Spanish sympathizer. Miss Putnam believes that he "was sacrificed to his father's hope of preserving his Netherland estates, by leaving a representative on the soil." Motley holds that semi-sovereign authority was forced upon Orange by the Estates and people in 1572; Miss Putnam believes that "he had sought it by all the means in his power, having really assumed authority when he issued letters of marque in 1571." In Motley's opinion, again, William "was more than anything else a religious man." Miss Putnam "would not call him a religious man in the sense that to him a religious faith was his stay and his guide, as it was to many humble people in the provinces, who cheerfully suffered persecution, both for the old Church and the new creeds—as it was to the mother of the Nassaus, the Countess Juliana." To Miss Putnam's thinking, need of sympathy, rather than the independence which Motley praises, would "seem to be his [William's] most prominent characteristic"—a judgment to be received with hesitation.

As is naturally to be expected in a biographical work, William's domestic affairs find large

place in Miss Putnam's pages, and constitute a story of much interest. The negotiations attendant on the Prince's marriage with Anne of Saxony, the unfortunate outcome of that union, his quasi-divorce and seemingly imprudent marriage with the excellent and affectionate Charlotte of Bourbon, the less significant stories of his two other matrimonial alliances, are all given appropriate place. The warm ties that bound the Prince and his brothers, and the family affection and mutual trustfulness of the Nassau connection as a whole, are interestingly portrayed.

Like Motley, Miss Putnam recognizes that William's desire was to secure unity and freedom for all the provinces, not for the north only:

"The prince's dream was to establish a constitutional government for the United Netherlands. For a brief space the provinces were bound together by the Pacification of Ghent, and there was fair prospect that this project would prove no dream, but a substantial fabric, a solid foundation for an independent European state. But at the disintegrating touch of sectional interests, of theological differences, the union dissolved, and in history the name of William of Nassau has not been identified with those seventeen units whose joint interests he had at heart, but with Holland. It was Holland who gave her name to the little Protestant republic of which Orange was the unwilling founder. His scheme had been far larger, far more comprehensive, far more catholic, far more tolerant, and far more democratic in fact, though it had included a protector of royal blood. He never saw the republic of which he is called the father."

Probably the most striking personal trait of William of Orange was his tolerance of religious differences—a tolerance foreign to the spirit of his century. It was a quality little understood even by his nearest associates. His brother John and his friend St. Aldegonde had no sympathy with it; but the political situation, the non-sanguinary disposition of the Hollanders, and William's own insistence and example enabled the Prince to make his own principles, in part at least, the policy of the republic he founded. Undoubtedly William's career was peculiarly adapted to teach the lesson of tolerance. His parents were Lutheran, and the religious character of his mother, at least, was such as to make an impression upon her distinguished son; he was himself educated from his twelfth year as a Catholic, and without parental objection; his beloved brother Louis early became an ardent Calvinist. Thus the three prominent types of sixteenth-century religious faith were represented in his own family connection. William himself was attached to each of these religious parties in turn. From 1544 to 1567 he was, in observance at least, a Catholic. In 1567 he was so far a Lutheran as to have his son Maurice baptized in accordance with the rites of that communion. In 1573 he became a communicant in the Calvinist congregation at Dordrecht. But the Prince's toleration had a deeper basis than the circumstances of his career. As a Catholic he was far removed from the spirit which inclined Philip II. to say to a Protestant noble: "I would carry the wood to burn my own son were he as wicked as you"; he could feel, even in 1559, that Protestants might be worthy people. As a Calvinist he was equally removed from sympathy with a St. Aldegonde who would exclude Anabaptists from citizenship, or with his own brother John who disliked generosity to Catholics. He differed from the men of his age in that he felt these distinctions of dogma were not the most weighty of divergencies. He did not view the importance of such distinctions as the sixteenth century almost universally did; and he perceived that there might be bonds of union stronger than unity in religion. The phrase which Hoofd represents him as employing in 1567 in recommending mutual tolerance to Lutherans, Calvinists, and Anabaptists: "Het geschil is te kleen, om, dieshalven, gesplijt te blijven"—a sentence which Miss Putnam takes as the motto of her work—is one which embodies William's feeling, whether it was actually spoken by him or not. But the capacity to entertain such an opinion shows that, on that point at least, he was not of the sixteenth century, and must be deemed his most remarkable trait of character.

The typographic execution of Miss Putnam's book is admirable, and its beauty, as well as its usefulness, is much enhanced by more than fifty portraits, allegorical tableaux, facsimiles, and maps, chiefly reproduced from contemporary prints. A brief bibliography and a series of notes on the historians and editors from whom her letters and documents are chiefly drawn are of aid to the reader.

H. de Balzac. The Wild Ass's Skin. Translated by Ellen Marriage.—At the Sign of the Cat and Racket. Translated by Clara Bell.—The Chouans. Translated by Ellen Marriage.—The Country Doctor. Translated by Ellen Marriage. With Introduction and Prefaces by George Saintsbury. 4 vols., 8vo. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

ANOTHER translation of Balzac—of Balzac the untranslatable! Balzac's style was one of the least of his merits, it was almost one of his demerits, but the quality of its inelegance and of its clumsiness, as of its vigor and vitality, was the very quality of the man himself, and no hand but his can shape phrases in harmony with the marvellous life of his characterizations and the marvellous heaviness of his reflections. If the public must have Balzac in English, these pretty volumes perhaps supply the need as well as any. The eight stories here given (there are five in Miss Bell's volume), to be followed by others, are unobjectionable in character, and are among the best-known of Balzac's works, though they cannot be counted as among the most characteristic, or as giving any adequate impression of the "Comédie Humaine."

Mr. Saintsbury's editing adds little to the value of these volumes. His superficial and careless criticism rather hinders than helps the reader; and one may suspect he has rather hindered than helped the translators. The title "The Wild Ass's Skin" is of his choosing, and indicates a dull-minded tendency that pervades the whole to give the meaning of the *word* rather than the meaning it *expresses*. One may be certain that Balzac's sketch of "a wild ass" is a *hors d'oeuvre*, and only presented itself to him as an after-thought in writing the 'Peau de *Chagrin*'; and "shagreen" is a word too well established in our language to be overlooked or rejected. In other instances Mr. Saintsbury and Miss Bell (Miss Marriage is more successful) seem to have no ear for *association*, or they would not translate "loup-garou" by "warlock," "pékin" by "counter-jumper," "sarpejeu," and "diantre" by "by Gad," "mon Dieu," by "good Heavens," "un regard flamboyant" by "a glaring look," or "un air inimitable de finesse et de grace," by "an inimitable gleam of shrewdness and grace." A longer sentence will still better show the quality of work: "Ce personnage était de tous les colonels de l'armée le plus jeune, le plus élegant et le mieux fait"—"This personage was, of all the Colonels in the army, the youngest, the most fashionable, and the finest man." The volumes are sold separately.

The English Flower-Garden: Design, Arrangement, and Plans, followed by a Description of all the Best Plants for it and their Culture, and the Positions fitted for them. By W. Robinson. Fourth ed. London: John Murray.

THE author is well and widely known as the skilful editor of various horticultural and allied journals. His present work utilizes a portion of the voluminous materials which such journals have brought together from many sources. The first edition was issued in 1883, and, as the trite saying goes, filled a long-felt want. The subsequent issues differ considerably from the earliest, but the changes have not much modified the general character of the treatise. It is readable, and, for England, is practical, and is kept within well-proportioned limits. The author treats first of various styles of flower-gardens, touching lightly, as indeed is best, on the different styles of landscape architecture, and then passes to diverse subjects which illustrate more or less fully the relations of gardening to art. The divisions of the chapters do not by any means separate the subjects in all cases; in fact, there is a tendency to repetition and overlapping, but this is managed in an attractive way, and does not really injure the usefulness of the book. In truth, many readers will profit by being obliged to retrace their steps over ground made familiar in the early chapters.

Part second gives a more or less full account of many of the plants which can be employed in the flower-garden in England. It is probably impossible to make any such descriptive list wholly satisfactory, for it is likely to happen that just the plants one wishes to know most about will be omitted or only slightly treated. Hence descriptive catalogues are sources of disappointment. But, on the whole, the author has used good judgment in his selection and has been skilful in the treatment. The book is an excellent guide to the management of plants in a humid climate, while its perusal will serve in our drier climate to make many hours of our amateur gardeners pass pleasantly. But, unless much allowance is constantly made for the difference between the English atmosphere and ours, it cannot prove a trustworthy guide, in all cases, for America.

It is pleasing to note that the author has steadily exerted his influence here, as elsewhere in his writings, in the direction of true art. To him, as to all right-minded people, the formal mosaic bedding of plants for so-called "emblems," is an abomination, degrading and disgraceful. For the sake of sparing the feelings of sensitive persons, we will not give the name of the city which furnishes him his horrible example. He calls it the "last expression of 'carpet gardening' at ——." Would that it might be the last.

Frail Children of the Air: Excursions into the World of Butterflies. By Samuel Hubbard Scudder. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

IN this attractive volume of nearly three hundred pages, the author of that magnificent work 'Butterflies of the Eastern United

States' has discussed, in his felicitous manner, most of the interesting problems which naturally arise in the study of these butterflies. As originally published, in a series of excursuses in the costly work above mentioned, they could be known and enjoyed by comparatively few persons, while, in the convenient form in which they are now presented, they will be read with delight by hundreds of lovers of nature. The young naturalist will find much in the volume that he would look for in vain in purely scientific treatises. The author has succeeded in thoroughly infusing these pages with his enthusiastic love of butterflies. The titles of some of the chapters indicate the fascinating nature of the topics discussed, for example: "Butterflies as Botanists," "How Butterflies Pass the Winter," "Aromatic Butterflies," "Butterflies at Night and at Sea," "A Budget of Curious Facts about Chrysalids." Each one of the thirty chapters will prove delightful popular reading. Nine well-executed plates serve to illustrate the text.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Airs from Dr. Thomas Campion. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher.
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Banbury Cross. 12 vols. Macmillan. $6.50.
Bastable, Prof. C. F. Public Finance. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. Macmillan. $4.
Bell, Mrs. Arthur. Masterpieces of the Great Artists, A. D. 1400—1700. London: Bell & Sons: New York: Macmillan. $7.50.
Branch, Mary L. B. The Kanter Girls. Illustrated. Scribners. $1.50.
Brown, Robert, Jr. Tellis and Kleobeia. London: David Nutt.
Browning, Robert. Complete Poetic and Dramatic Works. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Caldwell, J. W. Studies in the Constitutional History of Tennessee. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $2.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Defoe's Journal of the Plague Year. [Longmans' English Classics.] Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Cartwright, Julia. Raphael. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
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Kingsley, Charles. Westward Ho! 2 vols. Two Years Ago. Two Vols. Alton Locke. [Pocket Edition.] Macmillan. Per volume 75 cents.
Lee, Aubrey. John Darker: A Novel. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Littell's Living Age. July—Sept, 1895. Boston: Littell & Co.
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Merron, Eleanor. As the Wind Blows. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 24, 1895.

The Week.

THE speech of ex-Governor Merriam of Minnesota at the bankers' convention at Atlanta was very judicious in itself, but its chief significance lies in the fact that a conservative banker, who is also a trusted Republican leader, declares in it that the greenback currency is now a national stumbling-block, and that it ought to be superseded by a bank currency of an elastic kind based upon money and not upon Government bonds. The latter phrase may seem paradoxical to some, but it is nevertheless truly descriptive of the thing we most need. We have learned, or ought to have learned, by this time, that a currency to be really serviceable must expand and contract simultaneously with the expansion and contraction of business, and that neither the greenbacks nor the national banknotes do this or ever did. The Government's legal-tender notes are a fixed sum. Within this fixed sum there may be more or less of them in circulation, according to the collections and disbursements of the Government, or, as in recent instances, according to the sales of bonds and the demands of gold-exporters. These changes are not what we mean by expansion and contraction according to the needs of business. Such changes were never looked for when the legal-tender notes were first created, in 1862, nor when the later issues were made in 1890, on the basis of silver bullion. The first was a war measure and the second was a political dodge, as everybody who is capable of forming an opinion on these matters understands. Expansion and contraction must be looked for in the bank issues if anywhere, but our system has a requirement that the bank must first lodge with the Government something more than $1.10 for every dollar of currency that it puts out. At present the amount required is $1.15 per dollar. The operation is still further hampered by red tape, so that two or three months must elapse before the new currency can be made available, and then the demand may have mainly ceased. As ex-Governor Merriam showed in his speech, this is not an elastic currency. We may have a secure currency under the present system, but we cannot have one which responds to the public demand.

Senator Chandler publishes in the Concord *Monitor* a comforting letter to the officers of the Republican State League of Colorado, assuring them that if they stand firmly by the Republican party, and if the party is kept in power continuously for about twenty years, certain things will happen for the benefit of silver. These are (1) that the decline in the price of silver bullion will be arrested by an international agreement; (2) that the price will be made to rise gradually; and (3) that "it will be brought to an equality with gold, within a period somewhat shorter than the twenty years during which demonetization has been making its deadly progress." The gentleman to whom the letter is addressed might reply in the language of the gambler who was offered by a fellow-gambler his note, at twenty years, for the losses of an evening's play: "Twenty years—isn't that rather hencey?" The silverites contend that twenty years, and more, have been running against them now. If they are to wait twenty years more, the total will be forty or more. Besides, there is no guarantee that Chandler will be living twenty years from now, or if living will be able to carry out the arrangement. The letter looks like a scheme for delay, and will be so considered, we think, by the Colorado people. Yet the strong point in Chandler's favor is, that they cannot do any better. If they turn to the Democrats, they are likely to get as bad terms. Chandler says they will get worse terms. And as for the Populists, they are a declining faction anyway, and may not be in the field twenty years, or even five years, hence. Moreover, the people of Colorado, at the end of twenty years, may not want silver remonetized at all. Indeed, this is most probable, and we shouldn't wonder if Chandler were "banking" on that very hypothesis.

Senator Sherman's latest deliverance on the subject of the national finances ought not to be taken too seriously. It is impossible to know, at any particular time, whether his utterances on the stump represent his real views or not. Thus, in 1868, he joined hands with Ben Butler and George Pendleton in declaring that the Government bonds were payable in greenbacks, and he said that the bondholders were censurable for demanding payment in gold. He was the author of the inflation bill of 1874 that was vetoed by President Grant, with the slight difference that he wanted the greenback limit put at $382,000,000, while the bill as passed fixed it at $400,000,000. The volume of greenbacks had been reduced to $356,000,000 by law prior to 1873. During the panic of the latter year, Secretary Richardson had reissued $26,000,000 of the redeemed notes on his own responsibility, without authority of law. Senator Sherman proposed to sanction this act of inflation and violation of law, and reported the bill for that purpose. Senator Schurz moved to put the limit at $356,000,000, where it was before Richardson raised it. Mr. Sherman voted against the Schurz amendment. He also voted against the amendment to raise the amount to $400,000,000, but this was inserted in the bill, which passed both houses, and was vetoed by the President. It is true that Mr. Sherman voted against the bill, as amended, and he also voted to sustain the veto, but it was a difference of only $12,000,000. The terms of the veto message were directed against his bill as well as the one which actually passed.

It would probably be safe to say that Mr. Sherman has been, at one time or another, on both sides of every important question of finance that has been before the country in the past thirty or forty years. He was Secretary of the Treasury when the silver-remonetization bill was before Congress, in 1878, and he gave his influence in favor of that measure, by testifying before the finance committee that its passage would be an aid to specie resumption. We do not overlook the services he has rendered to the country in the course of this checkered career. As Senator and as Secretary, he was largely instrumental in the resumption of specie payments, perhaps more so than anybody else, and for this he will always have due credit. The criticism that will be visited upon him is that he habitually misleads people who are less well informed than himself, when he sees, or thinks that he sees, a political advantage in doing so. The result is generally more damaging to himself than to anybody else, because in every such case he loses some part of the confidence of the cultivated and capitalist classes with whom his political strength chiefly rests. In his recent speech at Massillon he maintains that the greenbacks are "the best form of paper money ever devised," and he censures President Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle for using the gold "specifically pledged for the redemption of United States notes to make good the deficiency of revenue caused by the Wilson-Gorman-Brice tariff law." This is simply ludicrous. Mr. Sherman cannot point to a dollar of gold that has been paid out for other purposes than the redemption of legal-tender notes; and as for the Wilson-Gorman-Brice tariff bill, that was not passed until August, 1894, whereas the sale of bonds to replenish the gold reserve began in February of that year, and could not have been avoided without causing national bankruptcy. President Cleveland, without much previous training in financial matters, possesses the confidence of financiers in a far greater degree than Mr. Sherman does now, or ever did in his palmiest days. He has achieved this preëminence by telling the truth at all times and acting upon it at all times.

Senator Sherman's loud demand for a restoration of the McKinley bill, "with

modifications," does not seem very powerfully to impress the Republican statesmen now gathering in this city to settle the policy to be pursued by their party in the next Congress. They understand perfectly that any demand of Mr. Sherman's is always itself to be taken "with modifications," and they are now said to be engaged in supplying the modifications. Ex-Speaker Reed is, as he has been all along, against any tariff bill whatever next winter. He firmly withstands the blandishments of the interviewer, and regrets exceedingly that he will not be able to make any political speeches this fall; but privately he tells the party statesmen that Congress must do nothing except possibly revise one or two of the "schedules." But even this cautious suggestion has proved very much like taking a dog by the ears. "Revising the schedules, eh?" cried the Ohio wool-men, with minds and ears erect like the folks in Virgil; "well, we have a nice little wool schedule that you'd better not overlook in the shuffle." So had the ore-men a schedule, and the iron-men, and the potato-men, and eke the silver-men. They have all thoroughly mastered the protectionist lesson, so long dinned into their ears, that no schedule liveth or dieth unto itself. To their cynical minds, revising the other fellow's schedule and leaving their own to take care of itself is a most bare-faced and selfish proceeding, which they will not tolerate for a moment. It is only by amalgamating several thousand bits of selfishness that you arrive at that grand mosaic of pure benevolence known as a protective tariff.

"No American pig iron in Canada," says the *American Manufacturer* of Pittsburgh. "Our pig iron has been forced out of the Canadian market. . . . Even in western Ontario, where American pig some time ago monopolized the entire trade, it has since been driven out." This calamitous result would seem to be sufficiently accounted for by facts reported in the columns of the same paper week after week, implying, or rather affirming, that the home demand for iron was far in excess of the supply, and was limited only by the amount of foreign ore that could be secured on outstanding contracts. If this is true, it follows that American pig, instead of being "driven out" of the markets of western Ontario, where it monopolized the entire trade some time ago, has been drawn out by our own buyers. It has been attracted away from Canada by the offering of higher prices at home. Some people are never satisfied. When prices are good, and the public call for more iron than can be supplied, they want a part of the consumers to wait until they can catch up, and if they cannot meet the demand of a particular market, either domestic or foreign, they think that they have been driven out of it with a bludgeon, and that the police ought to be summoned.

The Ohio Republicans are trying to make beer an issue in their canvass. There has been more or less said, among Republicans as well as Democrats, about the advisability of doubling the tax of one dollar a barrel on beer as the best way of meeting the deficiency in the revenues. The Republican organs in Ohio think it good policy to treat the project as purely Democratic, and to argue therefrom that the brewing interests ought to vote for the Republican candidate for Governor in the approaching election. The Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* says that "the Republican party has shown by its action, through Congress, in the last fifteen years, that it favors, not the increase of internal taxes, but a decrease"; and it thinks that "the brewers of Cincinnati understand this business pretty well, and they will hardly, in view of the pending Democratic policy, be in a hurry to go to the polls in November in this city and vote the Democratic ticket." The brewers probably have little fear of any increase of the tax, with a Presidential campaign coming on in which neither party wants to run any risk of offending so important a vote.

It is reported from Washington that Secretary Carlisle will recommend in his annual report an additional tax of $1 a barrel on beer. If the Treasury must have, certainly and speedily, an added $25,000,000 to $30,000,000 a year, there is no better way to get it. But if such a tax is laid, or even recommended by the Secretary, it will be a curious illustration of the way we do things in this country. The whole subject was thoroughly studied by Mr. D. A. Wells in 1893. This was done at the request of Mr. Carlisle and the Ways and Means Committee. The results were submitted by Mr. Wells in his usual lucid style, but the Democratic majority simply said, "That's all right," threw the pamphlet into the waste-basket, and plunged into the income-tax madness. It would now be quite in keeping with our methods of helter-skelter taxation if the expert suggestions which, two years ago, were scorned as the idle dreaming of a theorist who had not the faintest conception of the way to hold "the German vote," should be taken up as an original and profound discovery.

The political situation in this city is probably the most "mixed" ever seen. There is scarcely an element of it which is not subdivided in one way or another. The reformers are divided between Goo Goo and Fusion. The Goo Goos are themselves divided, four of their clubs having formally refused to support the ticket, and a large element in the membership of other clubs desiring to do the same thing. The Fusionists are scarcely more harmonious, especially the Republican wing of them. The Platt section is at war with the anti-Platt for bringing Warner Miller here to make a speech. The *Tribune* sustains Miller, and charges Platt with treachery to a portion of the Republican ticket. The Germans are divided into two sections, one, under Ridder, going over to Tammany Hall, and the other, under all the most reputable leaders they ever had, supporting the Fusion ticket. Tammany itself is rent with dissensions and jealousies and hatreds, and has a ticket in the field which many of its members declare openly that they will not support. Circling around this general confusion appear Thurlow Weed Barnes and a considerable host of other political thinkers of like calibre, who imagine if they talk violently and foolishly they will convince the public that they are really great men and leaders of the people. It is an era of little men in politics, evidently, but we do not believe that the public will be so much confused by their clamor that the real issue of Tammany against anti-Tammany will be obscured.

Mr. Chamberlain's plan of dealing with the Venezuelan question is to be commended from every point of view, because it proposes to do something instead of disputing for ever. It was this policy which made an end of the Corinto dispute. As long as it was a war of words, everybody in the United States had an opinion, although nobody knew anything about the merits, and those who were loudest in the expression of their views had the least desire to know anything. Nobody cares about Corinto now, and few even remember that there was such an affair. Yet if it had been nursed along for ten or fifteen years, as the Venezuelan question has been, there would have been an increasing number of blatherskite politicians and newspapers prepared to prove that the British claim on Nicaragua was unfounded, and that the enforcement of it was a violation of the Monroe doctrine; and a corresponding number of Fighting Bobs in the navy anxious to win the approval of the newspapers. We do not profess to be better informed than other people concerning the merits of the Venezuelan question, but we are strongly of the opinion that it is no concern of ours, and that the Monroe doctrine would have nothing to do with it even if that doctrine were an accepted part of international law, as it is not. President Monroe, when he propounded that doctrine, put it upon the ground that "the political system of the allied powers is essentially different from that of America," meaning that there was danger to republican institutions from the spread of their sway in this hemisphere. Now, nobody can apprehend the spread of anti-republican doctrines and forms of government as a consequence of the adjustment of the disputed Venezuelan boundary, in any case, since the British colonies are more republican (although less anarchistic) than the general run of Central and South American governments.

Mr. Chamberlain's policy is to bring the sore to a head and have it tapped, instead of leaving it to fester ten or fifteen years longer. This is desirable especially to us, since the longer the dispute is open, the more will this class of quarrels multiply. If these Spanish-American republics can drag us into all their difficulties with European Powers, we shall presently have nothing else to do but attend to them.

The temperance people in England have begun to recover somewhat from the stunning blow given to their local-option scheme by the late election. At the meeting of the National Temperance Congress, which opened on the 1st of October in London, the President, Sir Benjamin Ward Richardson, the eminent doctor, delivered an address which has attracted a great deal of attention, owing both to its power and the novelty of his treatment. He dwelt particularly on the fact "that every man and woman should in the matter of total abstinence be a law unto themselves," and that the more widely the operation of this law extended, the less important would "crude and biassed parliamentary legislation" become. He pointed out, too, that the influence of literature which for three thousand years had sung the praises of alcohol, was not to be overcome in a day, and that it still counted for a great deal in the way the young are taught to regard alcoholic drinks. He said in support of this that 'Pickwick' was "an alcoholic story from beginning to end, and that there never could have been such characters as those in it if alcohol had not performed its ridiculous part on them and by them." The rôle of brandy and water in the book is certainly very great. But his best point was that the work of temperance legislation must be in the main personal rather than parliamentary. No such thoroughly effective Sunday closing can come from any legislation as from the unwillingness of individuals to go to the public-house; and the success of cafés and temperance saloons must depend largely on the growth of a public which likes them and *finds in itself* other sources of entertainment and excitement than alcoholic drinks. As a general rule the class which has fewest sources of amusement, or nervous recreation, is the one most disposed to drink. This is one of the most familiar facts of daily life, and it is full of suggestion for legislators and reformers. To the ignorant laboring man, alcohol supplies something which other people get in other ways and will not go without. Asking him to give it up is somewhat like asking the well-to-do not to go to the theatre, opera, or concerts, not to read novels, not to go to dinners or evening parties, not to travel, and to sit at home on Sunday, reading religious books. That is, it lifts him for the moment into another world, where things seem brighter and more beautiful than the sordid one he lives in, and opens up possibilities to him of which in his natural state he never dreams.

The exact terms of the Armenian settlement are not yet made known, but it appears to be certain that the Sultan has agreed to give representatives or nominees of the Powers the right to supervise the execution of the promised reforms. Without this the whole thing would be a farce, as the unvarying experience since the treaty of Berlin shows. For twenty years the Turks have been doing their own reforming, in accordance with the solemn pledges of that treaty, and the main result has been to make the last state of Armenians and Macedonians worse than the first. Turkish tender mercies are cruel, and the crimes committed in the name of Turkish reform are enough of themselves to justify European interference on the score of humanity. Lord Salisbury has had too long and melancholy an experience of deception and promise-breaking at the hands of the Porte to trust it out of his sight again, and, if he now accepts the Sultan's terms of surrender, it will be presumptive proof that they are satisfactory. The pith of the whole is European oversight. The Sultan's reforming zeal always ebbs and flows with the going and coming of war-ships in the Bosphorus. These will probably not be withdrawn until the reforms which the Porte has been frightened into promising, it shall also be frightened into executing.

"Collectivism" in Switzerland has recently encountered another decided check. The overcrowded condition of the match industry in that country has led the smaller factories to impose upon their workmen by means of a wretched "truck" system, and factory inspection has wholly failed to do away with the extremely unhealthy nature of the business itself. The Federal Legislature, accordingly, proposed an amendment to the Constitution by which the whole business should be taken over by the Government. The cantons voted on this proposal on September 29, and rejected it by the extraordinary majority of nearly 40,000. According to the London *Speaker*, the proposal had the support of the Socialists, the German radicals, and humanitarians generally; moreover, about half the total electorate abstained from voting. A vote of 600 nays to 359 ayes was the answer of the district of Frutigen in the Kanderthal, where some of the worst evils of the trade are found; while in the Valais the adverse majority was as forty-three to one, one hundred communes voting solidly in the negative.

No indictment of socialistic doctrine could be more severe or just than that which Prof. Sidgwick makes in the last *Economic Journal*, where he says that "no positive contribution of importance has been made to economic science by any socialist writer throughout the century." This criticism suggests the almost unvarying character of the utopian writing that passes for "scientific socialism." The most it ever does is to appropriate, usually in a muddled way, some truth or half-truth of political economy, and then urge with great vehemence that, if these things are so, there is no stopping short of the whole socialistic programme. It knows nothing of the patient and prolonged inquiry, the massing and sifting of facts, the reflection, the maturing and testing of theories, which alone can produce a work of value in any field of investigation. Learning at second hand, and newspaper and magazine clippings, are usually enough for our instructors in the blessings of socialism; they were enough, for example, for Mr. Kidd, whose 'Social Evolution' revealed only the reading of a clerk filling up a scrap-book in odd hours. But it is too late in the day for such a method to set us all right at one stroke. Prof. Sidgwick makes a neat point in the matter of socialistic experiment. "Never mind our theories," say the socialists; "just look at our experiments." But he says he has looked at all the historical experiments, and that they are all failures. Why are there no modern experiments? Oh, it would not be "scientific" to make any by groups, or communities, in the old style; we must have "the state" make them. Very well, says Prof. Sidgwick, just keep your eye on Germany. "One nation will probably be found sufficient; and I trust that we shall all agree to yield the post of honor to Germany in this branch of the pursuit of knowledge."

Two mining engineers, Messrs. Hatch and Chalmers, have published a book on the South African gold mines, or rather on those of the Rand district, in which they estimate the future yield at a higher figure and a longer duration than any previous writers have done. They believe that mining operations can be carried to the depth of 5,000 feet, and without any greater expense than is now incurred, but this the London *Economist* thinks is most improbable, since the price of native labor is likely to rise and the value of gold measured by commodities is likely to fall. Messrs. Hatch and Chalmers estimate the annual yield of the mines at the end of the present century at £26,000,000, which is £6,000,000 higher than any former estimate. This is equivalent to $126,000,000, or three times the present annual yield. If the other gold-producing districts of the world merely remain stationary, the aggregate yearly production will then be about $280,000,000, or nearly double the highest rate known in the fifties. But, even allowing that the views of Messrs. Hatch and Chalmers are correct, the *Economist* contends that the present capitalization

Fancying stocks is grossly excessive.

THE VENEZUELA TROUBLE.

WHETHER Great Britain or Venezuela has the better historical and legal title to the territory so long in dispute between those two countries, no one without the easy omniscience of a Lodge, a Campbell, a Blaine, or a *Tribune* editor would venture to decide offhand. It is an intricate and dubious question. England derives from the Dutch, Venezuela from the Spanish, possessions; but just what were the boundaries of each it is difficult to tell. Those who wish to see the evidence on either side in condensed form should consult Senate Executive Document 226, Fiftieth Congress, first session. Therein the Venezuelan case is set forth by different hands, as is also Earl Granville's outline of the British claims, with the evidence to support them, historical, diplomatic, and geographical. The controversy is eminently one for experts to pass upon, and for arbitration to determine.

Our Secretaries of State of recent years have all had something to say about the conflicting evidence in the case, and most of them have refused to discover the truth, as only a great historical scholar like Senator Lodge can, "at a glance." Secretary Gresham declined to express "an opinion concerning the merits of the historical and other data upon which the conflicting territorial claims may respectively rest." Secretary Frelinghuysen was equally modest—or lethargic, if one chooses. He refused to commit this country to any "prejudged solution in favor of Venezuela," and added that the United States "does not seek to put itself forward as the arbiter of international disputes affecting America." Mr. Bayard, when Secretary, wrote to Minister Phelps instructing him to propose our good offices to heal the quarrel and to bring about arbitration, but weakly referred to the dispute as "merely one of geographical limits and title, not of attempted political jurisdiction." It was reserved for Mr. Blaine, in 1890, to discover that "the volume of evidence in favor of Venezuela is overwhelming."

This will be conclusive with all those who have forgotten how Mr. Blaine's Bering Sea evidence was equally overwhelming. In that case he had his maps, his treaties, his international law all ready to confound the English diplomats, and he did confound and triumph over them most gloriously in every Republican newspaper and stump speech for many resounding months. But on an evil day his overwhelming evidence was submitted to an international tribunal of arbitration, and the whole of it was laughed out of court, even one of his own arbitrators voting that the Blaine history and geography were pure myth. That was the first and only time that one of the Blaine international arguments was passed upon by competent judges, and the humiliating results ought to make us a little circumspect. Certainly, if we now see that it would have been folly to go to war, on our own account, for a case in which Mr. Blaine knew that we were overwhelmingly right, we ought to have some better warrant than his to go to war in behalf of another country. The overwhelming might turn out of another sort.

Another thing to bear in mind in the whole controversy is, that the Venezuelan authorities have all along been visibly anxious to draw us into their quarrel. In fact, if we will not fight for them, they are ready to quit at any time. This appears over and over again in the correspondence. In 1881 the Venezuelan President showed our Minister an "ultimatum" which he was ready to hurl at Great Britain, provided he were "assured of the support of the Government of the United States." This was during Mr. Blaine's first secretaryship, but he was busy elsewhere, and strangely ignored this appeal for backing. Two years later Venezuela felt of Mr. Frelinghuysen, saying that she herself could "never afford the means to stop Great Britain," but hoping that she might find help and encouragement in the Monroe doctrine. But the Secretary coldly wrote to Mr. Lowell that "formal action in the direction of applying that doctrine to a *speculative case* affecting Venezuela seemed to me to be inopportune, and I could not advise Venezuela to arouse a discussion of the point."

The most curious of all these appeals to us was made in 1887. Venezuela had unlawfully detained two English schooners, and had refused to pay the damages demanded. Thereupon came a note from the Governor of Trinidad, giving the Government seven days in which to pay over $40,000, or else to be "responsible for any consequences that may arise." There was a great scurrying about to find the American Minister. Alas, he would do nothing except write home about it. Then the dean of the diplomatic corps was appealed to, but he wrote back, with the deepest sympathy, that the members had decided unanimously that it was not their duty "in any way to interfere." So the money had to be paid, as the Minister for Foreign Affairs expressed it in his note, "to avoid ulterior complications." The same course will doubtless follow Lord Salisbury's recent demand for reparation for the arrest and detention of British officials.

As we said, the right to the disputed territory seems to be just the kind of question that should be submitted to arbitration, and Monday's London despatches show that England will agree so to submit it. It is certain that she by no means takes it for granted that the territory in controversy is all to be hers. The British authorities in Demerara notify prospectors and miners that "England will not guarantee protection or compensation in case boundary questions are decided in favor of Venezuela." In 1885 a treaty of arbitration was all but closed between Earl Granville and Guzman Blanco, but Salisbury came into power and insisted upon modifications which wrecked the negotiation. Shortly afterwards, in 1887, Venezuela broke off diplomatic relations with Great Britain, and since then nothing has been done except to aggravate the ill-feeling on both sides. Our Government has throughout been friendly to both countries, and will doubtless so continue, ready to do anything in its power to compose the difficulties. When Venezuela finds out that Salisbury and Chamberlain mean what they say and that our Government means what it says—that there is no possibility of a bloody Monroe-doctrine war, in which we should get all the hard knocks and the Venezuelans all the glory—negotiations with England will probably be reopened and the prolonged dispute amicably settled.

UNION PACIFIC REORGANIZATION.

THE plan of reorganization of the Union Pacific Railway was promulgated on Thursday. We shall not undertake to deal with those parts of it which are of a purely private nature—as to what each class of security holders ought to receive, or ought to pay for the privilege of receiving something hereafter. Those are matters of detail which only the parties in interest are competent to deal with. There is a large public interest in the road—indeed, a public interest of two kinds. The Government holds a second mortgage on the main line of road amounting to $53,000,000 of principal and interest. The possession of this claim and the impossibility of its being paid in full at maturity have led a large number of people along the line of the road and on the Pacific Coast to demand that the Government take the road and operate it.

When this subject was before Congress last January, we remarked that there were two methods of dealing with the second-mortgage debt. One was to extend the debt and take such security as the company could give, and the other was to assume the prior mortgage of thirty-three millions, and take the road and operate it as public property. It happens that the debt comes due at a very unfavorable time, the earnings of the company having fallen off heavily. It results from this that a sale of the road under the Government's second mortgage would probably find no bidders. The only persons who have any motive or encouragement to come to the rescue are the stockholders. They control the branch lines and feeders. A new company bidding at a mortgage sale would be compelled not merely to assume the first mortgage, but to make terms with the owners of the branches, who would be pretty sure to get the best end of the bargain. So, practically, the Government would have to take the property and operate it, or extend the debt.

There was a bill before Congress at that time known as the Reilly bill. It was the

result of much labor, and had been reported by the House committee on Pacific railroads. There is no reason to suppose that it was inspired by any other motive than the public good. It proposed to extend the Government's mortgage for fifty years at 3 per cent. interest. "The question before us," said Mr. Lockwood of New York, "is simply a question whether you will collect the debt that is owing by these Pacific railroads to the Government, or whether you will abandon your claim—for it ultimately means that—and squander more millions in litigation, and, by a foreclosure on the part of the Government, take possession of the roads, operate and manage them by the Government; or, on the other hand, you can now make a business arrangement and settlement of the Government's claim in the same manner as individuals would settle their business affairs, and thus secure the payment of every dollar, principal and interest, of the money due to the Government of the United States by the roads."

This was a truthful statement of the facts, coupled with the best possible advice, but the House, to the surprise of all who looked for the exercise of common sense in dealing with the matter, voted by about seventy majority to reject the bill and to take no action whatever; since, at that stage of the session, there was not sufficient time to prepare a new measure if any had been proposed by those who voted down the old one. The Reilly bill, it may be said, was the product of more than ten years' discussion of this very question during successive Congresses, guided by the light of two or three voluminous and exhaustive investigations. One of these, which was made by a commission consisting of Gov. Pattison, David Littler, and Ellery Anderson, had sifted every particle of testimony and brought out every fact that could possibly have a bearing on the question, and all this was before Congress in an official form.

But this was not wanted. Facts were not wanted. Common sense was thrown out of the window. The bill was rejected in the interest of buncombe. "The only thing for this House to do," said one of the principal speakers against the bill, "in order to maintain the dignity of the American Congress and the sovereignty of this Government, is to stand still and allow the officers of the Government to go forward with their foreclosure proceedings, sell this property out, and get rid of the entire business." This was a proposition to sacrifice the whole claim in order to save the Government's dignity. But how was any dignity to be saved by throwing $53,000,000 over one's shoulder? The same speaker who favored us with the foregoing sentiment explained his meaning. "If we pass this bill," he said, "we shall condone all the frauds, all the crimes, all the thefts, all the robberies that these directors and stockholders have committed against the Government of the United States and the people of this country, and besides we shall continue to give them an additional subsidy for fifty years more." The directors and stockholders that he referred to were mostly dead. All chance of collecting anything from them, if they owed anything, was long past, as everybody knew. Yet the chance to make a parade of voting against capitalists, monopolists, robber barons, and what not, could not be missed, even though the Government's claim was put in jeopardy. So the bill was rejected.

Obviously the Government ought to do what the private holders of a second mortgage would do under like circumstances. It should aim to get its money—if not now, then at some future time—and it should accept such rate of interest meanwhile as the property can pay, even if it were as low as 1 per cent. Half a loaf is better than no bread. What has this generation to do with the sins of the Crédit Mobilier of thirty years ago? How can the present shareholders or bondholders be made answerable for transactions which took place in the sixties, whether they were good, bad, or indifferent in themselves? It has happened that the reorganization of the Union Pacific property has been slow, and that Congress will have one more chance to save the money due to the Government. If this Congress, too, takes no action, the foreclosure of the first mortgage will undoubtedly receive the sanction of the courts, even if it cuts off the Government's claim, and public opinion will justify it, since the rights of the Government in the premises are in no wise superior to those of individual citizens.

In a very handy monograph on the history of the Union Pacific Railway, by Henry Kirke White, just published by the University of Chicago press, one fact, which has been generally forgotten, is brought out, namely, that a number of leading statesmen, at the time when the subsidy was voted, said in public debate that they did not expect that the money would be repaid. Messrs. Clark of New Hampshire, Morrill of Vermont, Wilson of Massachusetts, and others were of this opinion. They voted for the subsidy, not because they thought that the Government would get its money back, but because they considered it a good investment for the Government in other ways. The only Senator quoted by Mr. White who believed that the road would be a paying investment was Lane of Kansas, a blatherskite in most matters, but who happened to be nearer the truth in this particular than any of the wise men who sat beside him. Lane said in 1862 that the road when completed would be "one of the great paying thoroughfares of the world." Of course, he did not contemplate that six or seven other Pacific railroads would be built in competition with this one. It was his idea, and that of the other Senators of that period, that there would be only one, and all of them except Lane thought that that one would not pay. Yet the Union Pacific alone, with its western terminus at Ogden, earned $22,000,000 gross and $10,000,000 net in the year 1880, and paid dividends on its common stock.

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION.

If there be any philosophic observer in either hemisphere to-day who does not understand why the government of New York has for forty years been so bad, we advise him to study the existing situation. It contains the whole New York problem as in a nutshell. As we have pointed out in these columns a hundred times, the central fact of the failure of popular government in this city is that the vicious and ignorant are united solidly, while the intelligent and virtuous are split up into many sects and parties; and yet the intelligent, virtuous, and industrious are in a large majority, and must be so, or the social organization would break up. There never has been an election for half a century in which the union of the latter would not have put the administration of the city into good hands. It is the perception of this fact many years ago by a few shrewd adventurers which has made Tammany the power that it is, and our government the disgrace that it has been.

Moreover, the good people have always had a reason to give for these dissensions. They have never divided through pure "cussedness." The principal reason always was that they "would never under any circumstances vote for a Republican" or "for a Democrat," as the case might be. To vote for a Democrat, the Republican considered, would be a condonation of all the enormities committed by the Democrats everywhere since 1857; while to vote for a Republican, the Democrats considered, would be an endorsement of the Republican tariff policy, the pensions, and corruption generally. Both had a "principle" to show for their course. The result was that Tammany generally got the offices, while the other parties had their "principle." The most striking example of the way the "principle" worked was the election of 1888, when the Republicans insisted on running a third candidate, and finally handed the city over completely to Tammany, with the results that we know of.

We have been actively engaged in pointing all this out to the public for twenty years, but we have no doubt we might have gone on for twenty years more without much result but for the revelations of the Lexow investigation. That roused the people, much in the way an earthquake or an inundation does. We all said: "This is horrible; this must stop. We must try non-partisanship, and get through non-partisanship a business administration of city affairs." Under the influence of this excitement we at last got the Good to unite, and the result showed that we were right in our oft-repeated assertion that they had only to

unite in order to overthrow the Bad. But hey had to unite by consulting with and winning over the various warring sections of the olden time. They united, in short, for non-partisanship on the old partisan basis. They conferred in the old way with the various "organizations," and persuaded them with the old arguments and promises. Not one of the candidates was "ideal," or anything like ideal. Of Mayor Strong few of the voters knew anything. He was taken to satisfy the Republicans. The recordership, the Supreme Court judgeship, and the shrievalty were given to the State Democracy and the Germans. The difficulties of getting all these people to agree on the ticket were very great—so great, indeed, that we confess that the very day before the agreement was reached we felt satisfied that the enterprise would fail, as it had so often failed before.

The gain that followed was immense, but it consisted mainly, not in the establishment of any distinctly new régime, but in the defeat of Tammany. In that lay the spoils of victory, in spite of the fact that the Mayor went to work immediately to make appointments on the old plan of using the offices to reward supporters. We hailed the defeat with delight as a step in the right direction, for amid shouts of rejoicing of the tens of thousands who voted against Tammany on account of its amazing wickedness, the voices of thousands could be heard high and clear, proclaiming that this was not enough; that we must press on and embody the non-partisan idea in our city usages. That this non-partisan idea would or could, in one short year, however, be converted into a principle of division among good people, like the partisan idea of the Republicans and the Democrats, was, we confess, something which never occurred to us. Non-partisanship in the distribution of city offices, we knew, was something which not one-twentieth part of the voters understood, and something which only a very small body of them really desired. Even the non-partisan candidate for Mayor, as it turned out, did not know what the phrase meant. So we said to ourselves: "Our gains in the way of positive reform are wonderful, but if we are to make a distinct and permanent change in city administration, our main work for some years to come must be that of education and persuasion. These people who do not understand non-partisanship or want it, but who must be got to consent to its establishment, and who outnumber us ten to one, must be enlightened, and there are only two ways of doing this. One is by writing and talking; the other is by the practical illustration of non-partisanship in such departments as we can get and keep hold of—the Police and the Street-Cleaning Department, for instance, as the two which come most conspicuously under the popular eye. But all this will need time. We must, above all things, while we are carrying on our work, keep Tammany from getting again into power, which would throw us back for twenty years more. If, therefore, next year we make even a slight advance on our present position, if we get more reform legislation at Albany, so as to show our work still more perfectly in other departments, and if we can, even by the same means as last year, get a few more candidates of our way of thinking into office, we shall do very well, but, at all events, let us make no step backwards."

It would be difficult to describe our astonishment, however, when we found our old non-partisan idea, which we had been preaching for a quarter of a century, converted into a new "principle" of division, just like Democracy or Republicanism, which was once more to prevent good citizens from acting together against the common enemy; that non-partisans could not act with partisans even for the common good; that it was to be a crime in city affairs to confer with men of whose ideas of government or political morals you did not approve, and that nobody who had not the right ideas was to be allowed to vote our ticket; that we were once more to be called to fight Tammany through "ideal candidates," who in the existing situation are about as effective against Tammany as flint-locks against the Mauser rifle. But this has come to pass, and the city to-day presents about the same spectacle that it did in 1888—three or four sets of good people under different banners, and armed mainly with gongs, preparing to fight a large force of well-armed and disciplined pirates who have no moral ideas at all. Was there ever a more striking illustration of the difficulty of governing men through discussion and voting?

Non-partisanship, to our mind, is a means to an end, and that end is a business administration of municipal affairs. If partisanship gave us good government, we should advocate it just as readily. But we find ourselves surrounded by people who think it is an end in itself, and talk as if to be a good administrator a man only needed to be non-partisan. The truth is, that if we were all non-partisans to-morrow, we should have the old difficulty in electing "ideal candidates" every year. The business men of this city are all non-partisan in their own business, but 90 per cent. of them fail now and then. How far, too, non-partisans may be from the idea that municipal affairs are business, and not religion, or poetry, or art, has been curiously exemplified during the last few days by the determination of a body of them to run a dividing, paralyzing ticket, under the advice of an ethical philosopher, clothed in "beautiful language." Fancy the results of carrying on the business of a firm in this way. Fancy the junior partners, when a venture was proposed to them, taking time to study the ethical aspects of a new machine, and concluding that, as one of the manufacturers of it was an unfaithful husband, they could not use it. It would not be difficult to figure out the history of a business administration of any kind which steadily refused to use the bad motives of other people for good ends. Government and business both would be impossible on such a basis.

What we fear now is that the thousands who do not take an abiding interest in city affairs, but were roused into enthusiasm and activity by the union of last year, will be driven back into their old attitude of indifference and disgust by the spectacle of our divisions, and the unutterable silliness and childishness of some of our reformers, and will be found scattered on wheels through the adjacent country on election day. These we beg not to be discouraged, to remember that the folly we are witnessing has lasted so long that it could not possibly be extinguished in a single year; that if we win again now, we shall have made another step in advance and have added largely to the enlightened majority through which alone non-partisanship can be made an abiding instrument of reform.

DISCORDANT CHURCH UNITY.

THE action of the Episcopal General Convention on Thursday in voting down by a decided majority the report of the committee on church unity, doubtless marks the end, for the present, of the whole movement. It has enlisted the zeal or excited the alarm of many worthy men in different churches for many years. The religious world has been fully instructed about the "Lambeth quadrilateral" and the "historic episcopate," on the basis of which, it was said, a dissevered Christendom was somehow to be united. From the first, however, there was something unsubstantial and visionary in the entire affair, and for some time it has been evident that the thing would come to naught. The Presbyterians seemed for a while, of all the non-episcopal sects, to entertain the proposal most seriously, but it was only their politeness, after all, and in some of their later discussions the more plain-spoken brethren sniffed audibly at the "historic episcopate," which they called historic nonsense.

The total outcome, in fact, of all these years of discussions about Christian union and brotherly love and the need of making concessions and of coöperating peacefully in the work of saving the world, has been rather to stiffen and sharpen denominational peculiarities and prejudices. The popular cry in the Milwaukee General Convention—the cry that carried the day—was that "all who come into the Church must accept the prayer-book from cover to cover." Similarly the Presbyterians are ready to welcome the whole world on the basis of the Westminster Confession; the Congregationalists, Baptists, Methodists, and the rest, to compromise, in a true spirit of mutual forbearance, upon the basis of their own

creeds and politics. So, too, in England, Pope Leo points out to Anglicans astray from the true fold that all they have to do is to submit to his authority, and at once the seamless garment will be made whole again. Not to be outdone in courtesy and concessions, the Archbishop of Canterbury replies to his Holiness that he is as desirous as the next man for church unity, but that, of course, the English Church has the true *via media*, the eirenicons, and all the other remedies in her possession. To crown all, Frederic Harrison comes forward to say that the wretched jangling will never cease until the weary world finds rest and joy in accepting and uniting upon Comte's "Relative Synthesis." "Give us that," he affirms without the flicker of an eyelid, and we shall all lead "lives of usefulness, of self-control, of self-devotion to daily duty, in quietness, in confidence, in hopefulness." This, we are bound to say, exceeds the pretensions of Pope or Archbishop, historic episcopate or Westminster Confession, and seems to leave Relative Synthesis far in the lead.

The great obstacle to church unity has all along been the absence of any evidence that the masses of church people wanted it. They may have vaguely assented to it as a pious hope, or have agreed to it on the understanding that all the others would at last acknowledge the error of their ways and accept what *we* always knew to be the Scripture truth; but as a practical proposition, involving the abandonment or serious modification of their own religious beliefs and practices, they have never meant it. One of the speakers at Milwaukee uttered a solemn truth when he denied that there were "any large bodies of Christians knocking at the door of the Episcopal Church for admission." This was an alarmingly realistic view of the situation to take, and it seemed to come as a surprise to many. They were so bent on arranging nice terms of admission that they had omitted to inquire whether anybody wanted to be admitted on any terms. There has undoubtedly been a considerable accession to the Episcopal Church from other Protestant communions, but the reason for it in the vast majority of instances has been, we venture to submit, something quite other than the bishops and clergy suppose. Creeds and theories have played a small part in the going over of so many individual Congregationalists and Presbyterians to the Episcopal Church, and considerations of a social nature, the æsthetic sense, a desire to escape ecclesiastical nagging, and to be where you are never called upon to stand and deliver your belief, be it small or great, have had much more to do with it.

The arguments for church unity are many and weighty. Those who appreciate their force can be excused for vehemence in dwelling upon the waste, the unseemly competition and strife, the jealousies and scandals and absurdities which grow out of a divided and discordant Christendom. From the point of view of economical handling and outlay of charitable funds, of common supervision, above all of putting an end to the crying shame of rival denominations pulling and hauling, each in the name of the true church, for the conversion of the heathen world, the arguments for church union are truly unanswerable. But religious preference does not live by argument alone. The arguments are not answered; they are simply ignored—or rather they are met, as Bagehot said the English farmer would meet political arguments which he could not refute, by affirming, "What I say is this here which is the same thing I was a-saying yesterday." The true place to test the sentiment for church union is, not in mission boards and charity commissions, not in the great cities where daily friction rubs off so many of the religious as well as other prejudices of men, but in the towns and villages all over the land. Any one who has carefully marked in them the power and persistence of religious prejudices, which are as strong in their influence as if they were religious convictions, will not be surprised that the prolonged exchange of courtesies and good wishes between the denominations has come to nothing practical. In such a world as this, with human nature what it is, as Bishop Butler was fond of saying, the movement for church unity was doomed to failure from the start.

A CENTURY OF LITHOGRAPHY.

PARIS, October, 1895.

THERE has just been opened in the Champ de Mars one of the most interesting exhibitions held in Paris for some time past: *le Centenaire de la Lithographie*, it is called. Nothing could be more appropriate than the place and time chosen for the show. Lithography reached the very height of its popularity and artistic development in France, which, in this case, certainly means Paris; and it is now one hundred years exactly since accident led Senefelder to a discovery destined to prove so important in its results. Some art historians have urged the year 1898 as the proper centennial, since it was in 1798 that Senefelder perfected his experiments, and from his first crude efforts evolved the lithographic process, which is virtually the same as that used to-day. And now that the "new criticism" bases appreciation of any art, or art work, upon the wholesale destruction of its hitherto accepted history and traditions, other authorities would wrest all credit from Senefelder to present it to his friend Gleissner, the Munich Capellmeister who shared his expenses and studies. But, save for the purposes of critical gymnastics, the old version answers well enough, and it seems satisfactorily established as fact. You may read it not only in the technical handbooks: it has long been public property, and probably has been most widely spread by Thackeray, who was in Paris in 1840 when lithography was still greatly in vogue, thanks to Daumier and "Robert Macaire," and who gives a sketch of Senefelder in his paper on "Lithography in Paris."

The story, which is amusing enough, is chiefly this: Aloys Senefelder, a poor hard-worked actor, musician, and composer, with a mother and eight brothers and sisters to support somehow, was seeking to discover a cheap way to reproduce his music, which no one would publish for him. One day he had to make out a list for his washerwoman—as Thackeray says, "rather a humble composition for an author and artist." There was no paper on hand, but, close by, one of the smooth Solenhofer stones, now well known to lithographers, but then familiar chiefly to Bavarian street-pavers and Turkish builders. On this he wrote his list with the sticky, soapy ink with which he had been experimenting, hopelessly, on wood and iron, steel and copper. When the ink dried, he submitted the stone to the action of nitric acid, then inked it again, and, putting the stone in a press, was able to get an impression from it. From this moment lithography was practically invented, though it was not until three years later that he had brought it to a stage of development when he could offer it to the public. Such is the very insignificant and prosaic origin of an art which has made the fame of more than one artist, an industry which has made the fortune of more than one printer during the last hundred years. It is only right, when a retrospective view is being taken of the growth of lithography, that the slight tribute of retelling his story should be paid to its inventor.

Senefelder, shiftless as he seems to have been, always in pursuit of a new fad, always hankering after a still newer invention, at least had the sense to patent his lithographic process. If he had had no thought of inventing a new graphic art, if his sole object had been the autographic reproduction of his own work, he could still value the importance of a discovery which surprised, probably, no one more than himself. With the help of Gleissner and various publishers who scented a good thing in it, he carried his invention to London, as early as 1801, where it had no great success, stifled possibly by the fine name "Polyautography" bestowed upon it; then to Paris, where also it languished; and then to Vienna. It was really, strange to say, not until the fashionable world took it up that lithography began to flourish as it deserved. But when M. le Baron Lejeune, some years afterwards, arrived in Paris with one hundred proofs, printed in Munich, from his own actual drawing on the stone, there was no denying the truth that lithography was something so simple that any one could practise it. Society went quite mad over its new plaything. Everybody who was anybody played at lithography, and the stone was to the man or woman of fashion much what skates and racquets became to succeeding generations, much what the bicycle is to our own. The impetus thus given, together with the reports of the genuinely artistic work being done in Munich, led to the establishment of the first great firms of lithographers in Paris. The houses of Lasteyrie, Engelmann, and Delpech were all three opened in 1815—altogether a memorable year. The art no longer needed the support of fashion. Artists recognized in it a new autographic method of multiplying their designs, the technical details to be mastered being absurdly few and easy; while its commercial aspect was not lost upon the layman, who could realize the advantage of speedy and cheap reproduction. Two things which the exhibition makes clear are, first, that technical perfection was reached almost at once; and, second, that, after the first hesitation, lithography was quickly popularized throughout all parts of Europe. Senefelder seems to have experi-

mented even in color and wash; there is shown a lithograph by him in nine colors, printed from nine different stones. Del'Armi, his pupil, carried the art to Italy. A very characteristic bull-fight by Goya bears witness to the prompt attention drawn to it in Spain. And the excellent color-work by Landzevelly in Austria dates as far back as 1819. One of his prints, with Hungarian lettering, was published in as remote a corner as Segesvar, that little hilly Nuremberg in Transylvania, almost on the Russian frontier.

The occasion being what it is, it follows that the larger part of the show is reserved for a retrospective collection. In this the progress of the art is readily traced from 1815 onward to about 1848, when it sank into temporary insignificance. Naturally, the most important section is the French, since, as I have said, it was in France that the art was most popular, and since, too, it was in France that artist-lithographers had such a large and powerful influence, during some thirty years, upon all public affairs, political, social, and artistic. To make the round of the galleries is to pass in review the chief tendencies and interests of the French people from the fall of the first Napoleon to the rise of the third. The series begins with the first achievements of fashion. There is the very "Cosaque," by the General Baron Lejeune, which made such a thrilling sensation in the great world of Paris. There, too, are the amiable efforts of the Duc de Montpensier and of Colonel Lomet, while in a print of Engelmann's one may see that prosperous lithographer receiving, in great style and elegance, no less a person than his Majesty Charles X. It must be added, however, that, but for its historic merit, this aristocratic work might be dismissed with a glance. For artistic qualities, one turns willingly to the designs of the first group of artists who figured as lithographers; of Carl and Horace Vernet, Isabey, Engelmann, who was no mere amateur, Vivant-Denon. It is curious to note how, from the beginning, these men directed lithography into the two great channels in which it was to prove such a power. It was Horace Vernet who first celebrated on stone the soldiers and wars of the Empire; a subject treated with still greater technical skill and artistic beauty by Charlet, Charles Lami, Raffet, the greatest of all, until among them they created that *Légende du Grand Empereur* which has brought the Bonapartes back to France once already, and which now and then threatens a new restoration. There are few prints in the collection more impressive than Raffet's lithograph of the retreat from Moscow—"Ils grognaient et le suivaient toujours." It alone would go far to explain the effect of this work upon a people as excitable and responsive as the French. While Horace Vernet was busying himself with military heroism, Isabey was creating his "Mayeux," that popular type by which he, and Traviès after him, scourged the *bourgeoisie*; to be followed by Vigneron's "Calicot," Henri Monnier's "Prudhomme," who, Daudet says, was no other than Monnier himself, and, gayer and more irrepressible still, Daumier's "Macaire." There is no exaggerating the social and political force wielded by this group of satirists and caricaturists, which included also Gavarni, with his 'Fourberies des Femmes,' Granville, with his scathing and deliciously funny caricatures of prominent politicians, his 'Scènes de la Vie Privée et Publique des Animaux,' Philippon, with his famous *poire*—in a word, all the men associated with *La Caricature* and *Charivari*.

There was also a third way in which lithography made itself felt. In 1820 Didot published his 'Voyages Pittoresques et Romantique dans l'Ancienne France,' with lithographs by Ingres and Horace Vernet and Fragonard and Bonington; and in their work, in their return to mediæval models and architecture and motives, some writers have found the very germ of Romanticism. However that may be where the poets and novelists were concerned, there can be no doubt that the painters of the Romantic movement were eager to give expression to artistic fancy and fact upon the stone. Paul Huet, Delacroix, Ingres, Géricault, Isabey, Rousseau, and Jacques are represented in the collection; and also the men who were the chief illustrators of Victor Hugo, and Gautier, and all the *Cénacle*—the two Johannots, Jean Gigoux, the two Devérias, Achille and Eugène Boulanger (who are better known, however, by their work on the wood-block).

Where there is so much that is of enormous and genuine interest, it is almost impossible to mention special examples, but here and there is a masterpiece more conspicuous than the others: Delacroix's wonderful "Tigre Royal," a unique impression, I believe, from the collection of Mr. Curtis; the portrait of Tony and Alfred Johannot, by Jean Gigoux, who, it will be remembered, in his 'Causeries sur les Artistes de mon Temps,' tells the story of its wild success, proof before letters being eagerly disputed for; the portrait of Madame Hoffman, by Devéria—not Eugène Devéria, whom, with Boulanger, Gautier immortalizes in his 'Château du Souvenir,' but Achille, whose portraits on the stone are of amazing delicacy and strength, and who, he himself confesses, could with ease make by them his two or three hundred francs a day—a practical form of recognition which genius does not always receive. Lemercier printed much of this work, as he continues to print a large proportion of the best done to-day; and in *L'Artiste*, the organ of Romanticism, many of the most notable lithographs appeared, among them the portrait of the Johannots, for instance.

There are examples given of Doré, but these are not remarkable. The man who bridges over the gulf between the earlier schools, before 1848, and the modern may be said to be Manet, who here makes a delightful showing; above all, in a big color-print of a species of Pulcinello, or Stenterello, apparently a legitimate descendant of Isabey's Mayeux. But there is nothing else that calls for attention until one comes to that work which is the outcome of the recent revival: work contained chiefly in three well-known publications, 'L'Estampe Originale,' 'L'Épreuve,' and 'Les Peintres Lithographiques.' I have said so much about it already in my notices of the Salons during the last three or four years, that to attempt to criticise it again would be useless repetition. All the men who have distinguished themselves in the yearly exhibitions, with the exception of M. Lunois, are here. Two reproductive-lithographers, M. Laugée and M. Mariou, appear to greater advantage, perhaps, than ever before. And it is amusing to contrast the posters of M. Chéret, M. Lautrec, and M. Anquetin with those done, by the same process, some fifty years ago to advertise the portfolios of lithographs and the illustrated books of the day. It must be admitted that, if technically little has been learned in the meantime, the designers of posters have improved tremendously in breadth and simplicity, and hence in effectiveness.

The other sections (for the show professes to be international) are much less complete, and this is to be regretted. America is quite unrepresented. The most accomplished of the modern Germans, the Munich Secessionists—Steinhausen, Thoma, Greiner—have unfortunately absented themselves altogether. Belgian and Dutch mystics, evidently accepting Toroop for master, have joined forces, with no very marked results. Otherwise, Holland contributes only the work of Storm, Van Gravesande, and Ten Cate. England has made the most serious and consistent effort, so that it seems the greater pity that just a trifle more energy could not have been exerted to make the English collection truly representative. As it is, but scant justice has been done to the earlier and often very fine lithographs produced by Englishmen. Bonington has been allowed to figure with the French lithographers with whom he worked, and thus the English section, in its retrospective series, loses what should be its chief attraction. While space has been found for portraits by Lane and Vinter, lithographers to the royal family, such men as David Roberts, J. D. Lewis, and Owen Jones have been omitted; and, on the other hand, unimportant examples of Prout, who did so much architectural work in lithography, Harding, Nash, and Cattermole, have been chosen. It is amusing to discover several of the Academicians, Sir Frederick Leighton and Mr. Alma-Tadema among them, endeavoring to prove themselves "in the movement" by now appearing for the first time as lithographers, but their designs, which are commonplace enough as drawings, are absolutely wanting in all appreciation of the qualities which go to make a good lithograph. Better are the prints of Mr. Chas. Shannon and Mr. Rothenstein, two of the younger Englishmen who understand the medium, and the workmanlike experiments of Mr. Alfred Parsons, Mr. Hague, and Mr. Hartley. But, when all is said, England, in the Champ de Mars, now owes its great distinction to America. It is not merely that Mr. Sargent and Mr. Abbey exhibit—Mr. Sargent, vigorous and intelligent as he is, in his study of a model, is not yet at home in working on the stone; nor, indeed, is Mr. Abbey. But Mr. Whistler here, as in any and every show to which he contributes, towers above most of his contemporaries. The public that cares is familiar with the greater number of the prints he has sent, since they have already been published. He seems to work with equal facility in line and in wash, directly on the stone and on the prepared lithographic paper. (This lithographic paper, by the way, and photo-lithography are the two most important improvements made in this century.) Whatever his method, he is ever the master, knowing just exactly what effects and qualities may be obtained from the stone. He forgets the painter and the etcher to become the perfect lithographer. There is but one drawback to his exhibit: it does not include one of his delicate color prints.

I have dwelt entirely upon the artistic side of the exhibition, because, necessarily, it is the more interesting. But the mechanical side has not been neglected. There are machines and papers and inks for the benefit of the commercial lithographer. Indeed, commercially as well as artistically, the show must, one would think, give a new lease of life to the hundred-year-old invention of Senefelder.

ELIZABETH ROBINS PENNELL.

AMERICAN COLONIAL MANUSCRIPTS IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM.—II.

LONDON, September, 1895.

THAT the short descriptions of the items, as

catalogued, give but the faintest idea of the abundant contents of some of these collections of manuscripts, will be the better understood by some account of one of them, namely, Egerton 2,395. No less than 128 distinct documents, ranging in date from 1627 to 1699, are bound up in this volume, which was purchased at Sotheby's, on the 16th of February, 1875, for £25, by Mr. Bernard Quaritch, on account of the Museum authorities. It was observed by Mr. Quaritch at the time that "only a very young man" had bid against him for the prize. Besides numerous papers relating to Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the West Indies, the volume contains papers relating to New England and Virginia, of which a list is subjoined hereunto. The student wishing to examine the papers should have at hand the printed catalogue of 'Additions to the Manuscripts in the British Museum, 1854-1875' (vol. ii.), published in 1877. Therein he will find noted (pp. 1034 to 1042) the contents of the volume of 678 folios, with the reference to the folio of the particular document sought for. When this collection was bought, its contents were arranged according to the colonies of which they treated, but the documents have since been rearranged and bound up in order of date. This accounts for the rather confusing double-numbering that exists on the folios. The following list comprises the papers relating to New England and Virginia:

NEW ENGLAND MSS. IN EGERTON 2,395.

List of Printed Books (in ye Plantaçon Office) treating of New England.

An Acco^{t} of all ye Trading Towns and Ports in New England.

A Brief Description of New England together with ye present Goverm^{t} thereof.

Names of ye Rivuers & chief Sagamores that inhabit upon them.

Certain Notes and Informations concerning New England.

Important points for ye Settlement of New England.

Proposals for New England.

30 May, 1665.—Letter concerning ye Northern Boundaries of the Massachusetts Colony.

1635.—Two Warrants against the Massachusetts.

1635.—Judgment on the two Warrants against the Massachusetts.

23 April, 1664.—Instructions to the King's Commissioners for New England.

1665.—State of ye Colony of Kenebeck from ye Commsrs. of New England.

1665.—State of the Province of New Hampshire from ye Commsrs. of New England.

1665.—State of ye Province of New Plimouth from ye Commsrs. for New England.

1665.—State of ye Colony of Rhode Island from the Commsrs. of New England.

1665.—State of the Colonie of Conecticut from the Commsrs. of New England.

1665.—State of ye Colonie of ye Massachusetts from the Commsrs. for New England.

1665.—Certificats concerning the Northern limits of the Massachusets Colonie.

1665.—Order concern ye Northerly bounds of the Massachusets.

1665.—Reports of Peter Weare concern ye North Limits of ye Massachusets Colony.

17 May, 1665.—Deposition of Richard Waldern concerning Merimack River.

10 April, 1666.—Letter from His Majesty to the Commiss^{rs} at New Engl^{d}.

1675.—Sir W^{m} Petty's Account of New England.

2 Oct., 1667.—Order for ye Committee to meet about New England.

18 Decr., 1674.—Draft of a letter for His Ma^{ty} to ye corporation of Boston concerning New Hampshire.

8 April, 1661.—Report from ye Council of Plantations concerning the encroachments of the Massachusets.

Petition of Merchants against the Bostoners.

Queries and objections agst the Massachusets encroachments.

1675.—Extract of a letter from New England concerning the Indian War.

Printed paper concerning Levies in New England & the war there.

30 April, 1681.—Paper of M^{r} Randolph for regulating the Trade of the Massachusetts.

The List of Books in the Plantation Office is supposed by the Museum authorities to have been made about 1677. It is as follows:

Printed in ye yeare

1671.—Ogilby in his America.

1625.—Purchas his Pilgrims ye 4th part.

1659.—Ferdinando Gorges, Esqe.

1641.—Abstracts of Laws of New England.

1643.—New England's first Fruits.

1622.—Relation of Plimouth in New Engl^{d}.

1622.—New England's Trials by Capt. Jn^{o} Smith.

1646.—A Short Discovery of America, by W^{m} Castel.

1676.—The Warrs of New Engl^{d}, by Increase Mather.

1616.—Description of New Engl^{d}, by Capt. Jn^{o} Smith.

1674.—Dutch Patent to a West India Comp^{a}.

1624.—General History of New England, by Capt. Jn^{o} Smith.

1676.—New England's Crisis.

1634,—New Engl^{ds} Prospect, by Wm. Wood.

1637.—New England's Canaan, by Thomas Morton.

1672.—Description of New Engl^{d}, by S^{r} Tho: Lynch.

1675.—Two Voyages to New Engl^{d}, by John Josselyn.

1672.—New England's rarities, by John Josselyn.

1672.—Laws of New England.

1638.—Capt. John Underhill's News from America.

1642.—Tho: Lechford's News from N. England.

1628.—Voyage into N. Engl^{d}, by Ch^{r} Levet.

1652.—Ill News from N. Engl^{d}, by John Clark.

1630.—New England Plantacon, by A. Divine.

1643.—Simplicity's Vindication against the seavenheaded Church-Government.

A Discourse and view of Virginia.

Computation of an Iron Work in Virg^{a}.

Enquiries concerning several things reported to be in Virginia and Bermudas, but not in England.

4 March, 1660.—Letter from the Council of Plantations to Virginia.

30 March, 1663.—Letter from S^{r} W^{m} Berkeley Gov^{r} of Virg^{a}

18 April, 1663.—Lre from S^{r} W^{m} Berkeley touching potashes, fflax @ Hemp &c.

28 March, 1663.—Letter from S^{r} W^{m} Berkeley and the Council at Virginia.

Letter from Anthony Langston of Virg^{a}.

Proposals concern building of Towns in Virg^{a}

Proposals concern ye Custom of Tobacco.

M^{r} Bland's case as Collect^{r} of ye Customs in Virg^{a}.

28 Aug., 1676.—Letter from M^{r} Bland to M^{r} Powey.

16 Sept., 1675.—Letter from M^{r} Bland to ye Gov^{r} of Virg^{a} concern ye execution of his office.

Lre from M^{r} Bland concern ye suspension of his office.

29 June, 1676.—Letter from Mris Bacon concern her husband.

M^{r} Bacon's acco^{t} of their troubles in Virginia.

1676.—Order of ye Gov^{r} concern the Assembly.

10 May, 1676.—Declaration of Sir W^{m} Berkeley.

Declaration of the People agst S^{r} W^{m} Berkeley.

The humble Appeal of ye Volunteers to all well minded men.

25 May, 1676.—Copie of M^{r} Nathaniel Bacon's letter to a Sec^{ry} of State.

Declaration of the people of Virginia concern their adherence to N. Bacon.

21 Nov., 1674.—Order of ye Gov^{r} @ Council concern M^{r} Bland.

The Virginians plea for opposing the Indians.

Peticon of Martin Noel, &c., about ye West Indies.

Proposicon of Martin Noel, &c., for improving the English Interest in ye West Indies.

Proposals for improm^{t} of part of Carolina.

13 March, 1670.—An Acco^{t} of the Bahama Islands by Solomon Robinson.

13 July, 1676.—Instructions to M^{r} Charles Chillingworth to the Gov^{r} of New Providence @ ye rest of ye Bahama Islands.

D. D.

Correspondence.

SCHOOL ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Committee of the Overseers of Harvard College on Composition and Rhetoric have issued a second report on the lamentable ignorance of English which they still find in the compositions of those who are entering college. They have certainly justified their criticisms by the examples which they give, and any defence of the state of affairs would be useless. Two things are perfectly plain: first, the ignorance of English which is found in boys of eighteen or nineteen, who are supposed to have had the best schooling which the country affords, is simply disgraceful; secondly, it is a pitiful waste of the resources of a great university to spend them in a vain attempt to teach English in college to persons who are so helplessly ignorant, for no teaching which a college has a right to give can be of the slightest use to them. It is further admitted on all hands that the colleges are not directly responsible for this deplorable condition of things. The youths in question are fresh from school, and have never been under college influences. Are, then, the high schools and academies which send them to college responsible? There is as yet no evidence which implicates them directly. These schools are in the same anomalous position as the colleges. They are compelled to receive many pupils whose previous education has been wofully defective, and they must either abandon their own proper work while they lay the neglected underpinnings, or they must proceed to build their own houses on a foundation of sand.

We come back to the oft-repeated truth—which is as stubborn as ever, though few comprehend its deep significance—that our students come to college at an average age of nineteen, in most cases poorly prepared to pass an examination which schoolboys of sixteen or seventeen would easily pass in England, France, or Germany. These youths have generally spent the previous three or four years doing boys' work, which they should have finished before they were fifteen or sixteen. The teachers see that time is precious to these belated wayfarers, and they do their best to hurry them through what is absolutely required for admission to college in the easiest manner. And this is probably the best that can be done for them under the circumstances. It is too late to lay the foundations of accurate scholarship after they come to the high school, but they can be pushed into college by skilful management. They are too old to be taught English like boys, and they have generally fallen into careless habits of writing, which only severe and regular discipline can eradicate; but for this they have neither time nor patience. If the teachers were to insist on every translation from Latin, Greek, or French being presented in correct, idiomatic English, the requisite amount of these languages could never be crammed into such pupils' heads. The result is what might be expected. In a large class of schools, English is taught as a thing by itself, in the hours assigned to it, and the other languages are taught as if English did not exist; and large numbers of their pupils come to college every year badly pre-

pared in most of the elementary learning which is required of them, and with no solid foundations of scholarship in any branch.

Perhaps none of our schools are entirely free from this class of pupils, and only a few of the most favored can escape the necessity of providing inferior instruction to suit their needs. A pupil who has time to prepare himself for even the moderate entrance requirements of our colleges without undue haste, and who can cultivate literary taste besides getting his lessons, is, I fear, a rare exception in most of our schools. A bright boy of fifteen who should come from one of the better schools in Germany, France, or England, would find his level here with boys of seventeen or eighteen, who had lost the precious time which he had saved. Besides the large class of belated and hurrying pupils, who suffer from want of early training through no fault of their own, every school has its share of the stupid and the lazy, who cannot or will not use even the advantages which are offered them. These would, of course, be a drag on scholarship under any system.

The original compositions published by the committee seem to come from both of these classes of students. The worst translations must come from the class of idlers and dunces, as they generally show no better knowledge of the classics than of English. I will repeat an illustration of the "dead level" of ignorance in both Greek and English, which I gave in discussing the previous report of the Committee in 1893. (See the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, No. 2, p. 192.) At one of the admission examinations of Harvard College, the two following attempts were made to translate the *same passage* of the 'Iliad' (ix. 247–251):

No. 6. "But up, if you are courageous and help the sons of the Greeks cooped up from being destroyed by the din of the Trojeans. You will be grieved afterwards, nor to any extent does the priest find evil in the sacrifice. But much before do you consider how you shall ward off an evil day from the Greeks."

No. 8. "But rise, if you have been here and heard the tired sons of the Greeks speak, under the din made by the Trojans. Anger against yourself will be put aside, nor is it possible to find and remembrance (knowledge) of the evil performed, or anger; but consider much first in order that you may not ward off the evil day from the Trojans."

It is hardly necessary to add that these wonderful productions have little resemblance to the real verses of Homer, which may thus be literally translated:

"Up then, if thou art minded, late though it be, to save the wearied sons of the Achæans from the battle-din of the Trojans. Else wilt thou have grief hereafter; and for harm once done there is no way to find a cure. But while there is yet time, do thou take thought how thou mayest ward off the evil day from the Danaans."

There is one charge which cannot be brought against these writers. They have surely not neglected their English for Greek. They are simply trying to translate from one unknown tongue into another. It is hopeless to attempt to improve these by any change in system or by any better instruction. Other translations, which show a better knowledge of Latin or Greek, but the same slovenly and ungrammatical English, must come from the other class, whose want of elementary training in youth obliged them to omit the "humanities" in their preparation for college. These victims of a bad system can be helped, and it is our duty to help them, or at least their successors.

What, now, were these boys doing before they were fifteen, when they ought to have mastered their elementary studies, including English? This question has been completely and satisfactorily answered by President Eliot in his Washington address and in many other papers and addresees. They were wasting time at school, spending seven or eight years in doing work which should have been done in five or six years, and which is much better done in that time in other countries. Whatever study is to be pursued with effect must have its foundations laid before the age of fifteen. Many of the English public schools offer scholarships which are restricted to boys under fifteen, sometimes to boys under fourteen. In the examinations for these, papers are set in algebra (by no means elementary), geometry, and trigonometry; and classical papers which include simple passages from the Greek tragedians and Livy (to be translated by the help of a dictionary), with Greek and Latin composition. Questions in history, French, German, and English, show that these studies are not neglected, and we can assume that in an English school English in all the translations is carefully watched. What interests us chiefly here is the universal assumption that boys of thirteen or fourteen can translate Æschylus, Sophocles, and Livy, even with a dictionary, and can use geometry and algebra freely. What would a scholarship examination for boys of thirteen or fourteen be in this country? All this belongs to a school system entirely different from ours—one which we sometimes laugh at as old-fashioned and aristocratic.

From what has been said it is obvious that English boys from fifteen to eighteen in good schools are not working on the elements of Latin, Greek, and mathematics. At Westminster School in London, in which no boy is allowed after he is nineteen, we find boys from fifteen to eighteen studying Homer, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes, Plato, Lysias, Lucretius, Terence, Horace, Cicero, St. Augustine, and St. Cyril, with algebra, trigonometry, conic sections, statics, and dynamics. The study of English is stimulated by lessons in the English Bible and by "repetitions" from standard authors. There is an air of elegant leisure about all this, which often astonishes both teachers and pupils in American schools. It is sometimes said that these are "picked boys." But why cannot our "picked boys" do something like this? Those who take these higher studies propose to study for honors at the University; but they will enter colleges at Oxford or Cambridge most of which have no higher requisites for admission than Harvard or Yale. They know, however, that no teacher of distinction at either university will give his time to "pass men," who bring to college merely what is absolutely required for admission; and they therefore carry their studies in some branches at least two years beyond these requirements. A few of the better Oxford colleges, as Balliol, refuse to take pass-men on any terms, and protect themselves by special examinations; but these are exceptional cases. If these pupils had chosen to enter college by simply passing the ordinary examinations, they could have gone to the university when they were fifteen or sixteen. Under these circumstances they naturally pursue their studies in a very different spirit from those who are goaded on to a dreaded examination. We can easily see how the English schools can secure due attention to writing English, which they all demand from such pupils as these, *i. e.*, from more than half of the school.

What Dr. Everett tells us of the University of Cambridge, "Bad English will condemn a translation quite as much as incorrect rendering" ('On the Cam,' p. 84) is equally true of the English schools. In the *Spectator* of September 21 there is a letter from an English scholar praising his old master in the Oakham Grammar School. He says: "That which most stimulated us in our appreciation of our own tongue was, I think, the constant demand which our old master made upon us for idiomatic and vigorous English in our rendering of classical authors, and his constant citations of English classics in illustration of what we read." Such translations as are published by the committee do nothing to discredit the value of translations from the classics as exercises in English composition. We must only remember that, to make this process effective, a pupil needs not merely some knowledge of English, but also some knowledge of Latin and Greek.

I repeat that it is not the fault of the teachers who send students to our colleges that all this is impossible here. They cannot take boys of fourteen or fifteen, or even sixteen, who have not yet begun the studies which are to prepare them for college, and who have learned no systematic habits of study, and make scholars of them before they are eighteen or nineteen. Can we further demand of these teachers that they shall at the same time eradicate the habit of writing slovenly English, which in many of these boys is a second nature, and teach them a pure and simple style? Everything here must be taught under pressure, and the English generally comes off no worse than the Latin, Greek, or mathematics; only the bad English is more obvious, even to a casual observer. No real reform can be expected here until a radical change is made in our lower education, by which pupils shall enter the high schools at least two years earlier than they now do. The elementary studies, which now occupy the years from fifteen to nineteen, can then be put back where they belong, and pupils can use these important years for studies which belong to their age. It is beyond dispute that this can be done, with benefit both to the pupil and to his studies, unless we admit that English, French, and German boys are brighter than our own. Indeed, the reform is already begun and is in successful progress. The city of Cambridge has a grammar-school course of four years (an alternative to the old established course of six years), now in its third year of operation, by which the brighter and more willing pupils —all in whom there is any hope of future scholarship—will regularly be ready for the high school at the age of twelve, thus saving two years and establishing better habits of study. The same good work is going on elsewhere, and the outlook is more hopeful every year. On the success of this reform depends greatly, in my opinion, the future of the higher education in this country. Until it is effected, our higher schools must go on teaching full-grown young men what they should have learned as boys, and our colleges must go on teaching their students what they should have learned at school; while studies like English, which cannot be taught without constant personal influence and supervision, will remain as they now are. The committee of the Harvard Overseers may congratulate themselves on the progress of this movement, although no tangible results can be expected

from it until it has had at least four years to work in.

In the meantime the colleges can do something to help on the reform, and to palliate the evil which they cannot cure by themselves. They can apply a powerful pressure from above upon the schools below them, which will be in turn eagerly transmitted to the lower level where the real work must be done. The colleges have no engine so powerful as their bachelor's degree, which never fails when it is judiciously applied. They should declare that slovenly and ungrammatical English will no longer be accepted at the entrance examinations, even if it is necessary to condition three-quarters of the candidates; and they must further make it known that the degree will not be conferred on any who do not show that they can write correct English either before admission or afterwards. This would mean simply that English is to be a real requisite for the degree, on an equal footing with the languages and the mathematics. And college teachers must no longer waste their time and strength and the college revenues in attempting to teach these delinquents. No colleges now pretend to teach the elements of Latin, Greek, or mathematics to those who fail in these at their admission. Why should they teach the elements of English? In this way the colleges can make it plain in the right quarters that time must be saved in the lower schools for the development of the higher studies, and that a fair portion of this time must be devoted to our native language. W. W. Goodwin.

Cambridge, Mass., October 14, 1895.

"COLLEGES" AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The increase in the number of students at Harvard again draws attention to the administrative problem, and may perhaps bring on further discussion of the late Secretary Bolles's suggestion that there might be an administrative division of the college. It will be remembered that the chief opposition to his suggestion—it was hardly specific enough to be called a plan—sprang from the fear that the name Harvard College might be lost, or might come to be applied to only one of several groups of buildings, officers, and students.

Possibly this objection would lose some of its force if it were known that, in the early history of the institution, there was, at least so far as names went, a certain adherence to the English usage in the matter of separate colleges. I find in the archives in Gore Hall a vote of the Overseers, of date July 9, 1712, naming a committee "to survey the Roof of *Harvard College*, to Report the State of it, & their Judgm^t for the best Methods for its Reparation." In their report, rendered a few weeks later, the committee recommend as follows: "Wee are of Opinion w^th respect to the *Old College* [the second Harvard Hall, which was burnt in 1764]. That the best way is to take off the Roof. . . . As for *Stoughton's College* [the first Stoughton Hall], Wee gave in o^r Opinion this time two year of what we thought proper to be don . . ." The italics are mine.

Numerous other extracts from the records might be given to show that the term College was commonly applied to each building after more than one had been built. Moreover, there is evidence that each of the seventeenth-century buildings contained the chambers necessary for such physical wants of the students as they were allowed to gratify in those days—chambers, studies, a dining hall, etc. There is, however, no evidence, to my knowledge, of any division of the teaching force at any time previous to the establishment of professional schools.—Very respectfully,

Wm. G. Brown.

Library of Harvard University,
Cambridge, Mass., Oct. 18, 1895.

THE LITERARY AND THE MEDICAL DEGREES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The proposition of your correspondent W. H. Johnson, that the difficulty and expense of obtaining a medical education should be increased in order to discourage those who might be led to undertake it from motives of prurient curiosity, is one the injustice of which is equalled only by its absurdity under present conditions. It is no more true that, in any considerable proportion of cases, the choice of the medical profession is determined by such motives than that the degree of A.B. is a guarantee of the purity of its possessor's mind; but even if such were the case, a college course is the last thing about which a man, if such there be, who wishes to study medicine for such purposes need trouble himself. It will be a long step in advance when no medical school in the country will admit a man without a decent English education, and there are but few States in which either a literary or a medical degree is practically necessary to enable any one who is so disposed to set up as a doctor. The remedy for the evils which Mr. Johnson deprecates is in the hands of the patients. No system can be devised which will mechanically exclude from the profession men of good abilities and bad character.

The thing to be desired under all circumstances, but especially when, as at present, it is easy to get a degree with a very inadequate amount of both general and professional education, is to make it as easy as possible to get a first-class medical training. Believing, as I do, that it is desirable that every physician should be a liberally educated man, it has long been a matter of concern to me to see that the proportion of college graduates in the medical schools of this country is diminishing. With the increased entrance requirements of the colleges and the lengthening of the medical course, it is a very formidable undertaking to obtain both degrees, and the ambitious student in this country is, in this respect, handicapped as compared with those who aspire to the most thorough training in foreign countries. The German student finishes his course in the gymnasium at eighteen or nineteen, about the time the American is ready to enter college, takes his five years' course in the medical department of the university, and may graduate with the highest honors by the time the American has completed his first year of professional study. Substantially the same is true, I believe, everywhere on the Continent, and in England the proportion of graduates of Oxford or Cambridge among students of medicine is very small. That the finished product of the schools of this country shows any such superiority over that of the Continental schools as to compensate for the increased outlay of time and money, I do not believe that any one who is acquainted with the facts will claim.

Whether or not it is desirable that the entrance requirements of the colleges should be so modified as to reduce the average age of the students, I will not undertake to decide; but it is my firm belief that it is practicable to incorporate the scientific studies which lie at the foundation of the medical art with the college curriculum so that the graduate may have the equivalent, at least, of the first year of the medical school, without at all detracting from the value of the college course as a means of mental discipline or liberal culture. Every college requires some study of natural science, and most allow a considerable amount to count towards fulfilling the requirements for the literary degree. There is no reason why the study of the structure and functions of the human body may not be made as valuable for all the purposes of a liberal education as that of the formation of the earth's crust and the movements of the planets. Bacteriology has as much disciplinary value as any other branch of botany, and neither the interest nor the benefits of chemistry and modern languages would be diminished by the knowledge that they were to be available for practical purposes. In my opinion, not a few students who perfunctorily cram studies in which they have no interest, to be forgotten as soon as the examinations are passed, would pursue with enthusiasm a line of work which fell in with their tastes and directly furthered their plans for the serious business of life.

Whatever may be thought of the practicability of such a plan, which is, I believe, in operation at the University of Michigan, and perhaps elsewhere, I am satisfied that until the aggregate of time and expense required for the literary and medical degrees can be diminished, the great body of aspirants for the latter will continue to dispense with the former, to their own regret in many cases, and to the detriment of both the profession and the public. W. L. Worcester, A.M., M.D.

Danvers Lunatic Hospital, Mass., Oct. 15, 1895.

ART DECORATIONS IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The daily papers announce that the Chicago Public Library is to be magnificently decorated with mosaics; that the "reading-room is to be an exact transcription of the ducal palace of the 400 in Venice," and elsewhere in the building will be seen "pilasters in Austrian gold and green, shading into iridescent blues finished in bronze," as well as "a wainscoting thirty or forty feet high of statuary vein marble, each section of which is ornamented by a band of mosaics composed of Tiffany-Favril glass, semi-precious stones, mother-of-pearl, and pure gold."

These extravagant plans for embellishing the interior of a building designed for the storing of books and the accommodation of readers lead me to raise the question as to the propriety of making a library so attractive to the general public that it becomes a show-place instead of a quiet and comfortable resort for students; in short, to what extent should the fine arts find place in our public libraries? From several weeks' experience as a reader in the splendidly appointed Boston Public Library, I have found that the introduction of the much-lauded decorations by eminent artists is a great drawback to the undisturbed enjoyment of the privileges for which the building is primarily erected. The throngs of people who crowd the grand staircase to visit the splendid building are not content with gazing at the wall decorations by Abbey, Sargent, and others, but must needs tramp through Bates Hall as well, clicking their heels on the stone floor throughout its entire length.

One morning, as I sat at a table in the reading-room, I noted, within the space of one hour, a troop of eleven women tourists, two bands of school-girls personally conducted by their mistresses, besides scores of individual sightseers of all ages, alone or in groups of varying numbers. The authorities realize that readers are disturbed by these visitors to the art-treasures, and express a belief that, as soon as the novelty has passed, the disturbance will cease. They plan also to open special rooms for the use of scholars on the upper floor; but these rooms are not convenient to the books of reference so liberally placed in Bates Hall, nor to the card-catalogue, without which shelf-numbers cannot be had.

Should the reading-room be closed to casual visitors and open only to bona-fide readers, the tax-paying public would feel defrauded of the right to view that which has cost so great a sum. On the other hand, we hear of no complaints because the stack-rooms are not thrown open. Should the original plan be carried out, of placing Whistler's canvas on the east wall of Bates Hall, and other works of art in the panels which are as yet bare, readers might as well abandon attempts at serious study.

The splendid stonework, the noble provisions for making the building fireproof, are worthy of all praise; but I have thought that if the princely sums expended on merely decorative features had been devoted to the purchase of books, the present stringency would not have arisen, and earnest students would not be obliged to conduct their researches amid the social surroundings of a public art museum.

H. Carrington Bolton.

New York, October 14, 1895.

Notes.

At last the English Dialect Dictionary challenges the public support without which the mighty enterprise cannot begin to get into print in June, 1896. A thousand subscribers are needed, willing to engage to pay $7.50 annually for eight years, in return for two half-yearly parts. All such in this country should notify, without delay, the American agents, G. P. Putnam's Sons, No. 27 West Twenty-third Street, New York. There ought to be at least a thousand public libraries which would deem this monument to the language indispensable to their collections.

B. Westermann & Co., 812 Broadway, invite subscriptions to a 'Bibliographie Française,' a collection of the catalogues of French booksellers analogous to our own 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual' and the English 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature.' The price in paper will be four dollars a *copy* (there may be several volumes). Besides an alphabetical index, there will be a systematic classification. This is good news to all libraries and students.

Two collections of unpublished letters of David Ricardo have been brought to light in England, during the past summer, by Dr. J. H. Hollander of Johns Hopkins University. They comprise Ricardo's correspondence with J. R. McCulloch, and a series of letters addressed to Hutches Trower, Esq. It is proposed to publish both collections, numbering some seventy letters in all, and Dr. Hollander would be glad to hear of any other letters of Ricardo in private possession.

A popular Life of the late Prof. Blackie, by H. A. Kennedy, will be issued by James Clarke & Co., London, close upon the publication of Miss Anna Stoddart's two-volume biography. It will be illustrated with portraits and otherwise.

Mr. Scargill-Bird's valuable 'Handbook to the Public Record Office' having gone out of print, a second edition of it has just been passed for the press by the author, before he left London for Constantinople for his holiday. The new edition will differ materially from the first, owing to its embodying the rearrangement of records as made of recent years by that energetic official, Mr. Maxwell Lyte, C.B., the Deputy Keeper. By the new system, all papers relating to the several Departments of State are grouped together, instead of being found under several headings, as was formerly the case. A number of new lists and indices have hence been issued during the past five years, which will, of course, be noticed under their proper heads. Another feature of the new edition will be an elaborate general index. It is noteworthy, as evidence of the usefulness of the 'Handbook' to others than historical students, that it has been the means of inducing students of the Inns of Court to resort to the Public Record Office for the perusal of old documents illustrative of legal procedure.

The volume upon the West Indies for Mr. Fisher Unwin's "History of the Nations" series will be written by Mr. James Rodway, author of 'The Struggle for Life in the Guiana Forest.'

Edward Arnold, London and New York, will shortly publish 'A Little Tour in America,' by Dean Hole; 'My South African Journey,' by Alice Balfour; 'Memories of Mashonaland,' by Bishop Bruce; 'Fire and Sword in the Sudan,' by Slatin Pasha; 'Robert Louis Stevenson,' by Walter Raleigh; and 'Benjamin Jowett,' by the Hon. Lionel Tollemache.

Mr. Edmund Gosse, in the *Athenæum* for October 5, disavows any responsibility for an edition of the works of Thomas Gray associated with his name by the American house of Frederick A. Stokes & Co.

Macmillan & Co. have become the American agents for the "Arber Reprints," of which the Paston Letters are the latest issues. In connection with the Cambridge (England) University Press they will publish 'The Scientific Papers of John Couch Adams'; 'Collected Mathematical Papers of the late Arthur Cayley'; 'The Geographical Distribution of Mammals,' by R. Lyddeker; 'The Renaissance Period of Geographical Discovery,' by E. G. Ravenstein; 'The Early Renaissance in England,' by Bishop Creighton; 'Woman Under Monasticism,' by Lena Eckenstein; and 'The Growth of British Policy,' by the late Sir J. R. Seeley. For themselves they are about to bring out 'Bookbindings, Old and New,' by Prof. Brander Matthews, and Mr. John La Farge's admirable lectures at the Metropolitan Museum in 1893, under the title, 'Considerations on Painting'; and will shortly begin publication of an English translation of the entire works of Friedrich Nietzsche.

Additional announcements by Charles Scribner's Sons are 'The Art of Living,' by Robert Grant, and 'An Old New England Town,' by Frank Samuel Child.

D. Appleton & Co., will give a fresh garb to White's 'Natural History of Selborne,' in two volumes, with an introduction by John Burroughs, and a first appearance to Anthony Hope's 'Chronicles of Count Antonio.'

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Our Industrial Utopia and its Unhappy Citizens,' by David Hilton Wheeler, and 'That Dome in Air,' reviews of the works of Emerson, Lowell, Cowper, Blake, Whitman, and others, by John Vance Cheney, Librarian of the Newberry Library.

The Munich Verlagsanstalt für Kunst und Wissenschaft (New York: Westermann) will publish directly 'Richard Wagner, sein Leben, Lehren und Schaffen,' by Houston Stewart Chamberlain, with numerous portraits, facsimiles, and other illustrations.

Some nine months ago our Paris correspondent dealt fully with Albert Pulitzer's interesting work, 'Une Idylle sous Napoleon I.,' which Dodd, Mead & Co. now publish in English, in two handsome volumes, under the secondary title of 'The Romance of Prince Eugene.' The translation is by Mrs. B. M. Sherman, but it is not on the level of the typography. The want of command of either idiom is shown in these examples: "That Napoleon should say the word, and he [Murat] stood ready to sacrifice his family, his subjects. 'I should be lost,' he says, 'but I should have proved to you that I am still your best friend.'" "She never asked anything of me for her son, nor, by a perfection of tact, did she thank me for what I had done for him." There are two portrait frontispieces. The same firm send us a new edition of Charles Reade's 'Christie Johnstone,' with unfathered illustrations in wash-drawing, and Goldsmith's 'She Stoops to Conquer,' with illustrations by J. C. Gordon. The latter is well printed and richly bound, and the pictorial embellishments are much above the average, but their diversity (pen-and-ink and tone work) rather mars the decorative effect.

The *Portfolio*, though nominally a periodical magazine, is really a serial library, with each issue a book or section of a book. We have already commented on Julia Cartwright's two monographs on 'The Early Work of Raphael.' These have now been bound up in a plain yet elegant manner, and form a very desirable possession (Macmillan). There are eight photogravure plates, and a large number of half-tone cuts in the text. From Macmillan we have also a pretty reissue of Goldwin Smith's 'Oxford and her Colleges,' with characteristic photographic illustrations, including a boat-race; and an externally taking edition, in pocket-size, of Charles Kingsley's novels, 'Alton Locke,' 'Two Years Ago,' 'Westward Ho!'—but the compression has required a small type and thin paper, which will not commend them to those who enjoyed these classics in their youth.

Thicker paper, but fine type still, we find in the neat and companionable Cameo series of the Messrs. Scribner, which has lately been extended by 'A Chosen Few Short Stories,' by Frank R. Stockton, 'A Little Book of Profitable Tales,' by Eugene Field, 'The Reflections of a Married Man' and 'The Opinions of a Philosopher,' by Robert Grant, all which have a well-defined place in the lighter literature of the day.

Our list of reprints is enlarged by the addition of G. P. R. James's 'Richelieu,' in two volumes in the well-known style of the Knickerbocker Press, to the "Representative Novels" of the Messrs. Putnam, among which we may recall the writings of the Baroness Tautphoeus; and by a respectable, but scarcely beautiful, reproduction of the Chapman & Hall edition of Eugene Sue's 'The Wandering Jew,' in two volumes, by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

After the praise we gave Prof. C. F. Bastable's 'Public Finance,' on its first appearance in 1892, it is necessary for us only to note the issue of a second and revised edition (Macmillan). The revision involves a thorough overhauling of facts and figures, an account of several new tax laws enacted since the first

edition, a new chapter on "Maxims of Taxation," and (a serious defect made good) an index.

Mr. Alfred Daniell's 'Text Book of the Principles of Physics' has reached a third edition (Macmillan). The author states that his treatise is intended primarily for students of medicine; and in adapting it to the wants of such students, he points out a physician's need of training in the great subjects of mechanics, light, heat, and electromagnetism—a need which even now is not fully recognized in the courses of study of medical schools in England and America. The treatise is an excellent book of reference; it does not contain unnecessary pictures, or descriptions of apparatus which is not strictly of use in developing the subject.

Prof. Horace Lamb's 'Hydrodynamics' (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan) may be regarded as the second edition of a treatise on the 'Mathematical Theory of the Motion of Fluids' published by the same author in 1879. It contains, however, so many additions and alterations that the author has concluded to adopt a new title. Much space is devoted to the theory of waves and to the subject of viscosity. The subject of vortex motion is not enlarged upon, for the writer apparently considers it of chief importance in connection with that of motions of the ether. Both in this new treatise and in the new edition of Rayleigh's theory of sound, one perceives the influence of Maxwell's mathematical treatment of electrical problems upon the subject of wave motion in fluids. Conversely, in order to read Maxwell's great treatise on Electricity and Magnetism understandingly, one should read first such a treatise as this on hydrodynamics. The book fully sustains the reputation of the author.

A new edition of W. Slingo and A. Brooker's 'Electrical Engineering' comes to us from Longmans, Green & Co. It is designed for electric-light artisans and students, and embraces the branches prescribed in the syllabus issued by the City and Guilds Technical Institute. It contains excellent descriptions of the principal forms of direct current dynamos and alternating-current dynamos; of the various forms of electric lights and their manner of distribution; and of the instruments used in practical electrical measurements. The authors have given largely English types of machines and examples of English practice in electrical engineering. The treatise is therefore disappointing to an American student. There is no reference to the principle of the D'Arsonval galvanometer, and the American instruments devised by Weston are not mentioned. These instruments are now being rapidly introduced into England and Germany, and are far superior to instruments for the same purpose which are described in this treatise. One is surprised, also, to find no reference to the rotary magnetic field, and to the subject of "alternating"-current motors. In the United States the electric-fan alternating electric motor is already widely used. There are installations of alternating-current motors for transmitting power over considerable distances, and the use of periodic currents in motors has passed the experimental stage.

The rapid progress in the construction of the Siberian Railway lends special interest to an account, in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for September, of the Province of Transbaikalia. The larger, northern part is still clothed with dense forests of pine, cedar, fir, larch, and beech, and its 600,000 inhabitants (about equally divided between natives, Russians, and Cossacks) are scattered along the valleys of the numerous southern streams. Its seven towns and seven hundred and fifty villages have been built by direction of the Government so as to separate the native settlements from each other, the Cossacks being placed along the Chinese frontier. The chief occupation of the people is agriculture, though mining is making some progress. Nine thousand men are gold-miners, their annual earnings for the eight years preceding 1890 being 3,500,000 rubles. Besides gold, which is apparently found in all the streams, there are deposits of silver, lead, tin, iron, quicksilver, coal, and salt in various places. The silver and lead mines are worked chiefly by convicts, who are paid regular wages, of which 45 per cent. goes into the provincial treasury, 45 per cent. into the prison fund, and 10 per cent. is given to the convict when his term of hard labor is over. If his behavior has been good, he can then become a farmer. There are now sixteen thousand of these paroled prisoners, the yearly average of fresh arrivals being twenty-two hundred. Another occupation, principally of the natives, is the transportation of tea, of which twelve million rubles' worth pass every year over the two great trade routes from China westward. The return freight of the caravans consists mainly of skins, gold, and silver.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October opens with Mr. H. J. Makinder's presidential address to the geographical section of the British Association, in which he treats of the history of geography in the last two centuries, its place among the sciences, and the true method of teaching it. Mr. Scott Elliot gives an encouraging account of the capabilities of eastern tropical Africa for colonization.

—Those who would not lose a keen pleasure, as well as a source of deepest profit, should not overlook Prof. William James's article entitled "Is Life Worth Living?" in the current number of the *International Journal of Ethics*. It is not so much that he gives a final answer to the question, but the amount of clear thinking and of clear, straight, vivid feeling that the article contains is enough to furnish forth many articles of lesser men. His first task is to demolish whatever residue may remain, in the minds of the people he is addressing, of natural religion: the physical order of nature, he concludes, taken simply as science knows it, cannot be held to reveal any one harmonious intent; it is mere *weather*, as Chauncey Wright called it, doing and undoing without end. He then gives a most taking setting forth of the grounds for a more reasonable conception of the universe—grounds which, shreds and patches though they be, may yet reconcile us to a less gloomy view of human fate. It is a treatment of the subject which cannot but bring good heart to many a weary soul, whether or not it is all that can be said upon the question. For most of us, indeed, the question is not worth asking; we find a world full of human beings the great majority of whom are sure to go on living from an instinctive liking for life, without taking thought as to whether that liking has good grounds or not, and we also find that we who have energy, courage, leisure, can do an immense deal towards making their living, necessary evil even though it may be, far happier than it would be without us.

—The Japanese periodical press is now so voluminous and varied as to require a *Review of Reviews*, and the age of indexing has begun. The chief luminary is the *Sun*, the numbers of which from May to August are now on our table. The variety of themes treated by able native specialists in nearly every known department of science and speculation forces contrast with the cramped intellectual conditions of old hermit days. In a circle of bright young men who have come home with certificates of study or diplomas from schools beyond the oceans, a few untravelled natives like Prof. Kumé do more than hold their own. China, Korea, Formosa, and Russia claim especial attention from the points of view of the geographer and statesman; but literature, commerce, industry, agriculture, history, fiction, the drama, domestic economy, science, the fine arts, education, religion, and miscellaneous topics are luminously and ably discussed. The well-written editorials in English and the illustrations add emphasis to the proof of the thoroughness of Japan's acceptance of Western ideas. The *Fuzoku Gaho*, or illustrated magazine of Japanese life, and the *Maru-maru Shimbun*, the chief comic paper of Japan, bear witness of the same sort. As yet, however, the decency and self-restraint shown in their art and literature have not reached the merry side of their life. Japanese fun is still too coarse, and the *Puck* of Japan shows as yet, after ten years or more of publication, little else than the rudest caricature. The *Rikugo Zasshi* continues, with surprising vigor, to be the best Christian theological review in the empire. Eight or ten of the seventy sects of Japanese Buddhism also publish periodicals in vindication or propagation of their tenets. The war-magazine, which enjoyed a grand success during the continental campaign, is now gathering up the fragments of anecdote and history besides diligently reporting the fighting in Formosa. The *Historical Review* continues its solid work of investigation and critical scholarship.

—Harper & Bros. publish 'A Concise Dictionary of the English and Modern Greek,' by Dr. A. N. Jannaris, a cultivated Greek gentleman who visited this country a few years ago. This volume is confined to the English-Greek part, and will be very useful to the increasing number of visitors to Greece and Asia Minor who wish to learn the language of the country. Dr. Jannaris often gives us a great variety of Greek words as the equivalent of a common English word; these descend from the most elegant expressions seen in literary prose and heard in the most elegant circles in Athens down to the colloquial language of the streets. Many forms are marked to distinguish their character as "archaic," "literary," or "colloquial"; and the traveller is wisely advised, in talking with Greeks, to use the colloquial language by preference, and to avoid learned and archaic words. This dictionary will be a safe guide to a foreigner in Greek lands who wishes to enlarge his vocabulary after he has learned how to speak from a tutor and a phrase-book. In no language is there greater need of a sensible tutor who will teach a dialect which is neither too vulgar nor too scholastic. He who is led too far by an enthusiasm for restoring ancient Greek will find his language is understood by only a limited circle. The late Dr. Schliemann was fond of addressing his servants in a language based on the ancient Attic, but they always needed an interpreter to make it intelligible to them. Dr. Jannaris tells us how to say "go away" elegantly by ἀπέρχομαι and colloquially by φεύγω; but everybody in Athens understands the latter, and very few hesitate to use it. In many cases the use of the more elegant classical expressions is checked

by their length. Nobody will use the polite word for wardrobe, ἱματιοφυλάκιον, when everybody understands and uses the Turkish δουλάπι for this piece of furniture. We notice a few words in the dictionary which we hardly think will ever need to be translated into Greek. Such are *hoity-toity*, *hugger-mugger*, *hocus-pocus*, and *bilk*, which have no real equivalents in Greek. It is almost comic to see *nous* given as an English word, translated, of course, by the same word in Greek letters. We hope this work will soon be followed by a corresponding volume with a Greek-English dictionary.

—The name of Johanna Ambrosius, the peasant poetess, has within a few months become a household word in every German home. The discovery of a new poet in that land of song could not of itself excite our special wonder, but the deep root which this woman's poems seem to have taken in the hearts of all classes of her countrymen is a circumstance sufficiently remarkable to arrest the attention of readers everywhere. The life of Johanna Ambrosius has been one of hard and humble labor in farm-house and field. Amid sordid cares and physical sufferings she found consolation for her sorrows by uttering them in hopeful, uncomplaining verse. The only sources of her scanty culture were the newspapers and the periodicals, and it was through the medium of these that from her home in a remote village of East Prussia her voice reached the outside world. These waifs of the poet's corner at last attracted the attention of Prof. Schrattenthal in Pressburg; he collected them, and at Christmas, 1894, they were published. In less than three months a fourth edition had appeared, and now the seventh is at hand. These poems have the winning beauty of directness and simplicity; their language is pure and their construction faultless; nowhere are we obliged to make allowance for the humbleness of the singer's station or for the meagreness of her educational opportunities. She reveals a genuineness of feeling and a lofty spirit of resignation which speak at once from heart to heart, and her words found a quick response in the imperial palace and the humblest home. The Empress, it is said, has given her a cottage and provided for her declining years; the most distinguished men of letters have spoken in her praise, and now comes the news that one of the greatest of modern song-composers has been inspired by the charm of her verse. In the near future we may expect to find the names of Johanna Ambrosius and Johannes Brahms linked to some lyric gem. The eminence as well as the number of the admirers of this peasant woman would seem to assure her a place above the foot-hills of the German Parnassus.

—An interesting report of Mr. Preston's geodetic and other observations in the Hawaiian Islands has recently been published by the Coast Survey Office. Not only have determinations of latitude, gravity, and the magnetic elements been made, but a new result for the mean density of the earth has been reached. After making a continuous study for one year of the force of gravity at Waikiki, an expedition was undertaken to the summit of Mauna Kea, an extinct volcanic crater, elevation 13,825 feet. At this unique station magnetic, latitude, and hypsometric observations were carried on and surveys made. Also, among other points, at Napoopoo, on the lee side of Hawaii, the magnetic elements were determined anew, where Captain Cook made similar observations in 1799; and at Lahaina, where De Freycinet established a station in 1819. At Kawaihæ are the remains of an ancient temple, famous in the early history of the islands as being the scene of the first steps toward consolidation of them all. A remarkable feature of this ruin is that although the early inhabitants had no metal tools, and are not even yet good mathematical reasoners, still their temples quite uniformly present accurate right angles. Ascending Mauna Kea, camp was established on the banks of a lake known as Waiau, one of the highest bodies of water in the world, at an elevation exceeding 13,000 feet. Mamame trees were not seen above 10,000 feet, and the last remaining trace of vegetation disappeared at 11,500 feet, although on the banks of the lake itself four kinds of plants were growing, and flies, spiders, and butterflies were seen. The extremes of temperature were very trying, 13° F. at night, and 108° F. in the daytime. Mr. Preston made an extensive collection of the rocks on Mauna Kea, from a study of which he derives a density of the mountain; and, combining this with his pendulum observations, he finds for the mean density of the earth 5.13, a constant probably one-twelfth part too small.

RECENT POETRY.

It is worth considering wherein lies the charm that attaches, it appears, to 'The Black Riders, and Other Lines,' by Stephen Crane (Boston: Copeland & Day). It is an attraction which makes young people learn it by heart, carry it into the woods with them, sleep with it under their pillows, and perhaps suggest that it should be buried with them in their early graves. Undoubtedly it offers new sensations: the brevity of its stanzas; its rhymelessness and covert rhythm, as of a condensed Whitman or an amplified Emily Dickinson; a certain modest aggressiveness, stopping short of actual conceit. The power lies largely in the fact that this apparent affectation is not really such, and that there is behind it a vigorous earnestness and a fresh pair of eyes. Even the capitalization of every word seems to imply that the author sought thus to emphasize his "lines"—just as Wordsworth printed "The White Doe of Rylstone," in quarto—to express his sense of their value. A mere experiment will show how much each page loses by being reduced to what printers call "lower-case" type; and yet this result itself seems unsatisfactory because anything which is really good, one might say, could bear to be printed in letters as small as in those microscopic newspapers sent out of Paris under pigeons' wings during the siege. The total effect of the book is that of poetry torn up by the roots—a process always interesting to the botanist, yet bad for the blossoms. As formless, in the ordinary sense, as the productions of Walt Whitman, these "lines" are in other respects the antipodes of his; while Whitman dilutes mercilessly, Crane condenses almost as formidably. He fulfils Joubert's wish, to condense a page into a sentence and a sentence into a word. He grasps his thought as nakedly and simply as Emily Dickinson; gives you a glance at it, or, perhaps, two glances from different points of view, and leaves it there. If it be a paradox, as it commonly is, so much the better for him. Thus (p. 12):

> In a lonely place,
> I encountered a sage
> Who sat, all still,
> Regarding a newspaper.
> He accosted me:
> "Sir, what is this?"
> Then I saw that I was greater,
> Aye, greater than this sage.
> I answered him at once,
> "Old, old man, it is the wisdom of the age."
> The sage looked upon me with admiration.

That is all, but it tells its own story, and is the equivalent of many columns. At other times he not merely intimates his own problem, but states it, still tersely (p. 26):

> Behold the grave of a wicked man,
> And near it a stern spirit.
>
> There came a drooping maid with violets,
> But the spirit grasped her arm.
> "No flowers for him," he said.
> The maid wept:
> "Ah, I loved him."
> But the spirit, grim and frowning,
> "No flowers for him."
>
> Now this is it.
> If the spirit was just,
> Why did the maid weep?

Again, he gives his protest against superstition (p. 56):

> A man went before a strange God—
> The God of many men, sadly wise.
> And the Deity thundered loudly,
> "Kneel, mortal, and cringe
> And grovel and do homage
> To my particularly sublime Majesty."
> The man fled.
> Then the man went to another God—
> The God of his inner thoughts,
> And this one looked at him
> With soft eyes
> Lit with infinite condescension,
> And said, "My poor child!"

Better, perhaps, than any of these polemics are those "lines" which paint, with a terseness like Emily Dickinson's, some aspect of nature. Since Browning's fine description, in "England in Italy," of the "infinite movement" of a chain of mountains before the traveller, the same thing has not been more vividly put than here (p. 38):

> On the horizon the peaks assembled,
> And, as I looked,
> The march of the mountains began.
> As they marched, they sang,
> "Aye, we come! we come!"

That is all; but it is fine, it tells its own story. If it be asked whether it is also poetry, one can only remember Thoreau's dictum, that no matter how we define poetry, the true poet will presently set the whole definition aside. If it be further asked whether such a book gives promise, the reply must be that experience points the other way. So marked a new departure rarely leads to further growth. Neither Whitman nor Miss Dickinson ever stepped beyond the circle they first drew.

Mr. Henry T. Wharton issues the third edition—somewhat expanded, like its predecessor—of his admirable work on Sappho, to which we have heretofore called attention. It is doubtless the most complete and perfect tribute ever paid to any classic author, this perfection being of course facilitated by the very small fragment of Sappho's literary work remaining to us. Of the one hundred and seventy surviving pieces, only two or three are complete poems, and these have been oftener translated and more commented upon, probably, than any other remains of ancient literature. Mr. Wharton gives anew the text of every fragment, in an uncommonly beautiful Greek type, accompanied by his own literal translation of each, with a selection from other versions, some of which are of American origin. He also adds a new preface and a charming little view of Mitylene, by the late Clarkson Stanfield. The book, of course, takes the place of all other editions of what Swinburne called "the imperishable and incomparable verses of that supreme poet"; and one can only wish that this English critic, in attempting to borrow her passion, could have emulated the dignity and verbal restraint of his model.

Two tributes to the late Mr. Stevenson, both published by Copeland & Day, lie before us, the little pamphlet entitled 'A Seamark: A Threnody for Robert Louis Stevenson,' by

Bliss Carman, and a book not much larger, 'Robert Louis Stevenson, and Other Poems,' by Richard Le Gallienne. Of the two threnodies both are wordy, but the American poet's is the stronger. Mr. Carman seldom fails in strong phrasing and imaginative expression, while the mystery and tragedy of the sea always touch him powerfully. He has striking verses like these:

> With all the nomad tented stars
> About him, they have laid him down,
> Above the crumbling of the sea,
> Beyond the turmoil of renown.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> His fathers lit the dangerous coast
> To steer the daring merchant home;
> His courage lights the darkling port
> Where every sea-worn sail must come.

Mr. Le Gallienne has also his fine touches:

> Death! why at last he finds his Treasure Isle,
> And he the pirate of its hidden hoard;
> Life! 't was the ship he sailed to seek it in,
> And Death is but the pilot come aboard;

or this characterization of human language:

> Strange craft of words, strange magic of the pen,
> Whereby the dead still talk with living men;
> Wherein a sentence, in its trivial scope,
> May centre all we love and all we hope;
> And in a couplet, like a rosebud furled,
> Lie all the wistful wonders of the world.

There are a few other poems in the book, and a deep personal sorrow has taken Mr. Le Gallienne further into life's depths and pruned away some of his affectations. These tributes call new attention to the yet unsolved problem of Mr. Stevenson's permanent fame, and are curiously contrasted with the omission of his very name from the new volume, just issued, of Johnson's revised Cyclopædia.

'First Poems and Fragments,' by Richard Henry Savage (Copeland & Day), is attractive to the eye by reason of the simple cover of brown pasteboard, with paper label, a form associated with the golden period when Tennyson and Browning were first coming before the world, and Moxon was their publisher. The contents of the book have the same honest simplicity; they are youthful without being crude, and are bathed in the atmosphere of American hills and forests. A note so true and tender as the following gives great promise (p. 62):

> I love the hills, but she the open shore,
> The shore because it lies along the sea.
> I would be lofty, solitary, free,
> Selfish at times; at times, hearing the roar
> Of the ocean where beneath the bending oar
> It does the planet service, I would be
> As rich in blessing, yea, as rich as she
> Is rich in blessing; I could not be more.
> I walk apart; my heart is in the sky,
> Yet ever yearning downward to the land;
> She walks where all the world is crowding by,
> And holds a little child in either hand;
> I bless her service with a troubled cry
> Of one who would, but cannot, understand.

Mrs. Sangster's 'Little Knights and Ladies' (Harpers) is a very pleasing cluster of poems inscribed to the children of the "Round Table," yet leaves it still an open question whether these old-world phrases and designations are appropriate to American children, and whether they had not better be left to the grown-up "Sir Knights" who call themselves "Templars." The following (p. 128) is one of the most effective of her little lays, and might really take rank with Norman Gale's cricket-poems:

AFTER THE MATCH.

> Both nines could not beat, of course!
> One must be the winner!
> Shouting till our throats were hoarse,
> Home we went to dinner.
>
> And the little sister there
> Met the nine defeated
> With so very sweet an air
> All their gloom retreated.
>
> "Oh, such meanness!" she exclaimed:
> "Why, your game was splendid.
> Everybody felt ashamed
> At the way it ended.
>
> "*You* were *fine!*" she firmly said,
> Beaming on her brothers;
> "Such a fuss!" she shook her head,
> "Just about the others."

If Emerson's "Hitch your wagon to a star" were the only prescription for a poet, Mr. Louis J. Block would have long since attained greatness. In 'The New World' (Putnams) his themes are of the highest; besides the New World itself, he sings of the Parliament of Religions, of Plato, Orpheus, Goethe, Dante, and the rest. But he makes it clear that much must still depend upon the wagon; and his chariot bears many words, but none that haunt us or charm us. It is little that his rhymes run riot and he matches "was" with "cause" and "gain went" with "attainment" (p. 23), but he fails to command or reach the reader, and never quite clears himself of the reproach of mediocrity. Mr. W. W. Nevin, a lawyer, has also hitched his poetic wagon to a star in publishing 'Dies Irae: Nine Original Versions' (Putnams). In dealing with a poem of a permanent fame, and one of which there have been already so many versions, it would have seemed better to spend a life in perfecting a single one than to have, so to speak, flung nine versions at random. The result is necessarily somewhat mediocre; but the preface is interesting, as pointing out how much of legal phraseology is really contained in this solemn hymn, and how well it reproduces in its atmosphere the actual trials of the Middle Ages.

'Religio Clerici,' by Alfred Starkey (London: Stock), is one of those prolonged, thoughtful, "Excursion"-like monologues in blank verse which are still produced in quiet English vicarages. They come especially from virtuous hearts somewhat divided between the charms of the Roman Catholic ritual (p. 27) and the tangible works of the Salvation Army (p. 24). It is difficult in prose to find a common formula for these two aspects of religion, and it proves no easier in verse. 'God's Parable, and Other Poems,' by Susannah Massey (Putnams), is pleasing and cultivated, drawing material from various lands; this material not, however, yielding any salient merit. 'A Bank of Violets,' by Fanny H. Runnells Poole (Putnams), has graceful out-door passages, and commemorates New Hampshire mountains, which is a merit; but its rustic heroines are christened Doris and Daphne, and, on the whole, nothing in the poems is so felicitous as their title.

'Songs of the Pines,' by James Ernest Caldwell (Toronto: Briggs), adds another name to the list of those young Canadian poets many of whom Mr. Sladen and Mr. Witherell have chronicled, but without mentioning this latest name. He shows little of the peculiarly attractive quality exhibited by Roberts and Scott and Carman, but has a pleasing simplicity, weighted down, however, by the total want of humor which permits his putting in print such lines as these (p. 27):

> "So wrote the misanthrope, aged twenty-two;
> A restful tomb just rising to his view,
> While as he wrote, beneath his own rooftree,
> A dread disease had come insidiously.
> Diphtheria had touched a little alien boy
> Far from his home, which erst was not of joy.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> Here let him learn to turn aside from self;
> Nor live for pride or power or place or pelf."

Every year or two brings us from London—or quite as often from Oxford—some slender volume which shows us that youths and maidens still read their Praed, and the youths at least try their hand at his easy jingle. Given a few smooth double rhymes, a few alliterations, and some utterly unexpected combinations, and you have something which at least sends you back to Praed for pleasant associations. The latest of these is a slim volume, 'Ad Sodales,' by Frank Taylor (Oxford: Blackwell). Open wherever you please, you have the lilting strain (p. 25):

> "Where Pan from every reedy pool
> Leaps up to kiss the nymphs, his nieces,
> Where old Silenus plays the fool,
> And all the flocks have golden fleeces;
> Where no one rides in trams or trains,
> Where milk has always got the cream on,
> There Doris lives and Doris reigns,
> The loveliest maid in Lacedæmon."

It is not much; but it bids us turn back to our Praed and forget both Mr. Taylor and ourselves in the unexhausted charm of "Quince" and "The Belle of the Ball" or "Twenty-eight and Twenty-nine."

In the beautifully printed volume, 'Last Poems,' by James Russell Lowell (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), we have the few final oozings from a rich and varied vintage; and it is a deeply interesting thing to compare them with those first warm, sweet drops that flowed in 'A Year's Life,' a book which, more than half a century ago, touched the heart of youth and taught contemporaries that a new poet had come. Margaret Fuller was in those days thought unjust to Lowell, and yet she perhaps said the acutest thing about that early volume when she wrote that its best critic would be some young person to whom it had acted as a stimulus. And so, at the other end of life, the best appreciation of this closing volume will come from those no longer young who will pardon the loss of something of that early and gushing enthusiasm, in view of the ripened product, the surer touch, the genial wisdom yielded by years. There is here no acidity, no narrowness; and in the closing poem on Grant, unfinished though it be, we have a twin picture with Lowell's magnificent characterization of Lincoln in the "Commemoration Ode." If less eloquent, it is more remarkable, since the temperament of Lincoln was far more nearly allied to that of Lowell than was Grant's; if the poem is more rugged, so is its theme, and its closing couplet will be accepted as the final summing up of the man selected for description:

> "Doer of hopeless tasks which praters shirk,
> One of those still plain men that do the world's rough work."

FITZGERALD AND MRS. KEMBLE.

Letters of Edward Fitzgerald to Fanny Kemble, 1871–1883. Edited by William Aldis Wright. Macmillan. 1895.

"I ASKED Donne to tell you, if he found opportunity, that some two months ago I wrote you a letter, but found it so empty and dull that I would not send it to extort the Reply which you feel bound to give. I should have written to tell you so myself, but I heard from Donne of the Wedding soon about to be, and I would not intrude then—I hope to the satisfaction of you all—and I will say my little say, and you will have to Reply, according to your own Law of Mede and Persian."

With this sentence opens the first letter in this collection, July 4, 1871, though far from the first of the correspondence with Mrs. Kemble, which began some four years previously. We quote it because it illustrates both the unity and the monotony of the series, inasmuch as some reference to Donne or his family occurs in the great majority of the letters up to the date of the death of the examiner of plays, and generally serves as a pretext for writing at all. In March, 1880, we find an allusion to "my average time of writing to you," and then to a lunar interval; the full moon being Fitzgerald's reminder of his old friend. In the years 1879–'82 his letters ranged from twelve to seventeen per annum, and there were twelve in 1875 also. Perhaps more were written than have been preserved or published, and it is an odd

circumstance that but two bear the date of January. All told, they number 112, and, of these, twenty now see the light for the first time. The latest was written but eighteen days before Fitzgerald's sudden death on June 14, 1883.

The monotony and the repetitions are readily forgiven for the sake of the total impression of the relation between two such eminent personages; and a student of diction may even take delight in the variation of the formulas of apology and of courtesy with which these letters begin and close. Indeed, like the more miscellaneous series in two volumes uniform with the present, the epistolary style is a never-failing charm, enhanced by an erratic yet reasonable and often very effective punctuation and a wilful use of capitals, and by the racy idiom of the Suffolk coast. Fitzgerald writes to Mrs. Kemble that "Spedding tells me he is nearing Land with his Bacon," but in a contemporaneous letter to his editor he conveys the same news in the local manner: "Old Spedding . . . tells me that he begins to 'smell Land' with his Bacon." Two years later he does not hesitate to presage his end to Mrs. Kemble in the same manner: "I told you I had not been well all the Summer; I say I begin to 'smell the Ground,' which you will think all Fancy." On the one hand we meet with "Yankeeisms" like "down East" and "expect" (for suspect); on the other, good but old-fashioned English, as in "My Castle Clock has gone 9 p. m., and I myself am but half an hour home from a Day to Lowestoft," keeps company with passages like the following, which has a flavor of Pepys's Diary:

"I kept this letter open in case I should see Arthur Malkin, who was coming to stay at a Neighbour's house. He very kindly did call on me: he and his second wife (who, my Neighbour says, is a very proper Wife), but I was abroad—though no further off than my little Estate; and he knows I do not visit elsewhere. But I do not the less thank him, and am always yours."

Our previous knowledge, through self-revelation, of the shy recluse of Woodbridge and Lowestoft is confirmed rather than enlarged by these letters. He is still the most independent of critics, who cannot admire Goethe's "Faust" as a work of construction or imagination, or "doat on George Eliot," or take any satisfaction in Tennyson's later productions (least of all, in the "dramas"), or join a Browning Society, or find Irving endurable as an actor. His "famous Lyceum Hamlet . . . was incomparably the worst I had ever witnessed, from Covent Garden down to a Country Barn. . . . When he got to 'Something too much of this,' I called out from the Pit door where I stood, 'A good deal too much,' and not long after returned to my solitary inn." Towards "Daddy Wordsworth" there is a noticeable softening. Reproaching Tennyson with talking too much about his own writings, and the criticisms of them, he adds: "Even old Wordsworth, wrapt up in his Mountain mists, and proud as he was, was above all this vain Disquietude: proud, not vain, was he: and that a Great Man (as Dante) has some right to be—but not to care what the Coteries say." In Keats's letters in Lord Houghton's Life, he tells Mrs. Kemble, "you will find what you may not have guessed from his Poetry (though almost unfathomably deep in that also) the strong, masculine Sense and Humour, etc., of the man: more akin to Shakespeare, I am tempted to think, in a perfect circle of Poetic Faculties, than any Poet since." His love for Carlyle is renewed by Froude's biography, and he has but slight censure for Froude's publication of the Reminiscences. Mr. Wright prints a curious deprecatory letter from the historian to Fitzgerald, elicited by the tender of letters from Carlyle, "the fuliginous and spasmodic," as he is elsewhere designated; in 1876, "quite well for his Age: and vehement against Darwin, and the Turk."

American readers can but be struck by Fitzgerald's criticism of Lowell and Hawthorne. In place of quoting this, we extract a part of the luminous comparison of two Old World poets:

"What inspires me now [1873] is, that, about the time you were writing to me about Burns and Béranger, I was thinking of them 'which was the Greater Genius?'—I can't say: but, with all my Admiration for about a Score of the Frenchman's almost perfect Songs, I would give all of them up for a Score of Burns's Couplets, Stanzas, or single Lines scattered among those quite *im*perfect Lyrics of his. Béranger, no doubt, was The *Artist;* which still is not the highest Genius—witness Shakespeare, Dante, Aeschylus, Calderon, to the contrary. Burns assuredly had more *Passion* than the Frenchman; which is not Genius either, but a great part of the Lyric Poet still. What Béranger might have been, if born and bred among Banks, Braes, and Mountains, I cannot tell: Burns had that advantage over him. And then the Highland Mary to love, amid the heather, as compared to Lise the Grisette in a Parisian Suburb!"

Fitzgerald's own rating of himself is worth remarking. He has, he says, "but little, if any, faculty of critical Analysis," but is "very strong in Scissors and Paste," as when engaged in popularizing Crabbe—"a very, very little Job, you see; requiring only a little Taste, and Tact." Speaking of Arthur Helps's writings, which he "could never relish," "I suppose," he allows, "they will help to swell that substratum of Intellectual *Peat* (Carlyle somewhere calls it) from [which] one or two living Trees stand out in a Century"; and he subscribes himself "A very small Peat-contributor." The happy phrase is traced to its origin in a footnote by Mr. Wright, and proves to owe its proverbial quality to Fitzgerald alone, in that process of *rifacimento* to which he seemed to subject everything that seized hold on his memory. On the grand scale we see this process in his version of the quatrains of Omar Khayyám, of the "Agamemnon" and the Spanish dramas, of the "Bird Paradise." More humbly it is visible in the Haydon verse included in his queer scrap-book, 'Half-Hours with the Worst Authors.' "There are," observes Mr. Wright, "seven stanzas in the original, but Fitzgerald has omitted in his transcript the third and fourth, and slightly altered one or two of the lines." Again, he cites, as if from Crabbe, this couplet:

"Friend of the Poor—the Wretched—the Betray'd,
They cannot pay thee—but thou shalt be paid."

Mr. Wright, however, cannot ascertain that these lines are to be found in Crabbe, "but they appear to be a transformation of two which occur in the Parish Register," to wit:

"Friend of distress! The mourner feels thy aid.
She cannot pay thee, but thou wilt be paid."

Here Fitzgerald's "Taste and Tact" have worked to good purpose, even to the substitution of *shalt* for *wilt*, and to the skilful employment of the dash.

One gets glimpses in this volume of Fitzgerald's family, and particularly of his mother, "a very handsome, clever, and eccentric woman," as Mrs. Kemble testifies, and her son corroborates:

"She was a remarkable woman, as you said in a former letter; and as I constantly believe in outward Beauty as an index of a Beautiful Soul within, I used sometimes to wonder what feature in her fine face betrayed what was not so good in her Character. I think (as usual) the Lips: there was a twist of Mischief about them now and then, like that—in the tail of a Cat!—otherwise so smooth and amiable."

She was first cousin to her husband—"stesso sangue, stessa sorte," as the clasp of a bracelet of his hair was inscribed—and from this union sprang our Edward, "distinguished," in Mrs. Kemble's words, "from the rest of his family, and indeed from most people, by the possession of very rare intellectual and artistic gifts. A poet, a painter, a musician, an admirable scholar and writer, if he had not shunned notoriety as sedulously as most people seek it, he would have achieved a foremost place among the eminent men of his day, and left a name second to that of very few of his contemporaries." With this most just estimate we take leave of our subject, after remarking two errors in the American edition of the 'Letters.' The omission of *how* after *hear* makes Fitzgerald unfeelingly remark (p. 163): "When last you wrote, you were all in Flannel; pray let me hear you are now." And in the footnote on page 169 the second *as* should be *at*. Mr. Wright's notes are, as usual, models of helpfulness and restraint. Perhaps one should have been provided for Fitzgerald's misleading statement, March 31, 1882 (p. 228): "It is my seventy-fourth Birthday," even if on the opposite page he says: "Here is a day for entering on seventy-four!" As he was born in 1809, most people would reckon a seventy-third birthday.

The Greater Poems of Virgil. Vol. I., containing the first six books of the Æneid. Edited by J. B. Greenough and G. L. Kittredge. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1895.

Prof. Greenough's Virgil has been some time before the public. The present edition is in many respects a new book. The editor is fortunate in securing the coöperation of so extremely accomplished a linguist as Prof. Kittredge. The introduction is very elaborate, containing an account of the literary conditions of the Augustan age, the nature of epic poetry in general, and the position of Virgil in his own and later times. The instructions for translation and metrical reading for the benefit of learners have been remodelled; the pictorial illustrations made much more numerous, with inclusion of an elaborate colored picture of the fall of Icarus, from a Pompeian wall-painting; and a profuse variety of quotations from modern poetry inserted, in which Virgil has been imitated or paralleled in the many centuries from Dante to Tennyson.

It is very doubtful if these additions help in the practical instruction of Latin at the age when Virgil is generally studied. Captivating as pictures are to the eyes of school-committeemen who are to decide on the introduction of editions, they serve chiefly as sketches for boys to elaborate with irreverent pencils; and however much the mass of parallel poetry may charm those who are bemoaning every day the subordination of the literary to the philological side of scholarship, it remains true that the mind of keen and studious youth is much more easily stirred by critical than by æsthetic culture. They may be stirred by the very best poetry, if it is simple enough; but Gower, George Peele, and Phineas Fletcher will assuredly be wasted on them. To such authors they are not likely to have access in an ordinary school, and the same is true of many others quoted in this book. If they can get at

a Dante, what will they make of the quotation on page 251, where Inferno xii. is misprinted ii.? This quotation, by the way, like many others, is dragged in with very slight parallelism.

It is strange to see two such scholars clinging to a sort of half belief that the 'Culex,' 'Ciris,' 'Copa,' etc., were written by the author of the 'Eclogues,' and what is meant by καταλεπτά on page xix.? Is it a misprint for καταληπτά? When did the Medicean manuscript get moved from Florence to Rome (page xxxiii.)?

Li Hung Chang. By Robert K. Douglas. [Public Men of To-day.] Frederick Warne & Co. 1895.

Our first feeling in reading a book like this is that of sympathy with and admiration of the biographer. To write the biography of a living Chinaman is even more difficult than to reconstruct in print the life of a dead European or Japanese. Even in Mikado-land, most modern biographies are based on the personal letters, journals, speeches, diaries, or other data from the subject's own hand, lips, or mind. In China, where no social life, in our sense of the term, exists, women are club-footed prisoners, private letters (in our sense) are curiosities, and things are for show or imposing sham, the materials for a biography of anything but a human figure head are excessively scant. Nevertheless, the keeper of Oriental manuscripts in the British Museum, who had the temerity to name his penultimate volume 'Chinese Social Life,' now sends forth what may fairly be called a signal success in biography. He pictures the rise of the student who, born in 1822, became a Taotai in 1859. Standing, physically and mentally, head and shoulders above the average of his countrymen, he displayed from the first high intellectual powers and a thorough mastery of the details of Chinese official life. It may be safely said, however, that his greatest teachers, in those phases of character and in the actual achievements which have made him the incarnation of such progress as China has been able to make in the past forty years, were not Confucians. If anything seems plain from the documentary and other evidence given by Prof. Douglas, it is that the American Ward, the Englishman Gordon, and even the Frenchman Burgevine were true trainers of the man who stands before the world, apparently, as a new type of Chinaman.

Yet with all the rhetoric and facts set so pleasantly before us in this book, there is no evidence that Li, in adopting Western externals, ever became anything more than a Chinese, a worshipper of the dead, and a "corruptionist" of the true Cathayan order. That he has been converted in any real sense seems absurd to believe. To him the teaching of the ancient sages in the infancy of the world is perfection. The Westerns are but machinists. In morals and statecraft they are to him hopelessly barbarous or weakly imitative. Even at Shimonoséki, the proofs that his idea of patriotism or political service differs in no wise from that of our own bosses, were strikingly clear. His towering conceit in 1894 led him to provoke war with Japan, hoping thereby to secure money and concessions for the building of a railway to the Russian frontier. He expected quickly to sink the "pigmies'" fleet and annihilate their armies, by playing his old game of simply setting one set of foreign machines against another. Thus would he win Korea back to Chinese vassalage. After this he hoped triumphantly to combine patriotism and personal advantage in railway building. Unfortunately for Li, the Japanese, in changing weapons for the better, had changed their minds also in the same direction. Prof. Douglas reads his subject aright when he says of Li, "Nothing he has heard, nothing he has seen, nothing he has read of Western lands, has served to shake for an instant his implicit belief in the ineffable wisdom of the founders of Chinese polity, or in the superiority of the civilization of China over that possessed by any other nation on the face of the earth."

That saviours and regenerators of China are yet to come out of her own people, it is not impossible to hope or even believe, but it will be only when "the traditions of the elders," as embodied in the books which Confucius emasculated and edited, and in the "history" which he falsified, are reduced to things as harmless as extinct volcanoes. Whether wrought by the labors of scholars, the teaching of missionaries, the blows of war, the example of Japan, or a slow and total change of mental climate, such a consummation is to be devoutly wished.

So good a book deserves an index, which it inexcusably lacks.

Echoes of the Playhouse: Reminiscences of Some Past Glories of the English Stage. By Edward Robins, jr. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

Although, in view of the immense amount of antecedent literature upon the subject, it would be unreasonable to expect to find anything absolutely new in a book of biographical and historical notes relating to the English stage, the compact and attractive little volume put together by Mr. Edward Robins, jr., will prove both interesting and valuable, not only to such casual readers as may wish to obtain a bird's-eye view of the whole field of theatrical development at a small expense of time and trouble, but to genuine enthusiasts, who will discover in it a pleasant means of renewing acquaintance with treasured memories. It is a rapid and fragmentary, but lively, judicious, and well proportioned sketch of English theatrical history from the days of the old miracle plays in the twelfth century down to the end of the eighteenth century, void, indeed, of dry, laborious antiquarian detail, but mindful of most of the salient facts and personages in the gradual evolution of the modern theatre and drama from the early moralities, masks, pastorals, and interludes of the pre Elizabethan period to the golden age of Garrick and Siddons.

The conspicuous merits of the book are the orderly arrangement of its contents, its agreeable style, its adroit use of quotations from such contemporaneous authorities as Cibber (an admirable critic in spite of his egotism), Pepys, Quin, Addison, Steele, and others, and its skilful avoidance of stale material. While giving due prominence to the great lights of the theatrical profession, Mr. Robins devotes a large share of the space at his disposal to men and women famous or notorious in their era, but comparatively unknown, except to specialists, in the present generation. He gives us glimpses, for instance, of Charles Hart, Shakspere's grandnephew, and of Joseph Haines, a comedian who won renown by his impersonation of such characters as *Sparkish* in "The Country Wife," and created a great hubbub by announcing his conversion to Rome in consequence of a visitation by the Virgin Mary with which he professed himself to have been honored. His character as a practical joker caused grave suspicions to be entertained of his sincerity, and indignation was so hot against him that he found it expedient to make a public recantation before the footlights. A much more picturesque rascal was that Cardell Goodman, commonly known as "Scum" Goodman, who forsook the stage for the highway, and narrowly escaped hanging on that account, only to be put in peril of his neck again for his attempt to kill two of Lady Castlemain's children. Other interesting paragraphs refer to the bewitching Moll Davis, one of the many mistresses of the reprobate Charles II. and an ancestress of the Derwentwater family; Clun; the unfortunate Will Mountford and his dazzling wife, and Sanford, who was accounted the completest stage villain of his time.

A capital account of Thomas Betterton, fortified with copious extracts from Cibber, conveys a clear notion of the powers and limitations of that famous player, and incidentally relates the coöperative experiment tried by Sir William Davenant in the management of his company—a plan which might be imitated, perhaps, with advantage to-day, when theatrical art is suffocated by the greedy and ignorant speculators who control it. After due tributes to the beauty and abilities of Mrs. Barry and Anne Bracegirdle, and of that wonderful mimic Dick Estcourt, immortalized in the pages of Sir Richard Steele, Mr. Robins furnishes an appreciative chapter upon the drama of the early eighteenth century, sketching lightly but critically the characteristics and style of Congreve, Vanbrugh, Farquhar, Mrs. Centlivre, the disreputable Aphra Behn, and the classical Addison. Very good, too, in its colloquial vein, is the chapter upon Colley Cibber, who, in great part, is made to draw his own picture by means of neatly selected quotations from his 'Apology,' a book brimful of interesting reading.

But space will not admit of even the barest enumeration of the familiar names which follow each other in quick succession through these pages. The brilliant career of Nance Oldfield is traced from her first triumph as *Lady Betty Modish*, and her later scarcely less remarkable achievements in tragedy, to the hour when it was crowned by her burial in Westminster Abbey. Sufficient tribute, too, is paid to the grace and skill of Robert Wilks, that theatrical Prince Charming, and to the mannered but doubtless highly effective style of Quin, whose fame would have been brighter if he had not had the misfortune to be eclipsed by Garrick. Charles Macklin, one of the most savage personalities and one of the finest actors in theatrical annals, the genius who first recognized and revealed the tragic and pathetic elements in *Shylock*, is the subject of a full and interesting study, and there are many judicious excerpts from the rich fund of anecdote relating to Foote, in his varied capacities of actor, manager, wit, mimic, and humorist. Liberal space, of course, is accorded to the phenomenal Garrick, but on that topic there is nothing new to be said. Mr. Robins's review, however, evinces a discriminating comprehension of little Davy's distinctive qualities as actor and man, and presents him faithfully in both aspects. His sketch of Peg Woffington is also well done, and he closes his notes with brief references to Miss Young and Mrs. Yates.

As an interesting summary of English stage history in its personal aspect, from the Restoration to the beginning of the present century, this little book fulfils its object. It contains a large amount of information, with an abundance of well-authenticated anecdote, and suc-

ceeds in imparting an air of freshness to an old story.

Studies in English, Written and Spoken, for the Use of Continental Students. By C. Stoffel. First Series. Zutphen: Thieme; London: Luzac.

Of the various studies in modern English that have come to us of late from Continental scholars, the above-named work is up to the standard in the matter of close observation and laborious scholarship. Stoffel's subjects are not, however, of the sort that admit of philosophical treatment or demand original thinking, as are, for example, those handled by Jespersen in his 'Progress of Language,' recently reviewed in these columns. In the chippy style one is accustomed to from Herrig's *Archiv*, Stoffel deals with various functions of the preposition *for*, with the difference between *no* and *not*, with *only* in the sense of 'except,' etc. He has a chapter on Scriptural phrases and allusions, and an elaborate study of slang, based upon the "'Arryese" of *Punch*. Much that the author has brought together will be welcomed by the next generation of dictionary makers; but it is rather in dictionaries and grammars that the material belongs than in would be essays.

Moreover, colloquial speech is very dangerous ground to the foreigner, whatever his familiarity with it. He is apt to lack that indescribable instinctive feeling which will guide the native aright. Our author is struck with the phrase "How is that for high?" which he says is the American's first question on tasting a pie.

"The American plays with the sense of the word *high* in this vulgar phrase: he intends it to mean 'slightly putrid,' 'strong smelling,' referring to the game inside the pie. . . . The meaning of the hackneyed phrase *How's that for High?* in the American speaker's mouth is therefore: 'What do you think of the strong smell and taste of the game inside this pie?'"

Dr. Stoffel found "dog-gone" in *Punch*: "Chicago makes ready for more derned, dog goned *Fêtes* [in honour of Columbus] to last till, at least, next October!" upon which he makes the learned comment: "*Dog gone*, wonderful, astounding; an Americanism about which I can give no further information."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bartlett, Prof. E. J. Laboratory Exercises in Chemistry. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 50 cents.
Bingham, N. W., Jr. The Book of Athletics. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Colville, Col. Sir Henry. The Land of the Nile Springs: Being chiefly an account of how we fought Kabarega. Edward Arnold.
Douglas, Miss Amanda M. A Sherburne Romance. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Echegaray, José. The Great Galeoto, Folly or Saintliness. Done into English Prose by Hannah Lynch. London: John Lane; Boston: Lamson, Wolfe & Co.
Flagg, Prof. Isaac. The Lives of Cornelius Nepos. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 90 cents.
Goethe's Faust. The First Part, with a Literal Translation and Notes for Students. London: David Nutt.
Heimburg, W. Beetzen Manor. International News Co. 50 cents.
Irving, Washington. The Sketch Book. [Students' Edition.] Putnams. $1.
Johnston, Annie F. Joel, a Boy of Galilee. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Kellner, Prof. M. L. The Prophecies of Isaiah: An Outline Study. Cambridge, Mass: The Author.
Lorimer, Rev. G. C. The People's Bible History. Prepared in the Light of Recent Investigations. Chicago: Henry O. Shepard Co.; New York: S. H. Peabody.
Mackay, Eric. A Song of the Sea, and Other Poems. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Nason, Emma H. The Tower, with Legends and Lyrics. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Noble, J. A. Impressions and Memories. London: Dent; New York: Putnams. $1.50.
Pater, Walter. Miscellaneous Studies: A Series of Essays. Macmillan. $1.75.
Patterson, Arthur. A Son of the Plains. Macmillan. $1.25.
Randle, F. A. Idwymon: A Story of Napoleonic Complications. G. W. Dillingham.
Ransome, Prof. Cyril. An Advanced History of England. Macmillan. $2.25.
Ray, Anna C. Half a Dozen Boys. New ed. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Raymond, Evelyn. The Mushroom Cave. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 31, 1895.

The Week.

SENATOR LODGE substantially declared war against England under his own signature in the New York *World* of Saturday, in a despatch from London. He says we cannot permit England to occupy Venezuelan territory, and that the Monroe doctrine has to be recognized as a "fact" of the same order as the independence of the United States. He declares accordingly that any appearance of British fleets and armies to coerce Venezuela will be a signal for war with the United States. We have long felt that this was coming, but supposed Lodge would delay putting on his "dust and sweat," and tackling "the work of the world" once more, till he got home. The responsibility which this bold bad man is taking on himself is something awful to contemplate. Of course, it is to our advantage to have him over in London just as the war breaks out, seeing what is going on at the enemy's headquarters; but what we cannot understand is Salisbury's not sending him his passports, but letting him wander about among the dockyards and fortifications. This does not look like the vigorous foreign policy which Englishmen were promised when the Tories came in. They knew perfectly well that Lodge was a dangerous man ever since he proposed to discriminate against English goods in order to make England drop her beastly gold standard. We feel sure, however, that if he stays in London till this despatch gets back, he will be "shadowed," and then there will be more trouble; shadowing of Americans being expressly prohibited in the Monroe doctrine.

We have Horace Bushnell's authority for believing that there are moral uses for dark things, and so we need not despair of finding profit in the study of the dark moral mystery which Senator Chandler presents. Knowing his antecedents, there is nothing strange about his now taking refuge in intensest patriotism. But his burning desire for a war with England, his visions of bloodshed and death and glory, his more than berserker rage, do make up something of a puzzle in a land where people are supposed to read and think, and where the sense of humor is reputed to be unusually acute. He is at least useful in reminding men like Lodge and Roosevelt of the hopelessness of competing with him and his kind in international truculence. He will outroar them every time. If popularity depends upon insolence and bloodthirstiness, Finerty and Chandler are sure to lead all the scholars and respectables in politics. See how easily Chandler outstrips Lodge at this juncture. The latter telegraphs from London that we must be alert, that we must stand by the Monroe doctrine, keep an eye on England, and, by inference, suspect all Anglomaniac Senators who spend their vacations in London. But the Honorable Bill does not waste time fooling with such generalities. Under six definite heads he tells us why war with England is "inevitable," how it will "arise" and be "forced" and "fought," how it should be "welcomed," and what its "sure result" will be. It is perfectly clear that if any New England Senator can bray himself into the vice-presidential nomination, his name is Chandler, not Lodge.

Two Admirals of the American navy have just got into trouble by the too free use of their tongues—that is, by gross indiscretion. One of them undertook to "sass" his own Government because he disapproved of its politics, and another arrogated to himself the functions of the State Department, and opened diplomatic relations of his own with foreign potentates. Signs of this growing indiscipline have been long visible. It is due in part to the way in which the late Administration allowed naval officers of all ranks to magnify their office in public, with the view of helping to get appropriations for the new navy; in part, also, to the unscrupulous way in which the Jingo press and orators encourage naval officers to despise and criticise any administration which pursues a peaceful policy and respects the law of nations. This disposition to drag the navy into the political arena has, in fact, grown steadily ever since the Republican party entered on a policy of extravagance in order to make a high tariff seem necessary. And yet there could not be a more ominous sign of national decadence than the enlistment of either army or navy in party conflicts. What is oddest about all this is that the Jingoes, who, more than any other class, will need a highly disciplined fleet to protect their various keys and canals, are foremost in this work of demoralizing the soldiers and sailors. They are almost making insubordination and insolence to Presidents and Secretaries of the other party a military virtue. But no navy which did not keep its mouth shut and obey orders was ever worth much.

The difficulties of diplomacy in this country are much increased by the number of diplomats at work on its various problems. In the first place, we have to reckon with all the newspapers. These have the earliest "hack at it" because they "come out" every day, whereas the most vigilant stump ambassadors, like Finerty, or Lodge, or Roosevelt, are heard only at intervals, when the State Department is growing deaf to all considerations of honor and decency. Sometimes a quasi-public body like a State convention or a State legislature lends a hand if there are any votes discerned in the distance. A good deal of attention was bestowed upon our foreign relations at the World's Fair at Chicago, but it was generally of a peaceful nature, sometimes bordering on the jocose, especially when Mayor Harrison took part in it. Thus we had "days" set apart for various nations, with special exercises for each, intended to promote good feeling and to bring in some extra gate money. Now it is proposed that the Atlanta Exposition shall be annexed to our diplomatic equipment by setting apart a day devoted to Cuban independence, or to the republic of Cuba, or to something of that kind. It is said that this demonstration was originally designed to take place during President Cleveland's sojourn there, for the purpose of bringing pressure to bear upon him (his susceptibility to pressure being well known), but that he indicated his objections to that mode of administering foreign affairs, and that consequently the date was postponed to the 17th of December. If "Cuba day" is to be celebrated at Atlanta, then surely we ought to have Hawaiian day, Armenian day, and especially Irish day. Perhaps it would be better to have one day set apart for all oppressed people everywhere, including those of South Carolina. Then the orators could orate without any fixed limitations, which would be an advantage to them as well as to the oppressed. It would also be advantageous to us, since it would require no embarrassing explanations from the Secretary of State, whereas a Cuban day alone would produce emotions in Spain which would not be easily allayed.

One of the pleasing little fictions with which Republican orators and organs now amuse themselves is, that South America is never really happy and contented except when the Republicans are in power in the United States. Look at this wretched paltering over Venezuela, they say, this criminal delay in driving the Spanish out of Cuba, and just think what a Quigg as Secretary of State would have done. No wonder the Venezuelans are crying out, "Oh, for one hour of Jim Blaine!" But the fact is, that they had about five years of him, and got far less aid from him in their boundary dispute with England than from either his Democratic predecessor or successor. What they did get from him was an arbitrary, discriminating, and offensive tax laid on one of their principal exports to this country. That was the kind of sweet content the Republicans were giving South America. They threatened Argen-

tina with similar offensive duties on hides. They domineered over Chili in a way that led to the suggestion of a South American alliance to resist the aggressions of the United States. In fact, when Harrison went out of power, he left a distinct feeling of suspicion and exasperation against this country in all Spanish America. When the news of his defeat reached Brazil, the editor of the *Rio News*, himself an American, in explaining the pleasure of South Americans at Mr. Cleveland's election, said: "The fact seems to be that South America was always nervous over President Harrison's foreign policy, and expects Mr. Cleveland's Secretary will show less inclination to have a finger in every pie." In like manner the *Revista Ilustrada*, a journal devoted to South American interests, spoke of the "great satisfaction" with which the election of Mr. Cleveland had been received "from the Rio Grande to the La Plata," on account of "the principles of justice at home and abroad which that statesman represents." It is safe to say, therefore, that the South Americans are not exactly pining for a return of the party to power which shows its extreme fondness for them by discriminating taxes, threats, insults, and ultimatums.

A religious paper publishes a programme for a series of meetings in this city to promote interest in foreign-missionary work. The reasons given for this special effort are, the low condition of mission funds, and the criticisms which "a hostile world" is now "hurling" at the cause. We know of no evidence that the world is hostile to foreign missions. They are a source of great expense and anxiety and diplomatic complications to many purely secular governments, yet none of them proposes, that we ever heard of, to falter in its support of missionaries. One of the reasons, in fact, for the degradation of an American admiral was that he had insulted a missionary, and, in his person, the cause of missions. The kind of criticism which a hostile world hurls at missions is mostly in the form of questions. It wants to know why men are not allowed to preach to the heathen what they may preach at home; why the sectarian divisions of Protestantism need to be thrust in so unseemly and confusing a fashion upon pagans; why missionaries are allowed publicly to vilify the authorities to whom they are legally subject—to call them "wretches" for whom "hanging is too good"; why the converted Hawaiians so suddenly became monsters of lewdness and deceit when a scheme to steal their country from them was worked up, and not a missionary of prominence, or a missionary board, had a word to say in their defence. In fact, the "hurling" has almost all been done by missionaries and champions of missions, and all that a hostile world has done has been to point out some of these curious things, and ask how they were to be accounted for. No better work can be done by the speakers at the coming meetings than to try to explain these anomalies, and "hurl back" the criticisms by answering them calmly and fairly.

The question of "reorganizing" the Senate seems now to be troubling the sleep of the Populist members of that most august legislative assembly on earth more than that of either Republican or Democratic Senators. Several of the New England Senators have declared that they will enter into no bartering with the Populists for the clerkships. The Democrats say less, probably because, if the others cannot combine, the clerkships and the chairmanships will remain safely in their possession. But the Populists, who counted on being assiduously wooed by both parties, have now taken up the wooing themselves. Stewart, it is true, cried out in great bitterness of soul the other day, that it was of no use for the Senate to "organize," or even meet at all, so long as it was simply to register the decrees of Wall Street. But this was only a passing burst from an anguished heart, and Senator Butler of North Carolina now announces the Populist plan of reorganizing. The thing should be done, not by a dicker or deal, not on party lines, but "on silver lines." What could be simpler? A majority of the Senators were elected as silver-men, and how can their haughty spirits brook being admitted to the Senate chamber by a gold doorkeeper, or having their committees served by non-silver clerks? The plan to change all this on silver lines is seductive, but it is unfortunately true that whenever silver lines get tangled up with party lines, the latter always prove the stronger. Senator Butler might as well talk of organizing the Senate on Populist lines. The whole thing is a matter in which the public takes little interest. Popular zeal for reorganizing the Senate might easily be aroused if it were a question of how to get rid of some of the agitators and corruptionists who sit at the desks, but when it is simply a squabble over who shall open doors and answer messages and write letters, the august assembly will be left to fight it out at its own convenience and in its own style.

There could be no stronger evidence of the subsidence of the old sectional issues that grew out of slavery than the general lack of concern in the North as to the practical disfranchisement of the majority of the negroes in a Southern State contemplated by the Constitutional Convention now in session at Columbia, S. C. Republican newspapers, it is true, comment upon the course of proceedings at the South Carolina capital, but the editors evidently feel that their readers have only a languid interest in the matter. The Philadelphia *Bulletin* states the truth when it says of the South Carolina movement and the similar action taken by Mississippi five years ago, that "there was a time when the Republican party throughout the North would have been aflame with indignation over these disfranchisements of the negro." What is the cause of this complete revolution in public sentiment? The good Republican newspaper from which we quote is perfectly frank in answering this question. "The plain truth is," says the *Bulletin*, "that the Republicans generally have come to the conclusion that universal negro suffrage has been a failure, and that the desire of the South to free itself from the evils of a great mass of ignorance, stupidity, and superstition at the ballot-box is largely pardonable." The Philadelphia journal even goes so far as to say that "it is difficult to find an argument against either the Mississippi or the South Carolina plan of disfranchisement, however much we may detest the race prejudices which have partly inspired it."

But while admitting that it will not be easy to show that the fifteenth amendment is violated by the application of an educational test, the effect of which is to debar most negroes from voting, the *Bulletin* holds that there can be no doubt as to the duty of Congress, under the fourteenth amendment, to reduce the representation in Congress and the electoral college of any State which thus decimates its black voters. It regards this as so plain a matter that it declares that "the number of Mississippi's and South Carolina's seats in those bodies should be cut down at as early a day as the facts can be ascertained for legislative action." But is this as simple a process as the *Bulletin* represents? The fourteenth amendment provides that when the right to vote is denied or abridged by any State, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, "the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State." Apply this principle to Mississippi. That State five years ago adopted a constitution which provides that, in order to vote, a man "shall be able to read any section of the Constitution of this State, or shall be able to understand the same when read to him, or give a reasonable interpretation thereof." This plan was designed to let in all of the whites and keep out all of the blacks except the most intelligent. But how can anybody ever find out how many blacks are thus denied the suffrage? The census shows how many "male members of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States," in 1890, were negroes; but there are no records which show how many of these negroes are unable either to read the Constitution or to understand it when read to

them. It is difficult to conceive of any practicable method of ever settling this question, and we can see no way in which "the facts can be ascertained for legislative action," according to the *Bulletin's* idea.

"Jersey justice" is in danger of becoming proverbial in a new sense, if it keeps on letting one public criminal after another go unwhipped. The latest acquittal makes it practically certain that not one of the men smirched by the investigations of the Voorhees committee last spring will be convicted. Even the frightened head conspirator, who fled the State, may as well come home and snap his fingers at the law, as it appears that there is no legal machinery in New Jersey to convict self-convicted public thieves. The Senate investigation put the moral evidence of guilt beyond dispute. No apologist was bold enough to say a word for Ford or Van Cleef or Mullins. They were indicted speedily enough; but the prosecution broke down most impotently in the cases of the last two, and Ford is safe in hiding. Even he could not now, it is probable, be convicted of conspiracy to rob the State, for which he stands indicted. No intelligent citizen of New Jersey doubts that the State capital swarmed with thieves, yet no one now expects to see anything done about it.

The full registration figures have convinced the Tammany "bluffers" that it was a mistake to bet on the result of the election until the registration was completed. Sheehan put forth his claim of from 40,000 to 50,000 Tammany majority on the registration of the first two days, and the offer to bet $10,000 to $8,000 on Tammany was made on the same incomplete basis. Both claim and bet were quickly withdrawn, and Tammany gloom reigned in their stead. There is not a really competent "arithmetic man" in the city who does not believe that the registration is heavily against Tammany, and that it became so largely through the additions of the two closing days. Sheehan's "bluff" was, in fact, a very bad blunder, for it aroused an apprehension throughout the city that Tammany was in danger of getting back into power, and thereby induced thousands of respectable citizens, who had been indifferent to the election, to put their names on the voting lists. The simple fact that the total registration this year, while not so large as that of last year, is more than 15,000 greater than that of 1893, the last "off year," shows that the people of the city are not indifferent to the result. The further fact that there has been a great falling off in the totals in the Tammany strongholds removes all doubt as to the meaning of the figures. The people of the city are determined that the Tammany disgrace shall not be put upon them again.

The falling off in the registration in the Tammany districts is due unquestionably to the more stringent requirements of the new election law. There has been some disposition to ridicule these requirements, especially those relating to the color of the hair and the age and weight of the voter, but it is very evident that "floaters" do not take a jocose view of them, and it was at this class of Tammany cheats that they were aimed. Then, too, we have had this year a more competent and honest force of registration officials than ever before. The old incompetents and rascals were weeded out by the examinations which the Police Board instituted, and honest and capable men were put in their places. Another influence for good has been the memory of the convictions for cheating at the polls which followed the elections of 1893 and sent so many Tammany workers to jail. In short, reform has played havoc with Tammany's regular vote, which stood so solidly against all assaults for many years, and which gave so many estimable people an overpowering sense of Croker's great abilities as a leader because he was able to predict so accurately what the Tammany majority would be. If you can by repeating and false counting make your majority just what you wish it to be, prediction becomes a very simple matter. The hated reformers have made repeating and false counting so dangerous by their new registration requirements and their watching at the polls that Croker's basis for predictions has been completely washed away.

Mr. Cram, the President of the late Tammany Dock Board, did not do well to "yawn" and grow tired at his examination by Mr. Terry on Monday. He was assisting at the explanation of a great mystery. Mr. Cram is the son of an eminent father, a graduate of Harvard College, a "gentleman" in the technical sense of the term, a man of means, and yet he has for two or three years been associating intimately, night and day, with a lot of thieves, cheats, and ruffians. Moreover, whenever they were near being found out, they were in the habit of coming forward and saying, "Look at Cram. Cram would not be with us if we were doing anything wrong." So that for years the town has been asking what Cram was doing among them. Consequently, in submitting to examination, he is helping in the solution of an interesting municipal problem. He is one more illustration of the extreme uncertainty of the bird known as the "gentleman in politics," or, as he is sometimes called, "the scholar in politics." "The gentleman in politics," the college graduate, and all that sort of thing, appears to be just what we want in politics until he gets into it. As Tacitus said of Galba, every one thinks he would make a first-rate politician till he becomes a politician. When he does, as a rule, the gentlemanhood and the scholarship tumble from around him, like the scaffolding of a jerry-built house, and he becomes as ardent and enthusiastic a humbug as any of the politicians. They at first use him as a decoy, and say: "This is the kind of men we want for office. Would we had more of the same. His presence in our councils shows you how the papers lie about us." As he warms to his work, however, and his fraternal relations with the public cheats can no longer be concealed, he is assigned the duty of answering the critics, which he does sometimes angrily, sometimes with a long-suffering, patient-merit air, and sometimes with that of a victim of public spirit, because he stays among the bad men to prevent their getting worse.

We should like to print a list of the ones we have in mind, but it is not necessary. Every reader can make out a list for himself. That such a list can be easily made out, however, is a painful fact. It seems to show that while the colleges are undoubtedly diffusing through the community wider knowledge and higher aims, they are not able to arm any man against the temptations of office-seeking. It seems as if the minute a man wanted an office, even a small municipal office, he looked his personality over, and carefully got rid of whatever qualities he had derived from honorable parents, or from a university education, which political ruffians and blackguards were likely to despise or dislike.

Herbert Spencer's contribution to the Canadian copyright discussion is most weighty. If Canada is to insist, with the United States, upon separate publication in order to secure copyright, it will be a disastrous blow to the higher orders of literature. To multiply centres of production—in the sense of compelling an English book to be printed separately in three or four places—would be, says Mr. Spencer with great force, so absolutely wasteful a process that the margin of profit would be destroyed. If forced to reprint in this country his works since 1860, he says, not one of them would have been written. The principle is most important. Our own law compelling simultaneous and separate publication has already proved a source of endless vexation to English authors, and of loss, æsthetic and moral if not pecuniary, to the American public also. On its face the law defies convenience and economy, as well as international courtesy and equality, and that is a sufficient condemnation of any law affecting the production and distribution of literature. It has been said that if Scott had had an American copyright, he need not have worked himself to death to pay his debts; but under our present law, the extra labor of reading two sets of proof, making two sets of plates, and, in general, doubling all the care and trouble of publishing, might easily have sent him to his grave sooner than he actually went.

MORE ABOUT THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

A CORRESPONDENT asks us certain questions about our views on the foreign policy of the United States, which we have great pleasure in answering, or trying to answer. He justly observes that while we "have frequently instanced where we should not interfere in any matters affecting any of our neighboring nations," he "has not observed instances indicated by us where we should." The explanation of this is easy. We do not in this journal carry on academical controversies or write essays on international law. We discuss the questions of the day as they arise. No proper case for the interference of the United States in the affairs of neighboring nations has, in our opinion, arisen since the French invasion of Mexico thirty years ago. We have, therefore, when treating such interference, treated it "negatively," that is, have opposed it on several occasions when urged by Jingoes or young newspaper warriors. We have said, You must not do that, because it is not lawful or expedient; and this was enough for our purpose.

But being now requested to cover the whole ground, we answer frankly to the first question, that, in our opinion, we should "remonstrate or interfere in the proceedings taken by powers other than American with American nations on this continent other than our own," in all cases arising under the Monroe doctrine. What is the Monroe doctrine? Here it is, taken textually from President Monroe's message:

"We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power, we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States. . . . But in regard to these continents, circumstances are eminently and conspicuously different. It is impossible that the allied powers should extend their political system to any portion of either continent without endangering our peace and happiness; nor can any one believe that our Southern brethren, if left to themselves, would adopt it of their own accord. It is equally impossible, therefore, that we should behold such interposition, in any form, with indifference." (Message of December 2, 1823.)

Consequently, if any European power should seek to set up or impose on the people of any South American state, by force of arms, any government or form of government which the people did not demand or were opposed to, or should seek to "oppress them or control their destiny" in any manner, we should hold it to be the duty of our Government to repel by as much force as might be necessary any such attempt. The invasion of Mexico by the French was an attempt of this order, and Mr. Seward acted properly in giving them peremptory notice to quit as soon as we had forces available to compel compliance. This is an answer to questions 1 and 2.

The third question, apropos of the Venezuelan trouble, requires more extended treatment. England is already a neighbor of Venezuela, and holds conterminous territory by a title which nobody denies. The frontier runs for a long distance through a tropical wilderness. There have, for this reason, been disputes of long standing over the exact line, as there are between nearly all Spanish-American states. They are aggravated in this case by the fact that this wilderness is a gold country. All this raises the strong probability either that neither side is quite right, or that the truth of the matter is hard to get at. The Venezuelans are no more moral than the British, and no less greedy, and if we acknowledge the right of Great Britain to hold territory on this continent, we must acknowledge her right to protect that territory against invasion or appropriation. We cannot ask her to consider herself in the wrong because she is the more powerful, or confess that weakness, any more than might, makes right, because we should never think of applying such a rule to ourselves. We have always, in all disputes with these little South American states, imposed on them our own view of the justice of the case. Witness our treatment of Chili in 1892.

The dispute is in part historical, in part topographical, or, in other words, one to be settled by lawyers and surveyors, not by big guns. It has been so treated by all our diplomatists, and is so treated still, and the ascertainment of the facts is an essential preliminary to all judgment on the affair. A person who writes on it as Senator Lodge does in the magazines, or as the young men in the *Tribune* office do, with hardly any knowledge of these facts, is as ridiculous as your lawyer would be if, the minute you employed him on a difficult real-estate litigation, and before he had looked at your papers and proofs, he began to make it hot for your adversary in the newspapers by calling him a notorious robber and defrauder of widows. All this sound and fury, besides making us a ludicrous spectacle as a nation, seriously embarrasses our officials who are charged with the duty of deciding what part we shall take in foreign disputes, and who have all the available and most correct information about it on their tables. Whatever their faults and shortcomings, they are our chosen and accredited representatives, and the business of deriding them because they do not take a hand in other people's quarrels should begin only after they have publicly revealed their folly or stupidity.

As to our duty in such quarrels, neither the Monroe doctrine nor any other doctrine known among civilized men gives us the right to protect the South American states against the natural consequences of their own insolence and folly. If they quarrel with a bigger power, rob its subjects, or assault and insult its representatives, they must take the consequences, which are usually a fine with some sort of security till it is paid. There are eighteen Spanish-American states, with a population of about 50,000,000. Not one of them has ever exhibited the slightest desire to accept our influence or control except when it got into a row with some European power. They are independent sovereign states, *de facto* and *de jure*. We are in no way responsible for them, and our policy towards them has always been marked by a little dislike and a good deal of contempt, so that the notion that we are injured or insulted if anybody makes them pay their debts or indemnify people whom they have robbed or outraged, is worthy only of schoolboys who want to see a naval battle or read about it.

Whether Great Britain is proposing or "trying wrongfully to take and hold a large share of Venezuelan territory and hold it permanently as England's own" is something which we do not know, and we do not know anybody in the United States who does know. There cannot be less trustworthy witnesses on this subject than the Jingoes and the young newspaper men. Not only do they not know the truth, but they do not want to know it, if it is favorable to England. And we shall never make beneficent or rational contributions to international law until this presumption against England gets out of the heads of people who write or think on this class of questions. To a great many Americans, "abroad" or "foreign powers" always means England, and England is a monster who is always trying to seize more territory. When these publicists want to annex something, they always declare that England wants it too, and sit down and wait for the appearance of the British fleet. This is funny, but it disturbs the judgment, and makes a great deal of our talk on international affairs sound irrational. England is very much like other nations except in having a larger fleet. This superstition causes, too, a widespread but comic popular belief that anybody who opposes any bit of aggression or fanfaronade on our part, is either in the pay of Great Britain or is secretly working for her interest and aggrandizement, and he is therefore not listened to. This, together with the boyish eagerness for a big fighting force, like a fleet, that will not entail risk or inconvenience to people on shore, is rapidly causing us the loss of the great place in the international forum which we occupied in the beginning of the century, and which the founders of the government thought we would solidify and improve as we grew stronger. We need more men in public life, in the press, who seek national greatness in the sphere of mind and law, and resist the popular

longing for more bloody corpses, desolated towns, and the general "hell of death and destruction" called war.

SHERMAN AND CARLISLE.

WE have adverted to some of the strange sayings of Senator Sherman in his recent speech at Massillon, Ohio. There are some things in that speech which are unaccountable on any theory except that Mr. Sherman is in his dotage. For example, this:

"When Cleveland was elected President with the avowed purpose of reducing the tariff, both houses of Congress were willing to authorize the issue of 3 per cent. bonds, to meet the anticipated deficiency, and these could readily have been sold at par. I introduced a bill for that purpose, *but it was defeated by the declaration of both Cleveland and Carlisle that it was unnecessary.*"

When we read this part of the Senator's speech, we had a clear recollection that either Cleveland or Carlisle had said the very opposite of what Mr. Sherman here affirms, in some message or report to Congress—*i. e.*, that one or the other had recommended to Congress the very thing which Mr. Sherman says was defeated by their declaration that it was unnecessary. We find by reference to Mr. Carlisle's regular reports that he twice urged upon Congress the very thing that Mr. Sherman says he rejected, thus:

"I recommend that the third section of the act to provide for the resumption of specie payments approved June 14, 1875, which confers authority upon the Secretary of the Treasury to issue and sell certain descriptions of United States bonds be so amended as to authorize him to issue and sell, at not less than par in coin, bonds to an amount not exceeding $200,000,000 bearing a lower rate of interest, and having a shorter time to run than those now provided for. . . . The United States 4 per cent. bonds payable in 1907 are now selling at a rate which yields investors less than 3 per cent. upon their cost, and I am confident that a bond bearing interest at the rate of 3 per cent., payable quarterly and redeemable at the option of the Government after five years, could be readily sold at par in our own country."

This was in the Secretary's first annual report, that of December, 1893. In his next one he repeated the recommendations in these words:

"As the power to issue and sell bonds already exists, and the present state of our financial legislation compels its occasional exercise, I repeat the recommendation made in my last annual report, that, in the interest of the Government and people, power be conferred on the Secretary of the Treasury to negotiate loans at a lower rate of interest and for a shorter time than are now allowed. . . . The law should be so amended as to conform to the conditions and requirements of the public credit and service at the present time, and I earnestly hope that Congress will take early and favorable action upon the subject."

We have carefully examined President Cleveland's annual messages which were sent to Congress simultaneously with Mr. Carlisle's reports. We find nothing in them which conflicts in any way with these recommendations. In the message of December, 1894, the following paragraph occurs, reinforcing the Secretary's recommendations:

"I desire also to earnestly suggest the wisdom of amending the existing statutes in regard to the issuance of Government bonds. The authority now vested in the Secretary of the Treasury to issue bonds is not as clear as it should be, and the bonds authorized are disadvantageous to the Government both as to the time of their maturity and rate of interest."

Now, in the light of these facts, what does Senator Sherman mean by saying that his bill for 3 per cent. bonds was "defeated by the declaration of both Cleveland and Carlisle that it was unnecessary"? It is not to be supposed that he intended to falsify the public records in such a bare-faced manner when the proofs were so easy of access. We can only account for such a statement as a lapse of memory, which is one of the commonest failings of old age.

The Philadelphia *Press* in a muddled way attempts to justify Senator Sherman. The *Press* says that the influence of Cleveland and Carlisle took effect after the bill had passed the Senate and gone to the House. The only member of the House whom it quotes in support of this contention is George Fred Williams of Massachusetts, who said: "I am not aware that the incoming Secretary of the Treasury has desired that this amendment be passed, or in any way identified himself with this amendment." It is quite true that Mr. Williams said this, but when the bill came back to the Senate, the House having non-concurred, Mr. Sherman embraced the occasion to show how much his own information was superior to Mr. Williams's lack of information, although he did not mention any names. He said:

"I drew this amendment as it now stands, and it was submitted to the incoming Secretary of the Treasury. He, having been formerly a member of the committee on finance and a member of the Senate, and being familiar with us all, came before the committee on finance and there stated the reasons why in his judgment it might become, in case of exigency, important for him to have the power to issue a cheaper bond. He expressed the hope and belief, and I am inclined to agree with him, that it might not be necessary to issue these bonds at all, but that, when the emergency came, *he must meet it as quickly as a stroke of lightning;* that there must be no hesitation or delay; if there should be a disparity between the two metals or a run upon the Government for the payment of the United States notes, he must be prepared to meet this responsibility in order to obtain coin with which to redeem the notes. That statement was submitted to the committee on finance in the presence of the honorable gentleman who is to hold the high and distinguished office of Secretary of the Treasury. I know of no man in the United States who is better fitted to hold that office than he. We were glad, indeed I was glad, that we could in any way aid him by legislation to meet the difficulties of his office. *No doubt his persuasive arguments,* together with my own firm belief, caused the committee on finance, which is very diverse in its views upon the question of free coinage of silver and gold, to agree with practical unanimity upon this provision of law. When I introduced it, I had no expectation whatever that there would be any opposition to it" (*Congressional Record*, pages 2330, 2331).

This was said on the 1st day of March, the session coming to an end on the 4th. Senator Gorman in the same debate confirmed what Senator Sherman had said, and he took occasion to contradict flatly the insinuation that Mr. Carlisle had no knowledge of or was in no way responsible for the measure under consideration. He said:

"Mr. President, after the statement of the Senator from Ohio, I feel that I ought to say a few words. This amendment, which was reported by the committee on finance, came here not only with the approval of a majority of the committee, but it was, as I feel authorized to say, the result of a consultation of those who are in control of the financial department of the Government and the gentleman who is within a few days to take charge of that department. I believe that it is due to all concerned to make that statement in view of the fact that it has been stated elsewhere in a legislative body that the incoming Secretary had no knowledge of or was not in any way responsible for the amendment. For one, I am not content to let the statements in the public press and the statements made elsewhere go unnoticed" (*Congressional Record*, page 2237).

The Philadelphia *Press* actually quotes this paragraph from Mr. Gorman's speech as though it were a confirmation of what Mr. Williams had said in the House, instead of being a contradiction of it.

It should be remarked that Mr. Williams in the House never pretended to speak for Mr. Carlisle. He merely said that he was not aware of this and that, and he had been careful to say by way of introduction that he spoke as an individual only. Yet the *Press* is not content with putting Gorman and Williams in the same team. It goes on to say:

"One word of contradiction by Secretary Carlisle of the statements made in the House by his party leaders, to the effect that he did not want authority to issue such bonds, would have secured the passage of the amendment. But he made no such denial. There are others besides Mr. Williams who can tell the reason why."

The truth is, that the 3 per cent. bond clause was killed in the House by the silverites, and especially by Mr. Bland's threat that he would defeat it by filibustering. On the 27th of February Mr. Bland announced his intentions in these words: "I say, Mr. Speaker, for one, that, so far as my voice and my vote are concerned, every parliamentary rule that I can resort to I will use to resist this insult of the Senate." Bland called it a revenue bill, which could originate only in the House, and therefore he considered it an insult to the House. The *Press* says that, in spite of Bland, "under the power of the Speaker's gag-rule committee, the amendment could easily have been brought to a vote." Perhaps so, but Mr. Carlisle was not the Speaker. That office was filled by Mr. Crisp, and if Mr. Crisp happened to agree with Mr. Bland (as he did generally on these questions), the "gag-rule committee" would have worked the other way. It was well understood at the time that Bland had the power to kill the whole bill (the sundry-civil appropriation) at that late day in the session, and that he would have done so without scruple. What communications, if any, passed from Mr. Carlisle to members of the House at this juncture, when the real question was that of killing the whole bill and perhaps making an extra session of Congress necessary, we do not know. Nor can any judgment be pronounced upon them unless

they are produced textually. Considerable doubt is thrown on the existence of any such communications by a speech of Senator Gorman in the next Congress nearly a year later (January 31, 1894), in which he repeated his denial quoted above, thus:

"When the Senate passed that provision, and it was stated in another body which deals with appropriation bills that Mr. Carlisle, who was to be the Secretary of the Treasury, did not want the authority to issue 3 per cent. bonds. I rose in my place in the Senate, as the *Record* will show, and I stated without fear of contradiction that that provision had been agreed to by Mr. Carlisle, and that its defeat elsewhere and the attempt to hold Secretary Foster alone responsible for the desire to issue bonds was not justified by the facts, and was a gross injustice to Mr. Foster and to the now chairman of the committee on finance [Mr. Voorhees], as well as to the Senator from Ohio [Mr. Sherman], and all who supported the proposition."

This was said in the course of a debate with Senator Sherman. If Mr. Sherman had known anything to the contrary then —and he probably knew as much then as he does now—that would have been a fitting time to say it.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF AFRICA.

It seems but yesterday that Stanley emerged from the heart of the Dark Continent and told of his year-long wanderings and perilous descent of the Congo. Now the trader rides by railroad nearly half the distance between tide-water and Stanley Pool, and at this place buys a ticket by either of two lines of steamboats to stations fifteen hundred miles distant from the Atlantic. Farther south the Portuguese are working diligently, though with limited means, at the transcontinental road by which they once proposed to connect their possessions on either ocean, and the planters two hundred miles from the coast send their rubber, sugar, and coffee by rail to St. Paul de Loanda. The miner seeking the goldfields of Mashonaland has the choice of two routes. He may take the train at Cape Town, and, from the present terminus of the northern road, almost a thousand miles distant, go by coach to any of the great mining centres. Or he may prefer the shorter land route from the east coast, and be carried by the Beira railroad to the very edge of the auriferous plateau. In his mining-camp near Fort Salisbury, which a few years ago was practically inaccessible to the white man, he reads the London papers only five weeks old. The Hindu merchant seeking his fortune in the British Central Africa Protectorate is transferred from the Bombay steamer at the mouth of the Zambesi to one of the fleet of the African Lakes Company's steamers, which, with a hundred miles "carry" around the Shire rapids, lands him on the shore of Lake Nyasa. If from thence he travels three hundred miles westward to the remote Lake Mweru, where Livingstone's wanderings ceased, even here the postman will bring him letters from his home in far-off India.

Rapid transit into the interior has not made so great progress further north. Only some thirty miles of the German railway from Tanga to the Victoria Nyanza are completed, and the money for the parallel English road to Uganda has but just been appropriated. The Italians have built twenty miles of a projected line from Massowah on the Red Sea to Kassala on the northwestern frontier of their colony of Eritrea. The grasp of the Mahdists on the middle Nile has been loosened, and any day we may hear that the water route from Egypt to the great lakes has been reopened. The other northern routes, from the Mediterranean ports into the Sudan, are still closed to white men; but the trans-Saharan railroad by which it is proposed to connect the Algerian system with the French lines pushing eastward from Senegal and northward from the Guinea coast, has almost passed out of the realm of mere visionary schemes into that of possibilities.

The advance of civilization, then, into Africa is from every quarter, and in many places the goal is already reached. At the present rate of progress, in a few years the whole continent will offer no more difficulties to the traveller than India does now. It is not inconceivable—nay, more, it is probable—that in 1905 the Cook tourist on the Nile will not be obliged to turn back, as now, at the second cataract, but may keep up the river to Lake Albert, and thence by alternate rail and water to the mouth of the Zambesi or to Cape Town. Then the traveller around the world will not be confined to the Suez Canal or the passage round the Cape, but will have the choice of several routes across the continent. He may take the African lakes route from Chinde to Nyasa, and cross by coach or rail the British Protectorate, connecting at the Portuguese frontier with the trains of the Royal Company for the Atlantic seaboard. Or he may choose either of three roads to the Congo—the German Central, now being surveyed, from Dar-es-Salaam, opposite Zanzibar, to Lake Tanganyika, the German Northern to Lake Victoria, or the British Uganda railway past the magnificent snow-clad Ruwenzori range. At Stanley Pool he will be able to take the cars of the State Road to the head of navigation at Matadi, or, if he prefer, the all-rail route through French Congo to the port of Loango.

In other words, the barrier of desert and fever-haunted coast belt which has separated central Africa from the rest of the world since creation, has been finally and permanently broken down. And just as the water brought in artificial channels from the eternal snows of the Alatau Mountains is transforming the arid desert of Turkestan into a region of smiling villages and cultivated fields lined with shade and fruit-trees, so these wagon-roads, steamboats, and railways are but so many irrigating streams which will fertilize the mental and moral wilderness in which the negro lives. For that which has kept him in a state but a remove above the wild beasts who share with him his forests and grassy plains has been chiefly his isolation. With the in-rush of the white man into his solitudes, intent on gain though he be, and bringing with him the countless evils of civilization, but at the same time their antidotes, a new era has opened for Africa and the African. The full import to the world of this great fact it is impossible to grasp. This, however, may be said with confidence. It has increased the available cultivable land of the globe by a fifth and doubled the area within the tropics. That is, the sources from which man can draw his food supplies in the future have been almost indefinitely expanded. To what extent the opening of the country will add to his mineral wealth is still a matter of conjecture, but that the African highlands contain the precious and useful metals in abundance every traveller testifies. But of greater importance than these material advantages is the fact that the sum of human happiness will be immeasurably increased. These railways, with the stable government which is the essential condition of their existence, mean the absolute suppression of the greatest curse which has ever blighted man's growth, the slave-raid. They mean the raising of the standard of living, the creation of a knowledge of the rights of property, of the profitableness of labor, the dignity and value of human life to fifty million of our fellow-beings. They mean the binding together by common interests nations, tribes, and villages now mutually hostile. They mean the indefinite multiplication of such oases (even now happily numerous in the great wilderness) as the settlement of which we read in a British official report, that here "will be seen clean, broad, level roads, bordered by handsome avenues of trees, and comely red-brick houses with rose-covered verandas peeping out behind clumps of ornamental shrubs. The natives who pass along are clothed in white calico, with some gaudy touch of color superadded. A bell is ringing to call the children to the mission-school."

THE MOUNDS OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

For a hundred years and more the origin of these structures has been a subject of debate, and various theories have been brought forward at different times by way of accounting for them. Thus, for instance, we are told by one class of writers that they were built by the Toltecs; others ascribe them to the Aztecs, the Pueblos, etc., etc.; and then, again, there are those who assert that they were the work of a mysterious people who once dwelt in the Mississippi Valley, but who are now extinct. Differ as these theories do in certain particulars, they may all be classed under one head in so far as they are based upon the assumption that

these remains (and under this term we include the earthworks of every sort, size, and description) indicate a phase of civilization to which, in point of artistic, religious, and political development, the Indian is said to have been unequal.

From this extreme view there has always been more or less dissent, though it is but fair to say that since the publication by the Smithsonian Institution, in 1848, of 'The Ancient Monuments of the Mississippi Valley,' Squier's theory as to the superior civilization of the mound-builders and the low condition of the modern Indians, together with its corollary as to the origin of these "monuments," has been accepted by a large majority of those who have written upon the subject. Indeed, so comprehensive is his statement and so clear and compact his reasoning, that, in spite of numerous errors of detail for which he was not always responsible, to say nothing of his adoption of a system of nomenclature which not only was erroneous in itself, but has been a prolific source of error in others, his book is still the great storehouse from which the advocates of the mound-builder theory draw their arguments. But while we yield to no one in our appreciation of Squier's great work, it is well to remember that he subsequently so far modified his views as to admit that "the earthworks of western New York were erected by the Iroquois or their western neighbors"; and that although he never changed his opinion in regard to the origin of the so-called "sacred enclosures," etc., of southern Ohio and elsewhere, yet even upon this point his conclusion has been successfully questioned by a school of ethnologists who do not find in the mounds, or in anything that has been taken from them, any indication of a higher degree of civilization than the Indians of the Mississippi valley, such as they were when the whites first came in contact with them, are known to have reached.

Among those who have been especially prominent in advocating this theory, Prof. Cyrus Thomas of the Bureau of Ethnology is easily first. Placed in charge of the department of mound exploration soon after its organization in 1881, he has had exceptional advantages for studying this problem; and to those of us who are familiar with the amount and character of the work that has been done in the library as well as in the field, it is needless to say that he has made the most of his opportunities. He has labored assiduously in every branch of the investigation, and though some of his contentions—as, for instance, the theory about "archæological areas and distribution of types"—are open to doubt, yet, in the main, his researches have led to decisive results. To enumerate a tithe of the difficult points he has cleared up would lead us too far astray; and we content ourselves with calling attention to the fact that, in the way of field exploration alone, hundreds of groups of earthworks have been examined, numerous graves, cemeteries, caches and cave deposits have been opened, and "over two thousand mounds, including almost every known type of form, from the low, diminutive, circular burial tumulus of the North to the huge truncated earthen pyramid of the South, have been explored." In a word, "every variety of construction hitherto known, as well as a number decidedly different in detail," are said to have been examined, and hundreds of them, we may add, are figured in the twelfth annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology, issued this year.

Of the tangible result of these explorations the account is somewhat meagre, though enough is told to enable us to form an idea of the size and value of the collection. In the item of pottery, for instance, there are "1,500 specimens, including most of the known varieties and several that are new in form and ornamentation." Of implements and ornaments in stone, bone, copper, and shell there is a large and varied assortment, among which we recognize the carved shells and copper plates from the Etowah (Georgia) group of mounds, about which we have heard before. Of the great mass of these articles, however, so far as we are permitted to judge of their character, it may be safely said that while they tell us nothing new of the life of the people who made and used them, they do, when taken in connection with the graves and mounds in which they were found, give us a good picture of the arts and industries, manners and customs of the people whom it is the fashion to call mound-builders. Unsatisfactory as this result seems to be, it is, nevertheless, a step in the right direction, for it establishes a test or standard of mound-builder work, and thus marks out the course which the investigation must follow. Evidently, if it can be shown that at some time in the distant past there lived in the region in which these mounds occur a people who were in the same stage of development as the mound-builder—a people who, in other words, made and did all the things that he is known to have made and done—then the question as to the origin of these works may be regarded as settled, and the search for that interesting but somewhat elusive personage yclept mound-builder becomes a waste of time.

This in effect was the shape in which the problem presented itself to Thomas, and in solving it he adopted the comparative method—the only one which has thus far given positive results. Thus, for example, instead of indulging in idle disquisitions about the civilization of the Aztecs or the Pueblos, neither of whom can be shown to have ever held a foot of the region in which these mounds are found, he began his investigation with the Indians who were in possession of the valley when it was first visited by the whites, and instituted a comparison for the purpose of determining how far, in their arts and industries, manners and customs, as revealed in their implements and ornaments, or described in the early records, they surpassed or fell short of what we have termed the mound-builder standard. It was a crucial test, and demonstrated beyond the possibility of a doubt that these two peoples, admitting that they belonged to different races, had attained to about the same stage of development. In fact, as has been said elsewhere, the two classes of remains agree in every essential particular, not a single specimen having been taken from the mounds which the Indian could not have made, or might not have bought from his neighbors in Mexico or on the Atlantic Coast, with both of whom he carried on more or less traffic. Important as this agreement is, as a link in the chain of evidence that points to the identity of the Indians with the mound builders, it is strengthened by the fact that the Indians are known to have built both mounds and earthworks; and when we add that they are the only people except the whites who, so far as we know, ever occupied the region in which these remains are found, it will be seen that there is ample ground for the conclusion that the mounds and enclosures of the Mississippi Valley, of every sort, size, and description, "were the work of these same Indians, or of their immediate ancestors." All other inferences are denied us until it can be shown that, at some time in the past, there lived in this valley a people, other than the Indian, who chipped flint, wove cloth, hammered metals, worked in stone, bone, and shell, manufactured pottery, built mounds and earthworks, and did all the other things that the mound-builder is known to have done.

FIELD EPIGRAPHY.

BOSTON, October 18, 1895.

THE world that sits in libraries knows little of practical epigraphy. Archæology, in these days, rests largely upon this science of the stones, and in every community of scholars the term epigraphy is partly apprehended, standing to men's minds for certain bulky volumes with thousands of entries, and an ever-increasing flow of pamphlets from the universities and academies of Europe. But before this literature can be issued, there is the work of the explorer in the field, the actual collector of the inscriptions. Of its details as well as of the fatigue and nervous waste of field-work in a semi civilized land; of the insolence and often treacherous character of the inhabitants (as Boeckh says, *Turcis instantibus et impedientibus*); of the thousand circumstances that make against the perfect calm of mind and body which the epigraphist should bring to the inscription, M. Salomon Reinach, in a little book addressed to intending archæologists ('Conseils aux Voyageurs Archéologues,' Paris, 1886), has made mention with French grace and sympathy. In Crete, for some months, I tried the trade. Epigraphy there is epigraphy at its worst—and at its best. The conditions are exacting, but the field has been little worked.

The huge tomes of the work known by scholars as C. I. G. (*Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum*), begun half a century ago by the great Boeckh, the real founder of the science, and, in spite of perennial supplements and addenda, still far from completion, contain only a scanty sheaf of the stone records of Crete, derived from the most various sources—manuscript copies of medieval travellers in the days before epigraphy was a science, erroneous and untrustworthy; haphazard readings of local antiquaries, hardly more trustworthy; and, finally, the collections made, in passing, by the handful of modern explorers who have visited the island, often for other purposes. In later years much has been done for Cretan inscriptions, chiefly by the Italian scholar, Dr. Halbherr (whom I had the honor to assist), who has added to them by hundreds, and, to some extent, by a few scholars of Cretan birth.

Under the spade of the peasant, in building and in public works, the written records of the classical past are for ever coming to light. In Greece, Italy, and some parts of Turkey, the inscription surely finds its editor and its academic public, and goes on file into the vast repository of such documents, from which, some day, the archæologist is to build for the unborn the true story of antiquity. But in Crete, in a spot remote from university and printing-press, one cannot count upon these things. Again and again the ground must be covered, the peasant induced to yield his treasures, and the discoveries of each season made secure in the pages of a note-book until they can be studied and given to the world. Inscriptions, then, are gathered by trips through the country, far and wide. Arrived at a village, we ask the first person if there are γράμματα or "letters" to be found thereabouts. The chance is that he will lead us to the village church, and, after a careful survey,

we shall discover old friends from the pages of C. I. G. which have been copied and recopied a score of times. Do not despair. Ask for the priest or the leading man of the village. In fact, any one who can read will be serviceable, for the educated will love to assist you with the stone and interpret your rendering to the admiring bystanders. If your peasant-guide has relations by blood or guest-friendship in the village, all goes well. Introductions follow, much wine is drunk, and the epigraphist finds his own. It is not always so. The villagers may be rude and insolent, and pretend they do not understand. But it is never well to take a denial. A show of coin, treating the crowd at the local café, or, as a last resort, the display of a pasha's firman, in Greek and Turkish, may do the business. Once, however, we spent days in futile negotiations for a glimpse of a stone, and never knew whether it really existed, hidden away in a cottage, or was a mere myth of a churlish peasant's brain. In Turkish regions more difficulty is experienced, and, in particular, stones in or near a house can hardly be examined, for the reason that the women must be removed before one can enter. This entails more trouble than the average Turk will take. The only solution is to have the stone, if portable, brought out to the street, where you may inspect it at leisure. The Greeks are almost always accommodating. Several permitted us to knock down whole pieces of their walls, and would take no remuneration.

The stones are found in all possible and impossible places—wherever the peasant discoverer cared to employ them. Two situations—the church and the ἀλώνη, or winnowing-field, enclosed with a low, circular wall of upright slabs—yield the most to the epigraphist. Ignorant always of their meaning, the finder yet prefers those stones which bear letters, and, fortunately for science, usually sets them in his building face outward. And yet, riding past the rough stone hovels of a Cretan village, one never knows what treasures the silent walls might yield! One little church at the village of Kastelli was fairly built of Greek inscriptions, of many periods and the most various states of preservation. Marble wears the best, but the ancient Cretans more often used, to our loss, the material that came to hand, a soft, brown limestone, extremely perishable. The interior of the church contained a large and most crabbed Roman imperial decree in Latin, and the tables in the chancel were *stelai*, or gravestones, of the pagans turned to that strange use. As for the ἀλώνη, you are sure to find in the vicinity of any vanished city the gray, lettered marbles leaning among the grasses or half sunk into the ground.

Now for impossible places. At first one is surprised to find an inscription ten feet down a well, moss-grown, and just recognizable in the dark and damp, where the mere cleaning of the stone means the toil of hours; or blackened with soot, in a chimney; or built into the arch of a dirty cottage, usually near the clay floor and plastered thickly with many whitewashings; or, sometimes, even in the coping of the roof-tops. Far afield in some lonely vineyard or sheep-run the rider spies a stone on the brown soil. Often a détour adds a new item to his note-book. In one way and another the stones wander far from their first setting; but ten or twelve miles from an ancient site may be put as the limit at which inscriptions will be found.

The actual process of copying varies with the stone. The inscription is washed, the moss and discoloration removed carefully with a knife; the locality, dimensions, and nature of the stone, the height and character of the letters noted, and the name of the owner of the property. Curiously enough, the actual reading is more a matter of eyesight than of scholarship—dependent on the physical condition of the moment. The pupil's eye may be keener than the master's, and even the opinion of a peasant is not to be rejected. A difficult stone must be read gradually, "line on line," with the most painstaking comparison of recurring letters and spacing. M. Reinach notes the danger of knowing too much; of anticipating, so to speak, the story of the stone, and of reading into a doubtful line some ready-made formula. Formulæ, however, and stereotyped ones, continually occur in later records, and a discreet knowledge of them is indispensable. One day the inscription baffles the student; the next, it reads easily, so much is the matter one of nerves and health. Of those inscriptions which do not yield even to such patience, or which are especially notable from any cause, the epigraphist will bear away a photograph or a verbatim copy by impression or *estampage*, as the French call the process known to English-speaking scholars by the clumsy term of "squeeze"; that is, an impression taken on dampened paper prepared for that purpose. Read from the back or dusted with rouge so that the depressions and shadows are accentuated, in the leisure of the library the squeeze may frequently be far more trustworthy than the stone.

Crete, remaining one of the fair provinces of the ancients still in the clutch of the Turk, is to-day a land of the Middle Ages. At the seaports there is a thin veneer of civilization; inland the life and manners of the past abide. You travel in the old fashion by horse and donkey across rude trails in the country-side. The island is imperfectly mapped, new villages appearing, and old ones, marked by the geographer, having disappeared in later insurrections. That familiar and now vanishing figure of travel in the Levant, the *agoyátes*, or dragoman, is here a necessity. He is a peasant, half-servant, half-guide, and rides upon a pack-horse loaded with clothes, rugs, coffee, sugar, photographic apparatus, and the large tin cylinder, or *tináki*, which contains rolls of paper for impressions. Sitting sideways on the heavily burdened animal, the *agoyátes* makes slow progress. His speed is that of the party, and fifteen miles is the average distance traversed in a day.

At night, wearied by travel or the nervous strain of work, you are received into a peasant's house in a strange village. Then come the hardest hours of field life. The body needs good food, and there is the tough boiled fowl and rancid olive oil. The mind needs to be let alone, and there is the fire of persistent questions from the assembled magnates of the village. Clothes, manners, and appearance are audibly criticised; yet it is still necessary to be polite. At last one lies down on the clay floor or the wooden platform beside the host and his family, and sleeps as he never sleeps in a bed.

It is all horseback-riding, fatigue, dirt, change of scene, adventure, and strange encounters with peasants, soldiers, country priests—all manner of primitive men—this life of the epigraphist; in its details quaintly like that of the American cowboy. Great also are its compensations. The fine air of the hills, the constant exercise, the occasional sense of peril are stimulative, and the body responds with a thrill. Mere physical existence becomes a pleasure. One is glad to know on what simple basis life is endurable, and in the mortification of the flesh there is an ascetic glow.

Intellectually, the experience is exhilarating. In one of his archæological essays, somewhere, Sir Charles Newton expresses the satisfaction felt by the scholar, hitherto familiar only with the books, in handling inscriptions, real documents—the newspapers and posters of the past. This can hardly be exaggerated. I remember finding by a well-side a stone in memory of one Menander, dead at fifty years and buried at the civic expense. Great names fallen low and country echoes of an imperial reputation enlighten these labors, and any silent stone may awaken the fancy. The marbles, with their clear-cut letters, traces of red often lingering in the deep notches; the archaic or local alphabets, so individual, so different from the stereotyped character of the books; the errors, omissions, corrections of the forgotten lapidary that make the inscription read like an ill-writ letter—into how close a touch with the living ancients these bring one! One bears away, too, many memories: of the flash of costume, of old-world folk gossiping in dialects, of puffy Turkish governors and astute Greek officials, of shepherds sitting silent among the ruins of ancient cities or driving their flocks over wind-swept hills. Perhaps the most vivid is of that hour, at sundown, when the Cretan girls repair to the fountain outside the village, and glide back, unconsciously classical, with pitchers poised firmly on their heads.

JOHN ALDEN.

FRANÇOIS TRONCHIN AND VOLTAIRE.

PARIS, October 9, 1895.

SUCH is the power of attraction of a great name that the Genevan Tronchins are among the numerous satellites which have been revolving round the world-wide reputation of Voltaire, and have been dragged down with him to posterity. They belonged to a family which had its origin in Provence. M. Henry Tronchin, who has given us very recently an interesting volume on the Councillor François Tronchin, informs us that his ancestors had a good place in the nobility of Provence as far back as the fourteenth century. In the sixteenth century they were among the first who espoused the cause of the Reformation. They were obliged to leave France during the religious wars. One of them, a cavalry officer, saved by a priest during the massacre of St. Bartholomew, took refuge in Geneva, and entered into the service of the Republic, which was then at constant war with the Duke of Savoy. His son was the godchild of Théodore de Bèze, and became his disciple and his friend. Théodore de Bèze left to Théodore Tronchin his library, which was all his fortune. This same Théodore Tronchin entered into relations afterwards with the famous Duke de Rohan, the last great military leader of the Protestants of France. In the eighteenth century we find the Tronchins among the powerful families of Geneva, which had become a sort of oligarchy. The legislative power was in the hands of a Council of Two Hundred, and the members of the "Petit Conseil," which had the executive power, were recruited among the members of this Council of Two Hundred. Practically, all the power and the patronage was in the hands of a few families, whose children always intermarried, and who formed a kind of aristocracy in the democracy instituted by Calvin.

Four members of the Tronchin family were

conspicuous at the time when Voltaire came to live near Geneva. Most interesting to us is Dr. Théodore Tronchin. His father had been completely ruined by the failure of Law's bank, and it was probably for this reason that he became a doctor. He acquired a great reputation, and his name appears often in the memoirs of the eighteenth century. He was one of the first who practised vaccination in Europe and who adopted the ideas and methods of Jenner. The Duke d'Orléans, who was, as is well known, very progressive and what we now call advanced, sent for him at Villers-Cotterets, to have his children vaccinated, which appeared at the time a most daring and almost guilty experiment. Mme. d'Épinay was, after Voltaire, one of the most famous patients of Tronchin. People came to Geneva from all parts of Europe to consult him or be under his care. It is much to be hoped that M. Henry Tronchin will give us some day a volume on Dr. Tronchin as rich in original documents as the volume which he publishes now on the Councillor François Tronchin.

The Councillor was a man of modest fortune; he was for a short time a member of the "Petit Conseil," but he was a man of leisure, fond of the fine arts, of literature, an incessant correspondent. "His," says the editor, "was a physiognomy without much relief. He is less an original type than a somewhat casual example of a whole category of his contemporaries, men of the world with a smattering of philosophy, whose horizon was limited by the confines of the very polite and very artificial society in which they moved." After he had finished his studies, François Tronchin went to Paris, as was usual with young men of his condition among his contemporaries, and spent some time at the house of his brother Robert, who was a financier, and who had become a *fermier-général*. He tells us in an inedited manuscript that in 1722, when he was in the pit of the Comédie-Française, a very thin young man with a black coat and a long, natural head of hair passed near him. "I was sitting next to a man unknown to me, who asked him how he was getting on. 'Always on the go, always suffering,' was the sole answer, and I recalled it as I learned a moment afterwards that it was Voltaire who had just passed us. He never ceased 'going and suffering' in the fifty-six years before his death. I always knew this to be the case with him." Tronchin had a decided taste for the theatre, and he composed a tragedy, "Marie Stuart" (I wonder how many "Mary Stuarts" have been written), which was represented in 1734 first at the French Theatre and afterwards before the Court at Fontainebleau. In 1736 he married a young lady of Saint-Quentin, and established himself at Geneva in a little country-house where the Rhone leaves the city. He entered the Council of the Two Hundred, and was ever afterwards called Councillor.

Voltaire, finding himself banished from Berlin and virtually exiled from France, tired of his wanderings in Mannheim, Mayence, Strasbourg, Colmar, made the acquaintance of Robert Tronchin, the financier, at Lyons. To him he confided the greater part of his fortune, and started for Geneva with a letter to François Tronchin. He arrived there with his niece, Mme. Denis, on the 12th of December, 1754. The laws of Geneva did not allow any person professing the Catholic religion to own land in its territory, and it allowed foreigners to reside there only precariously, on a *permis de séjour*. François Tronchin obtained this permit for Voltaire, most of the Genevan magistrates being his friends or relations; but Voltaire, poor Catholic though he was, could not buy a house, and Robert Tronchin, the financier, became his intermediary for the acquisition of a country-house belonging to M. Mallet. The house was bought in Tronchin's name. "You know," wrote Voltaire to him, "how difficult it is for a stranger and good Catholic like me to make a bargain with the people of God." He offered to be his "concierge" as long as he lived. This negotiation was the cause of a long correspondence, which will be found at length in the volume now published, and in which Voltaire shows, with his usual inexhaustible wit, a contentious disposition which must have sometimes tried those who had no other wish but to oblige him.

As soon as he was in the "Délices" (such was the name of his house), he applied his activity to arranging and changing everything. He received a visit from Lekain, the famous actor, and equipped a small theatre. The consistory of Geneva now became uneasy. Calvin held the same ideas as Bossuet on the immorality of the stage, and his tradition was still respected. "All your respectable family," writes Voltaire to Robert Tronchin, "whom I love tenderly, have just left me . . . We played 'Zaïre' before the Tronchins and the Syndics. Calvin did not suspect that Catholics would one day draw tears from the eyes of Huguenots on the soil of Geneva. Lekain helped us well, Madame Denis marvellously performed *Zaïre*, and I represented the bonhomme *Lusignan*." Voltaire was working at the "Orphan of China," and wanted to try it on his little stage, when he heard that the ministers of Geneva had prohibited theatricals at the Délices, and he received an order to close his theatre.

Soon afterwards, his quietude was troubled by rumors—"ridiculous rumors," as he calls them—which were spread all over Europe. Copies of the "Pucelle" had been read in Paris, and Voltaire was accused of being the author of this too famous poem. Copies had been sent to Geneva, and a publisher at Lausanne was on the point of bringing out the poem. Voltaire took the simple means of denying that he was its author; he was even bold enough to begin a law-suit against an agent of the bookseller at Lausanne. After a while, Voltaire found the Délices too small, and bought Ferney, outside of the territory of the Republic of Geneva. He found the ground of Geneva not solid enough for his feet, amid the alarm caused by an article in the 'Encyclopædia,' said to have been inspired by him. Ferney was under the authority of Gex, and Voltaire became the *Seigneur* of Ferney, with all the privileges attached to the title. He had vassals, tithes to collect, law-suits to continue, which gave him an agreeable occupation. He could, however, act only for his niece, Madame Denis, for the estate had been bought in her name.

The two Tronchins, the Councillor and the financier, were his constant advisers and correspondents on an infinity of subjects. The editor has given us even the shortest notes written to them by Voltaire; we can but approve of this, for Voltaire shed his *esprit* at all times on all subjects. He was permanently in trouble; he jumped from Scylla to Charybdis. At Ferney, he wished to have the cross of the old cemetery removed from his sight. He was accused of having used very abusive language during the removal. The secular and ecclesiastical judges came to Ferney, made an inquest, and criminal proceedings were instituted against Voltaire. He placed himself under the protection of the parlement of Dijon. François Tronchin had to go to Dijon, and succeeded in getting the author of "Zaïre" out of difficulty once more. The publication of 'Candide,' which was written at Ferney, added new fuel to the fire. So did a number of anonymous pamphlets which bore the mark of this prolific writer. I have collected the first editions of 'Candide,' the masterpiece of Voltaire's novels, and have found as many as four, published under the name of Prof. Ralph in different countries. 'Candide' was burnt on the 2d of March, 1760, at Geneva, by the hand of the executioner. The 'Dialogues Chrétiens par M. V., . . . imprimés à Genève, 1860,' contained bitter attacks on the Genevan clergy. In a letter to Théodore Tronchin, Voltaire boldly denied their paternity. The pamphlet was burned by order of the Council. Voltaire became more and more angry with Geneva, "cette ville hargneuse," and with these "prêtres pédants" who did not allow their flock to take part in the comedies played at Ferney. Voltaire became by degrees an object of aversion to the Genevan patriciate. The only friend he kept was François Tronchin. He gave up the Délices in 1765. He was made very angry by the favor some of the Genevans showed to J. J. Rousseau, and writes to his friend (January 22, 1765): "You seem astonished that Rousseau should be a dishonest man. Have you not read the memoirs which I have read? You would have seen that he is neither good nor a philosopher; he is gloomy, ungrateful, false in his ideas, in his feelings, in his actions; in short, he conceals the soul of a criminal under the mantle of Diogenes."

Few of the readers of M. Henry Tronchin's book will take any interest in his ancestor's tragedies and his vain attempts to become a writer. As a picture-collector he was more fortunate; he formed successively two good collections, the first of which was bought by the great Catherine. He was in relations with the picture dealers of Paris, and followed all the great sales of the times; his brother, the financier, had introduced him to most of the French artists, to Carl Vernet, to Soufflot the architect, to Pigalle the sculptor, to Falconet. He remained to the end the friend and correspondent of Voltaire, though his friendship grew somewhat cooler by degrees. François Tronchin lived long enough to see the total disruption of the frivolous and elegant society in which he had made so many friends. He celebrated his golden wedding on the 6th of April, 1786, and died after the terrible years of the Revolution and of the Terror, on the 7th of February, 1798.

Correspondence.

SCHOOL ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While I generally concur in the conclusions set forth in Prof. Goodwin's extremely valuable, as well as interesting, letter on "School English" in the last issue of the *Nation*, there is one point in it to which I take some exception, and to which I want to call attention.

I refer to that paragraph in which Prof. Goodwin says that "it is not the fault of the teachers who send students to our colleges" that the present state of affairs as respects written English continues; and, further, that it is impossible to take boys of from fourteen to sixteen "who have learned no systematic habits of study, and make scholars of them before they are eighteen or nineteen."

While this is generally true, yet I cannot but think far more could be done in this direction, under other methods, than is now accomplished. The trouble with the existing system as revealed by the examination papers which come under the eyes of the visiting committee on English is, that in the preparatory schools a system of almost exclusively *oral* teaching is pursued to prepare boys for *written* tests. From the day the scholar leaves the preparatory school and presents himself for examination at Harvard, up to the day when he receives his baccalaureate degree—if he ever does receive it—the whole system now rests upon written examinations. The translations from Latin and Greek into English which have been submitted in the reports of the committee bring out, more clearly perhaps than could be brought out in any other way, the failure of those orally instructed when subjected to the test of written result. It is the old familiar lesson of the "spelling bee." When, formerly, the scholars in our grammar schools were stood up in rows and given words to spell, though they might spell them accurately in the class, it was found that, when called upon to write the same words down, the oral instruction had no practical connection with the written result. The wildest work was made by the best spellers with even the most familiar words.

It is precisely the same with the translation of the classics. Any visitor who has ever sat through a recitation in a preparatory school, and heard scholars stammer and bungle out an English rendering of Greek or Latin authors, knows what a piece of work they make of it. The translation is in no respect English. When, after recitations of this sort, these same scholars are from time to time told to sit down and make written translations, they are in much the same plight as the unfortunate children who, having been taught to spell orally, had a pencil put in their hands and were told to write out the same words. The last state was infinitely worse than their first—though that at the time seemed bad enough!

The defect in the system now in use in the preparatory schools, as revealed in the papers, is, therefore, that when, at the age of twelve, boys first go to those schools, they are not subjected to severe and constant training so far as written English is concerned. It is unnecessary and, indeed, inadvisable to give this training in the form of themes or stated written compositions. It should constitute a part, and a large part, of the regular daily routine work at the desk. English should thus be taught as an incident, and not as an end. When the committee on English at Harvard made its report of three years ago, they found among all the preparatory academies one school, and one school only, where "the preparation of English was carried on in every other subject. The translations from other languages were carefully criticised for their English, and the geometrical propositions were often rewritten many times on account of poor English." It is impossible to believe that, in a school where the rule was that a certain portion of the translations to be made from Greek and Latin every day should be written out, a scholar could stand up before the class and read aloud from his paper such singular performances as those printed by the committee. Such grossly defective results would at once become apparent, and the necessary remedy would have to be applied.

When a scholar presents himself for admission to Harvard, the advantage he has, if he feels at home and thoroughly self-confident with a pen or pencil in his hand, is enormous. On the other hand, the position of the unfortunate youth who sits down for the great test without that necessary training and practice which enables him to express his ideas easily in his native tongue, is something to be imagined. There is a feeling of forlorn helplessness in the situation which has in it a decided element of pathos. For this his preparatory school is responsible. He is in a strange position; and the position need not be strange.

So far as rudimentary English at Harvard is concerned, the existing condition of things has now been set forth by the visiting committee of the Overseers in two reports—the elaborate report of three years ago, accompanied with lithographic facsimiles, numbered 28 in the series; and the more recent report, numbered 49. The mere printed reproduction of the students' papers in the latter report gives a very inadequate idea of the real facts. But the facts call loudly for reform; and the reform to be effective must reach down into the primary schools. That which should have been done six years before admission to Harvard is now attempted in the freshman year.

The visiting committee of the English department is at present considering what step next to take. As I have said, the mere printing of the students' papers does not suffice. The only way to furnish a clear and unanswerable object-lesson is that adopted by the committee in their report of 1892—the production of a body of facsimiles. The trouble is that so doing is cumbersome and expensive. Nevertheless, it—and it only—does set forth the cold facts in a way which admits of neither denial nor extenuation.

It is not improbable, therefore, that, in their next report, the committee will, as in the report just presented they intimate they may do, take the papers of all the scholars who present themselves from two, if not four, of the leading and best considered academies which prepare boys for Harvard, and submit those papers in facsimile and in full. Not impossibly, schools and academies will be taken whose scholars exhibit the best and the worst results, and so put them in contrast. However expensive and cumbersome such a publication might be, it would, in the judgment of the committee, amply repay as an object-lesson both the money and trouble it involved.

With such a possible test in view, it might be worth while for teachers having the English department in the preparatory schools in charge to give more than a cursory examination to the reports I have referred to as already made. I can supply them, and would be glad to do so; or both reports can be obtained from J. Bertram Williams, the College Publication Agent, at No. 2 University Hall, Cambridge.

I am, etc., CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

23 COURT STREET, BOSTON, October 28, 1895.

COLLEGE ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Report of the Committee on Composition and Rhetoric to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College, noticed in a recent issue of the *Nation*, does not locate the blame for "the lamentably low average of the English exercises" and of "the examination-books in which Greek and Latin were rendered into the native speech." It leaves the college, the schools, and the "system" to divide the responsibility as best they may. It seems to me that the committee fails to discover the quarter in which the chief, if not the sole, accountability should be fixed; and I am happy to quote in support of my opinion the always interesting and influential judgment of President Eliot. He has already publicly expressed this view; but, so far as I have noted, the significance of it has not been fully emphasized. In a letter to me, written nearly a year ago, he says (the italics are mine):

"I hope you do not suppose that I had any disposition to complain of or to criticise American schools because American boys advance more slowly than European boys. *It may be partly the fault of the schools; it certainly is partly the fault of the colleges; but I believe it is chiefly the fault of parents and of unfavorable conditions of American society.*"

Whatever applies to the general work of schools applies *a fortiori* to work in English: the latter will never be profitably done without an endeavoring interest that the pupil assumes his right to excuse himself from; beyond that, no "system" has any extenuation to offer.

I fancy few schools now claim that their pupils do or can attain "a terse elegance of English expression by translating orally Greek and Latin." Those that do are certain to stultify themselves, and gratuitously at that. Whether they do one or both, neither consideration has any bearing on the literal, word-for-word and order-for-order method of rendering. For purposes of accuracy, in an age when the varying and diffusive devices for procuring interest dissipate accuracy, it is almost the last recourse; for impressing the Latin movement that is to make Latin prose-writing a possible realization, it is indispensable; it is not intended or expected to teach English, which is, after all, not learnt, but at best merely practised, in schools; only this method must be treated as a means, not as an end, for those who get far enough to see the end. It is better to be accurate, if awkward, as far as you go than to be elegant and untrue; and "free, original, and idiomatic renderings" of schoolboys are sure to be too untrue even for the present modest demands in grammar.—Very truly yours,

CASKIE HARRISON.

THE LATIN SCHOOL, 145 MONTAGUE ST., BROOKLYN, N. Y., October 14, 1895.

LECTURERS AND COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The question discussed in your editorial on Lectures before Colleges is one that has frequently been considered in college associations. The parties that engage in the controversy are, broadly speaking, the denominational and the undenominational institutions. The former contend that one of the important functions of their faculties is to exercise an oversight over the morals of those who come to them for instruction; the latter, that an educational institution of high grade is neither a reformatory nor the custodian of the character of its students. We are told, moreover, that a student is generally a person of mature age; that he stands in the same relation to the laws of the commonwealth with every other citizen, and if he transgresses them he is to be treated just like any other criminal. Everybody knows that this is the status of the German student at the present time, and there is reason to believe that his morals are on the whole better than they were when he was subject to the police power of the university authorities. There are, of course, in all American universities teachers like Prof. Ziegler of Strasbourg who take a deep personal interest in the moral welfare of the students, but there are also many who do not. The assumption is, that the

young man who has not learned to obey the moral law by the time he is old enough to enter a university will never learn it, and the quicker he goes to the dogs, the better for the community at large. This is a practical application of the law of the survival of the fittest in the domain of ethics.

Students, especially those liberally supplied with money, are proverbially reckless. With their time largely at their own disposal, and without the restraints of the home or of some compulsory regular employment, they are prone to walk in forbidden paths. Those persons who make it a business to board and lodge students do so for the pecuniary considerations involved; and however much they may be incommoded by the bad behavior of their tenants, they feel that they cannot afford to offend them seriously and thus lose their patronage. There are doubtless cases, too, where patronage is quite as important to a college as it is to the keeper of a lodging-house, though there is reason to believe that at present very few of the former would hesitate to dismiss a disorderly student after the second serious offence.

Then, too, State universities are particularly liable to attacks for anything that may be construed into an infringement of the liberty of speech. If their students invite a dissolute or otherwise disreputable politician to lecture before them, and the faculty interferes, the outcry will at once be raised that this interference was prompted by political and not by ethical considerations. Questions of propriety and expediency, but especially of personal liberty, are so inextricably intermingled in cases of this sort that college authorities are usually content to let matters take their course as the easiest way to keep out of disagreeable notoriety. In our time, when the academic air is full of *Lernfreiheit* and *Lehrfreiheit*, when the students in a number of universities and colleges are not only allowed to study what they please, but even to elect whether they will study at all, it is hardly to be expected that the teaching corps of those institutions which seek the patronage of the larger public will be selected with much reference to the interest its members are likely to take in the moral welfare of those who come to them for instruction. We may soon witness the general adoption of a governmental code as laconic and simple as that which is said to be in force in a certain well-known American university: Students are prohibited from setting any of the buildings on fire and from killing any member of the faculty. CHAS. W. SUPER.

ATHENS, O., October 23, 1895.

FICTION IN THE BROOKLINE LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The note in your issue for August 22 (p. 134), beginning, "The head of the Public Library at Brookline, Mass.," was published while that officer was in Europe, and I have supposed this was the explanation of the fact (if it be so) that you have not been asked to retract the statement with which the note ends: "This library keeps in circulation a full line of the trashiest novels in existence."

I regret that no one authorized to speak for that library has protested against this extreme overstatement, but would like, at this late date, to ask you to do better justice to one of our most representative smaller public libraries, and so to the general practice of our libraries in the matter of fiction. It is simply untrue that the library (as represented in its catalogue of fiction under review in your note) keeps either "the trashiest novels in existence" or a "full line" of that moderately trashy fiction of which it has some representatives. The authors whose names, appearing in this catalogue, caught your eye and led to this sweeping accusation, are about four, viz., Mrs. Southworth, Mrs. Stephens, Mrs. Holmes, and "The Duchess." (If there are others whose names you think would better not appear in such a list, you would confer a real benefit upon our library fraternity if you would name them, and so help us in our efforts to get a consensus of the best opinion as to where we are to draw the line.) Now this quartet of women writers do confessedly write trash, but I submit that it is far from being the "trashiest kind in existence." And to call the seventy-four titles given under these names collectively (very much less than all their works) a "full line of the trashiest kind," approaches hyperbole of a dangerous sort. It may or may not be best for the public libraries to circulate any trash - on that point there are differing opinions among equally competent and well-meaning librarians and library directors. But that a catalogue which presents almost an honor-roll of writers of sound and wholesome fiction should, by its inclusion of so small a modicum of (I repeat, *not* "the trashiest") trash, bring such a library as that at Brookline under so severe a reproach as you have visited upon it, is, to use moderate terms, at least regrettable. W. I. FLETCHER.

AMHERST COLLEGE LIBRARY, October 21, 1895.

[It seems to be merely a difference of opinion between us and Mr. Fletcher as to what constitutes "trash." We did not say that the Brookline Library contained a majority of trashy novels, or that the greater part of its fiction was trash, but we maintain that it has the most trashy: we have always heard the works of Mrs. Southworth cited as the type, the extreme form, of trashiness. We noticed the presence of these books in the Brookline Library with surprise, because that town is much above the average in cultivation, having no very poor or factory population. The constituency of the Salem Library is, we believe, below that of Brookline in this respect, yet none of the authors referred to are represented in its catalogue (August, 1895), nor in that of Peoria, Ill. (1894), with a population nearly four times as great. We may add that we expressed no opinion as to whether "it may or may not be best for the public libraries to circulate trash."—ED. NATION.]

"DISCORDANT CHURCH UNITY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit a few remarks upon your editorial in No. 1582 (Oct. 24) with the above title? I would state in passing that the convention met in Minneapolis, not in Milwaukee, and that "the great debate," as it has been called, took place on a report from the standing committee on amendments to the constitution. Thus it was a radical change in the constitution of the church, and not merely the report of a special committee, that was rejected. It is not objection to the Prayer-Book that keeps members of other denominations out of the Protestant Episcopal Church. On the contrary, the use of the Prayer-Book constitutes the chief attraction for very many, as the increasing use of liturgical forms by other Christian bodies well shows. If church unity ever comes, it will come on the basis of liturgical worship.

You are, however, very right in saying that there is no great demand for such unity, and certainly, until the desire is aroused, the object cannot be attained. The discussion, able as it was, appeared to the undersigned purely academic and unpractical. As was well said by Mr. Biddle of Philadelphia, in his witty speech in opposition to the amendment, "it was a dream without its iridescence." Perhaps in the course of time it may become more than a dream. In the words of the sanguine author of the amendment, the distinguished rector of Grace Church, New York: "It might take twenty-five years, but it would come." For such a glorious result all Christian people will pray, and will be well satisfied if it comes in twenty-five years. JAMES M. GARNETT.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, VA., October 25, 1895.

THE DECORATION OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent complaint of disturbance to readers by sight-seers in the Boston Public Library is doubtless well taken from the student's point of view. But the mural decorations of this splendid building have, it appears to me, as well as the books, an educational mission. The pictures thrust and repeat the thrust of an unavoidable impression upon that large class who need, more than aught beside, to have their imagination stimulated or their complacent bourgeois conception of beauty and reality intimidated. No art museum accomplishes just this, because it reaches only those who intentionally seek its teachings. F. E. P.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., October 28.

Notes.

FURTHER announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are: 'The Gold Diggings of Cape Horn: A Study of Life in Tierra del Fuego and Patagonia,' by John R. Spears of the N. Y. *Sun*; 'Sketches from Concord and Appledore,' by Frank P. Stearns; 'The Evolution of Horticulture in New England,' by Daniel D. Slade, M.D.; 'The History of the Foreign Policy of Great Britain,' by Prof. Montague Burrows; and 'Cretan Pictographs and Præ Phœnician Script,' by Arthur J. Evans, keeper of the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford.

George H. Richmond & Co., 12 East Fifteenth Street, have in press for immediate publication a sumptuous edition of Henri Beyle's romance, 'La Chartreuse de Parme,' for the first time rendered into English. It will be in three volumes, with thirty-two etchings by G. Mercier, from designs by V. Foulquier, and an etched portrait of the author. The edition is limited, as is that of a 'Letter from Capt. Cuellar to His Majesty Philip II., dated October 4, 1589,' now first translated into English by Henry D. Sedgwick, Jr. Froude makes constant reference to this letter in his 'Spanish Armada,' and it is designed to be the first of a series of historical tracts relating to the Spanish Armada.

'The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages,' an important work by Hastings Rash-

dall, M.A., and 'Electric Wiring,' by Russell Robb, are in the press of Macmillan & Co.

Edward Arnold has nearly ready 'Studies in Early Victorian Literature,' by Frederic Harrison, and the first of a Pioneer Series of novels, 'The Demagogue and Lady Phayre,' by William J. Locke.

D. Appleton & Co.'s second list of autumn announcements includes 'Greenland Icefields,' by Prof. G. Frederick Wright; 'Movement,' by E. J. Marey; 'Pioneers of Science in America,' edited by Dr. W. J. Youmans; and 'Old Faiths and New Facts,' by W. W. Kinsley.

D. O. Haynes & Co., New York, have undertaken an imperial octavo, 'One Hundred Years of American Commerce,' under the editorship (or should we say the "protection"?) of Chauncey M. Depew. One hundred Americans will tell the patriotic story.

Thomas Whitaker will place on the American market a limited number of copies of a profusely illustrated work on the 'Episcopal Palaces of England.' The drawings are by Alexander Ansted.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish 'The Witness of Denial,' by Vida Scudder, and a new edition of George Eliot's novels in twenty-one volumes, 16mo, illustrated by photogravure.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will bring out directly 'Principles of International Law,' by Prof. Thomas J. Lawrence, lately of the University of Chicago.

William Doxey, San Francisco, announces "The California Authors Series," beginning with 'In the Sanctuary,' by A. Van der Naillen.

The London Bibliographical Society's forthcoming issues for the current year are five in number, namely, part ii. (and last) of vol. ii. of the Transactions, and part i. of vol. iii.; Mr. Ashbee's Iconography of Don Quixote; Mr. Duff's Hand-lists of books printed by Wynkin de Worde, Notary, R. & W. Faques, and J. Skot; and a facsimile of Ratdolt's Tradelist, by way of supplement to Mr. Redgrave's Ratdolt.

No more cheerful and solidly elegant volumes are within sight than the third and fourth of North's Plutarch's Lives (ninth and tenth of the "Tudor Translations" of David Nutt, London). We have already paid tribute to this admirable enterprise. We must report progress also in the case of two other beautiful series, the Dent-Macmillan Defoe, which makes two volumes of the Life of Colonel Jacque; and the Temple Shakspere, which now adds "Hamlet" and "King Henry VIII." Mr. Aitken summarizes the story of Colonel Jacque, which has to do with Virginia and negro slavery among other things, and appends two social pamphlets by Defoe which are a good deal more than padding, though they eke out the second volume. Take this passage from "Everybody's Business is Nobody's Business," which has been already appropriated for Dr. Murray's Dictionary, and will be quoted again there: "The next great abuse among us is, that, under the notion of cleaning our shoes, above ten thousand wicked, idle, pilfering vagrants are permitted to patrol about our city and suburbs. These are called the black-guard, who black your honour's shoes, and incorporate themselves under the title of the Worshipful Company of Japanners." Finally, we note the appearance of two more volumes in Mrs. Garnett's translation of Turgeneff's novels, namely, 'A Sportsman's Sketches,' or 'Annals of a Sportsman,' as an American edition has accustomed us to designate these short tales, full of the feeling of the open air, and charged with pictorial criticism of Russian institutions.

The Messrs. Putnam have surpassed themselves in their "Malta Edition" of Marryat's 'Midshipman Easy,' which is generously printed and very tastefully bound. Mr. Zogbaum's pen-and-ink vignettes are truly decorative; more so, to our thinking, than his full-page wash drawings. We get rather show than substance in the two volumes of Miss Porter's 'The Scottish Chiefs,' on which T. Y. Crowell & Co. have lavished a gaudy covering, with small regard to typographical comeliness.

Two miniature editions come to us from Oxford, on the famous thin paper of the University Press (New York: Macmillan). One is a six-volume set of Scott's Poetical Works in a neat box with its table of contents upon the lid. The type is by no means trying, even in the notes, and the manufacture throughout is eminently pleasing. The other is the *tour de force* of 'The Imitation of Christ' for the vest-pocket; a tiny volume, little more than an inch square, yet containing 576 pages.

In line with the Erasmus revival participated in by Mr. Froude among other scholars, is a reprint of Mrs. Anne Manning Rathbone's 'Household of Sir Thomas More,' which dates back to the beginning of the present half century. The American publishers of this pretty volume, open-lettered and illustrated with slight pen sketches and Holbein's drawing of the head of More, are Charles Scribner's Sons. The Rev. W. H. Hutton furnishes an introductory abstract of More's career, his religious affiliations and companionship, and does well to quote some apt and still timely remarks of his on the education of women: "It mattereth not in harvest time whether the corn were sown by a man or a woman; and I see not why learning in like manner may not equally agree with both sexes."

The same firm remind the public of the existence of Mr. Clarence Cook's 'The House Beautiful: Essays on Beds and Tables, Stools and Candlesticks'—articles to which the æsthetically minded still need, as eighteen years ago, to devote their attention; but the scope of this helpful work is much broader than is indicated by the sub-title. Mr. Cook's practical advice, assisted by numerous cuts, is conveyed in a literary style too rare in such a connection, and his book remains the tasteful product of the printer's art that it was originally.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have rolled into one illustrated volume Mr. George Cary Eggleston's 'American War Ballads and Lyrics,' which it is only necessary to remark go back to the colonial wars. The get-up is very pleasing.

To their enviable "Cambridge Edition" of the complete Poetical Works of Longfellow and Whittier, has just been added by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. the 'Poetic and Dramatic Works of Robert Browning,' brought within the compass of 1,000 pages, save for the poet's essay on Shelley printed as an appendix, the notes and illustrations. The type is necessarily small, but the press-work is excellently clear, and the convenience of this collection between two covers speaks for itself.

Mr. Noah Brooks has brought together in book form the entertaining articles on 'Washington in Lincoln's Time' which originally appeared in the *Century* (The Century Co.). Like all the work from the DeVinne Press, this attractive little volume is easy to read, with its large, clear type, good paper and press-work. The matter of the book is well worth its permanent form, for it is a vivid and faithful picture of the capital in war-time, as seen by a newspaper correspondent who had more than common facilities for seeing and hearing all that was made public, with occasional peeps behind the scenes. It is, besides, very well and clearly written, in English often terse and vigorous, and has a good many descriptions of persons and things that are worthy of a permanent place in the public gallery of portraits and historical scenes.

A small but comprehensive manual is Mr. Charles Collins's 'Greenhouse and Window Plants: A Primer for Amateurs' (Macmillan). In it may be found lists of plants suitable for various conditions indoors, and all the information that would be needed by an amateur in the cultivation of ordinary plants at home. In following directions here given, some allowance must be made by Americans for the difference between our climate and that of England. It is sincerely to be regretted that the author of so useful a little book died untimely before its publication—a fact mentioned in the preface.

The October number of the Norwich (Conn.) Library Bulletin includes in a list of American historical novels 'Personal Recollections of the American Revolution,' by Lydia M. Post, adding that Winsor mentioned the book as being what it purported to be, but that contemporary critics spoke of it as a fiction. On referring to the book, it seems that it was published in New York in 1859, and was "edited" by one Sidney Barclay, under whose name, with no suggestion that it is a pseudonym, Kirk chronicles the 'Recollections.' Neither he nor Allibone mentions Post, although Sabin in his 1868 volume gives Barclay as a pseudonym, with cross-reference to real name. Mr. W. M. Griswold makes the same omission in his 'List of Historical Novels' (1895). He quotes, however, a contemporary criticism which asserts that the book, though a good imitation of the style of the period described, was a fiction. The 'Narrative and Critical History of America' cites it twice, once as written by Barclay, once by Post. As the author's middle name was Minturn, it is probable that she was a daughter of Dr. Minturn Post, whose works Allibone mentions. The introduction of an editor (in this case "Barclay") was a common device to give *vraisemblance* to a work purporting to be a genuine record.

Dr. Schweinfurth has recently written to the *Zeitschrift für Aegyptische Sprache* to complain of the wanton and ruthless destruction of monuments and remains which is now going on in Egypt. His letter discloses a most painful state of things. Not much will be left, he says, after a few years of such ransacking as is now going on. Ignorant and careless explorers are pillaging whole cemeteries, digging up and throwing away many things which are really of great value, merely because they are not objects which would especially strike the eye of the visitor at the Gizeh Museum, or bring in much money to the dealer in antiquities if offered for sale to foreigners. No records of the discoveries are kept, not even such important ones as those which designate what objects were found together. Dr. Schweinfurth lays the blame for this vandalism not only upon the curiosity-dealers, but also, and heavily, upon the authorities of the Gizeh Museum. Ignorant natives are sent out to make excavations without any proper supervision; and, even in cases where trained Europeans are present, the work is often carelessly done. He urges that the Museum should give over further digging, at least for a time, and devote itself to the cataloguing and arrangement of its already vast collections, and to the preservation of such monuments as still remain intact.

We call the attention of students of the classics to an article of over fifty pages on 'Le

Navire *Argo* et la Science Nautique d'Apollonios de Rhodes,' which M. H. de la Ville de Mirmont, the French translator of the 'Argonautics' of Apollonius, contributes to the September number of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*. The author treats, with great fulness, of nautical matters so far as reference is made to them both in the work of the Alexandrian poet and in the Homeric poems as well. From the abundance of his erudition he sometimes throws new light upon disputed points, sometimes furnishes additional proof as to problems solved—as in the case of the Homeric πρότονοι, the forestays of the mast. Apollonius did not write for the public but for an élite of scholars; no such anachronisms as the Greek tragedians made use of to adapt themselves to an audience of contemporaries are found in his poem. He restores in its primitive form the ship of the 'Odyssey' and the 'Iliad.' Students of Homer can therefore not fail to be interested in M. de Mirmont's treatise.

Ever since the lamented death of Pasteur a very lively interest has been manifest in Paris as to who will be chosen to succeed the great savant as director of the Institute in the Rue Dutot. This is a question which can be decided only by the Board of Directors of the Pasteur Institute, a body made up in about equal numbers of men of science, like MM. Duclaux, Roux, and Brouardel, and laymen like M. Jules Simon and Baron James de Rothschild. It is not likely that there will be a meeting of this board before the close of the festivities of the centenary of the Institute of France. The general opinion seems to be that M. Duclaux will be chosen as director in the place of Pasteur, and that M. Roux will take his place as sub-director. M. Duclaux is the oldest sub-director of the Pasteur Institute, and has already on various occasions acted as director *ad interim*. He is a great savant, of extreme modesty, and well known to the scientific public by his works and discoveries, some of which were made in fields where Pasteur himself had won laurels. The names of MM. Bertrand and De Lapparent, mining engineers, and of M. Dufet, professor at the École Normale, are mentioned in connection with the succession of Pasteur as member of the Académie des Sciences. All three are authors of important works in mineralogy or physics.

Our note on p. 275, referring to Hodgkin's 'Italy and Her Invaders,' was not, as a correspondent reminds us, sufficiently explicit. Volumes v. and vi. of that work, recently issued, are not, as we seemed to imply, an amplification of an earlier edition.

In our review, last week, of "Recent Poetry," we inadvertently misprinted, on page 297, the name of the author of 'First Poems and Fragments.' It should have read *Philip* Henry Savage. We also neglected to credit Mr. Wharton's 'Sappho' to the Chicago publishers, A. C. McClurg & Co.

—A couple of years ago we noticed with some misgivings and many caveats a book published in London by a certain Dr. William Wright, 'The Brontës in Ireland; or, Facts Stranger Than Fiction,' in which the author not only professed to trace the history of four generations of Irish Brontës, but undertook to prove that the plot of 'Wuthering Heights' was founded on family history, and that the other Brontë novels had likewise an Irish origin. In the *Westminster Review* for October, the Rev. Angus Mackay finds it an easy task to show that this book is one of the most charming tissues of absurdities that have yet seen the light. One of the myths of Dr. Wright is his story of how Hugh Brontë, one of the brothers, set out, shillelagh in hand, to find and to chastise the *Quarterly* Reviewer who had traduced his niece. This interesting story naturally found its way into almost every newspaper in Great Britain, and it will probably continue to be told as fact for many a long year to come; in America, a variant upon it has been produced in which the hero of the tale is Charlotte's brother, Branwell, although this poor fellow was dead and buried before ever the *Review* article was written. Mr. Mackay has been able to show with perfect conclusiveness that this tale, in spite of its taking quality, is absolutely apocryphal. As to the main theory, there is nothing of it left, and the wonderful genius of Charlotte and Emily Brontë remains as inscrutable as ever.

—The Report of the Principal Librarian of the British Museum (London: Eyre & Spottiswoode) upon the progress of that institution during the year 1894 shows that many valuable additions have been made to the collections of printed books, manuscripts, prints and drawings, Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities, Greek and Roman antiquities, British and medieval antiquities, coins and medals, as well as to the natural-history collections. Of items that might be classed under the heading Americana the following were among the year's acquisitions: A "Manumission to a Manuduction," Leyden, 1615, by John Robinson, the chief promoter of the colonization of Massachusetts by the Pilgrim Fathers. Mr. Richard Garnett, the keeper of printed books in the Museum, describes this acquisition as being "absolutely unique." He further observes that "this tract has not hitherto been included in Robinson's collected works, as no copy could be met with." Among books enriched with manuscript notes, Mr. Garnett mentions a copy of Southey's 'History of Brazil,' given by the author to Coleridge, with the autographs of both, and marginal notes by Coleridge in the first volume. Another book so enriched is the American edition of Tennyson's 'Maud,' 1855, with the last stanza of the poem as now printed, which did not exist in the earlier editions, in the poet's handwriting, and preceded by the commencement of two cancelled versions; "proving," Mr. Garnett observes, "that it was there written down for the first time." Acknowledgment is made in the report of a presentation by Col. H. S. Olcott of Secretary Stanton's proclamation offering $100,000 reward for the apprehension of the assassin of President Lincoln. The Department of Coins and Medals acquired a rare brass medal of Admiral Vernon, 1739, with the inscription, "In Portobello there's not his fellow." It will be remembered that Lawrence Washington served under Admiral Vernon at Portobello, and that it was in admiration of his old chief that the young Virginian called his place Mount Vernon, leaving the property, on his death, to his younger brother George, as whose home it became famous throughout the world.

—"Propriété Littéraire" is printed across the broad back of the last volume issued of the encyclopædic "Pandectes françaises : Nouveau répertoire de doctrine, de législation et de jurisprudence" (Paris : Chevalier-Marescq & Cie.) ; but upon examination hardly more than one-third of the 847 closely printed quarto pages are found to relate to copyright, the remainder dealing with patents and designs. The protection accorded to the literary or artistic expression of a thought by copyright, and the monopoly of the use of an idea, through its practical application, intended to be secured by the law of patents, are so distinct in principle that they are hardly to be grouped together, except as both may be said to create property in intellectual productions. Practically, also, there are objections to the common habit of dealing with these two subjects in one book. Their commingling in the present volume is the more vexing to the copyright student because, after being saddled with so much material relating to patents, he is still obliged to supplement the literary-property matter by going to other volumes of the series to learn what is said concerning the protection of posthumous works, architectural productions, and dramatic copyright. More than eighty pages are devoted to international legislation and jurisprudence, but the Norwegian copyright act of 1893 is omitted, and no mention is made of the international copyright relations entered into by the United States in consequence of the Act of March 3, 1891, though the provisions of that law are stated. The French citations come down to the middle of 1893. A bibliographical index includes nearly two hundred French words relating to copyright and patents, but the titles are very much abbreviated; and as neither the places of publication nor the dates of issue are given, this material is almost useless. These shortcomings stated, it is to be added that no one desiring to obtain a thorough knowledge of the theory and practice of French jurisprudence relating to patent law and copyright can afford to be without this volume, which can be had separate from the series at a price of 25 francs.

—"A park in the open ocean"; "a garden in the sea"; "a bit of southern California anchored off shore"; "an isle of summer even in winter"—these are a few of the epithets bestowed by Charles Frederick Holder on Santa Catalina Island, in a little book of 125 pages named after its subject and recently published by C. A. Murdock & Co., San Francisco. Mr. Holder believes that as an all-the-year-round health resort Catalina Island has perhaps no equal, its climate lacking even the few changes of the mainland. In six years frost was seen but once at Avalon, the principal village on the island, and sea-bathing can be indulged in all the year round, which is the more remarkable since at San Francisco the ocean is too cold for a bath even in midsummer. Nor is its climate the sole attraction of this California island. At least 340 days in the year can be spent by the invalid out of doors; and if he is fond of mountains, flowers, hunting, and fishing, he has endless sources of amusement. There are numberless cañons to explore, and the list of plants growing on the island includes 512 species, 26 of which have not been found on the mainland. Quail-hunting on the mainland is not what it was ten years ago, but on Catalina these birds are as abundant as ever. The principal pastime, however, is fishing. At Avalon "the biggest man is he who catches the biggest fish," and Mr. Holder's chapters "On the Trail of a Jew Fish" and "Rod and Reel Fishing" give a good idea of the exciting nature of this sport. Nor is there a lack of food for the intellect. The Indians who inhabited this island when first discovered by Europeans appear to have been of a superior type, and although tons of their implements have been carried off, the explorer may still find many artistically shaped objects belonging to this mysterious people, who once had their villages in every cañon, subsisting on fishes and aba-

lones. It is only within the present century that some light was obtained regarding these early inhabitants, through the discovery of some papers in a library at Madrid, giving an account of the voyage of Cabrillo. The island has belonged successively to Spain and Mexico, which latter granted it to a Governor Pio Pico, who deeded it to Nicolas Covarubias, from whom it was purchased by James Lick. At present it is the private property of the Banning Brothers of the Wilmington Transportation Company, who are doing all in their power to make it a pleasant resort for tourists and invalids, while taking measures against the ruthless destruction of the animal life to which Catalina owes so much of its charm.

—According to the latest (forty seventh) issue of Prof. Ascherson's 'Deutscher Universitäts-Kalender' (Berlin: Simion), the whole number of persons attending lectures in German universities during the winter semester of 1894 '95 was 33,021, of whom 8,755 were in attendance at Berlin, 1,587 at Bonn, 1,350 at Breslau, 1,168 at Erlangen, 1,216 at Freiburg, 556 at Giessen, 843 at Göttingen, 775 at Greifswald, 1,643 at Halle, 1,230 at Heidelberg, 667 at Jena, 532 at Kiel, 737 at Königsberg, 3,112 at Leipzig, 852 at Marburg, 3,561 at Munich, 421 at Münster, 420 at Rostock, 980 at Strassburg, 1,184 at Tübingen, and 1,492 at Würzburg. At Berlin, however, the matriculated students numbered only 5,631, the remaining 3,724 being *Hospitanten*, or persons who had received permission to attend lectures without being enrolled as *cives academici*; at Leipzig there were 127 *Hospitanten* and at Munich only 86. In the law department (including cameralistics and forestry) there were at Berlin 1,667, at Leipzig 985, and at Munich 1,230 students; in the medical department (including surgery and pharmacy) at Berlin 1,220, at Leipzig 752, and at Munich 1,168; in the philosophical department (including philology, mathematics, etc.) at Berlin 1,660, at Leipzig 856, and at Munich 700. In theology, Halle still takes the lead, having 552 students, whereas Berlin has 484, Leipzig 392, and the Catholic universities of Breslau, Freiburg, Würzburg, and Munich have respectively 245, 215, 128, and 152. Münster, which is not a fully developed university, being in reality only a Catholic school of theology with a philosophical faculty attached, has 276 theological students. In the number of professors and tutors Berlin stands first, having 377, whereas Leipzig has 195, and Munich 171. Among the universities which are German in character, but not in nationality, Vienna holds the highest rank, with 6,714, of whom 2,158 are *Hospitanten*, and 350 professors and tutors; then come Graz with 1,552 students, Innsbruck with 1,008, Geneva with 784, Zurich with 783, Berne with 712, and Bâle with 527. The newly fledged and as yet merely nominal University of Lausanne registers 516 students, most of whom are no further advanced than the pupils of a German gymnasium.

A HISTORY OF EARLY ENGLISH LAW.

The History of English Law before the Time of Edward I. By Sir Frederick Pollock and Frederick William Maitland. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1895.

THE period covered by these volumes is that of Kemble's 'Saxons' and the earlier portion of Reeves's 'English Law,' the age of Glanvil, of Bracton, of the establishment in England of a legal profession and of many legal institutions, practices, and habits of thought which have survived to the present day. With Edward I. begins the long series of our law reports, and the reign of the "English Justinian" has always been regarded as marking the opening of a new legal era. To give life and meaning to the legal history of the two centuries succeeding the work of the Conquest, has involved not merely an examination of hundreds of early records to interpret which a special education is required, nor of a library of books, modern and ancient, authentic and unauthentic, for the use of which a special training of the judgment is necessary. For the work done here an ear for the meaning of words and terms of art as delicate in its way as that of a musician, and an historical imagination and sympathy strong enough to enable one not simply to conceive of a state of society and law wholly different from ours, but of attitudes of mind and habits of feeling and reasoning wholly at variance with ours, have been needed. Sir F. Pollock, in a generous note to the preface, says that "by far the greater share of the execution" belongs to Mr. Maitland, and to those who are familiar with the latter's writings in legal periodicals, his hand in the work will be readily apparent.

It is difficult to speak of the book in terms which will not seem exaggerated. It is a genuine mine of information and monument of patient and accurate research. To review or criticise it in detail is out of the question; the critic would first need to devote a lifetime to the examination of the materials out of which it is made. It will be more to the purpose to give a brief account of the manner in which the authors deal with certain points of general interest. To convey an idea of the scope of the work we may say that it deals with Saxon law, Norman law, and incidentally with Roman and canon law, with primitive law generally, with the English law of property, contract, and person in the early Middle Ages, with ownership and inheritance, with family law, crime and tort, and with procedure. In the very inadequate review to which we must limit ourselves, our object is not to criticise, but rather to call attention to the character and interest of a work the most important of its kind which has yet appeared in English. It should be said that the book embodies the results of the latest researches not only of English and American, but of Continental scholars also.

The authors do not go into constitutional or political history, but the opening chapters are, nevertheless, of very general historical interest. They deal with the meaning and effect of the Norman Conquest as regards private law. With regard to the period before the Conquest they call attention to the fact that the manners, dress, and dialects of our ancestors are far better known to us than their laws. We are accustomed to regard law as something permanent and prescribed, preserved in books and handed down from generation to generation, ascertainable beforehand by means of study, and modified as occasion may arise by legislation; it is certain that this was a conception wholly foreign to the mind of the early inhabitants of England. The great body of Anglo-Saxon law consisted of traditional custom (vol. i., p. 2), Germanic in nature and origin, the "dooms" issued by English princes from time to time not having been promulgated with any idea of constructing a body of law. The glimpse that we get in these pages of the Saxon period shows us many features with which we are familiar as belonging to later times (the Norman Conquest did not destroy the Saxon world, but rather developed it in a new way) and many that are common to other primitive societies. There is first the free man and the slave; and of free men some are lords, while the rest are followers or dependents of lords. The family is "the joint family or household which is still an integral part of Hindu and South Slavonic life." We must conceive of kindred, "not as an artificial body or corporation to which the state allows authority over its members in order that it may be answerable for them, but as an element of the state prior to the state itself" (p. 7). The power of the state, however, is increasing; in the tenth century, by drawing upon the forces of three counties, it is able to bring an offending member of a powerful family to justice. The blood-feud, a purely family custom, is in full force, and, perhaps owing to that respect for women which from the time of Tacitus has been noticed as a Germanic peculiarity, runs on the mother's as well as on the father's side.

Preëminence is accorded to men of noble birth. A noble by birth is an "eorl," the ordinary freeman a "ceorl," the thane is a sort of country gentleman attached to the household of a great man (every one is follower or slave of some greater man) with a definite legal rank, so that the sum fixed as the price of his death, to be paid to his kindred, is six times as great as in the case of a common man (p. 10); his oath is more valuable also. A keen eye for exchangeable value seems to have distinguished the mind of our race from the earliest times. Foreigners are amused when we, nowadays, speak of a man's being "worth" so much. It is a very old habit, but in the tenth century it had a more literal meaning: a "twelve-hundred man" or "two-hundred man" meant a man whose death would cost respectively twelve hundred or two hundred shillings. Civil and ecclesiastical authority are sadly confused: the bishop, for instance, sits in the county court (p. 17); it is enough to say that, the clergy being the educated class (outside the church, writing and books are unknown), legislation, the direction of justice and government in general, are to a great extent in their hands. "Probably we owe it to the Church that Anglo Saxon law has left us any written evidences at all" (p. 11).

Slavery approaches the slavery of the Roman law. Serfdom is "much more of a personal bondage, and less involved with occupation of particular land," than after the Conquest (p. 13). A lively slave trade is carried on through English ports, and, what is probably an illustration of one of the leading primitive causes of slavery, free men enslave themselves in time of distress as a means of subsistence. Nevertheless, the practice of manumission exists, and a deep-rooted antipathy to slavery is shown by the clergy; we hear of Wulfstan, Bishop of Worcester, who held his place through the Conquest, going to Bristol in person and putting down the trade between that port and Ireland.

Courts of justice, as we know them, do not exist. To understand the condition of things, we must imagine a still earlier society in which the state plays no part, and redress for wrongs is obtained by the strong arm. The effort of the state as it becomes organized (the King originally being the state) is to do away with this method of redress, and not only to provide justice, but to compel people to settle their differences in court rather than outside of it. In Anglo Saxon times, this process has not gone very far; in fact, there are no obvious means of compelling obedience to a legal summons, and a large part of the law consists of provisions for the conduct of suits when the

parties make default. This carries us back to the earliest times, when the jurisdiction of a court depended upon the consent of the parties (p. 14) Public courts are held in the open air, private courts in the house of the lord.

As to the substance of the law, that of property consists almost entirely of unwritten custom and local usage. The law of contract is so rudimentary as to be barely existent, for there is hardly any foreign trade, business is transacted by word of mouth with neighbors, there is no system of credit The only rules of law that are fully and explicitly stated relate to killing, wounding, and theft, chiefly cattle stealing. As wrongs of this sort are much older than either kings or state, we should anticipate that, even in Anglo-Saxon times, offences against the latter would be distinguished from the former, and so they are; but the procedure in the two cases remains substantially the same till within a century of the Conquest.

All procedure is archaic and based entirely on form. "Mistakes in form were probably fatal at every stage" (p. 15). In other words, the substance of a controversy is not the rights or injury involved, but the form in which it is stated. Difficult as it is to imagine the attitude of mind which renders such a conception possible, it is no easier to comprehend the primitive view of proof. The Anglo-Saxon oath is not simply a means of affecting the witness's conscience ; it is proof in itself. An oath duly made is conclusive, and the oath is not to specific facts, but to the claim or defence as a whole (p. 15). The number of oaths required depends on the nature of the case and the rank of the persons concerned.

As law consists mainly of custom, all questions of property and most questions of justice are local. Private jurisdiction is common, and the county court and hundred court suffice for most purposes. The "King's justice" is exceptional, and is not to be invoked until local justice has failed. If some powerful lord interferes with the administration of justice locally, the King may be called in, but instead of his being recognized as the "fountain of justice," the royal intervention is exceptional, and resembles rather a descent upon rebels than process of court.

As to land-tenure in Anglo-Saxon times we have little information, but we know that it was not feudal. Land is either book-land or folk-land, the former consisting of what we should call royal grants to bishops and religious houses or to lay nobles (p. 37). Folk-land in all probability means the bulk of the land held by unwritten customary right, and what this was we do not know. In the grant by book the authors see the germ of the coming feudalism. It is a grant of lordship and revenues, perhaps of jurisdiction and its profits; but as it is a grant in what we call fee-simple, the distinguishing mark of feudal tenure is wanting On the whole, though it may be true that Anglo-Saxon civilization would sooner or later have produced a feudal system, what seems certain, on the evidence here brought forward, is that the determining factor in the production of the system of law known to us as English was the Conquest. "The Norman Conquest is a catastrophe which determines the whole future history of English law" (p. 57). And yet here, as elsewhere, it is the unexpected which happens. The result is not Norman, nor French, nor Continental. It is a new government, a new language, and a new law, each quite different from any other in existence.

Strange as it may seem, we have fewer contemporary materials for a knowledge of Norman law than we have of Anglo-Saxon. The authors are so averse to generalization that they object to the word "feudal" as descriptive of the system which grew up in England under the Normans, because feudalism covers several centuries of history and many very different countries. Nevertheless, whatever it be called, medieval tenures in England cannot be said to have existed among the Saxons. With regard to immediate differences the evidence shows, first, that the invaders were French, and brought French laws, language, and ideas with them; second, that Norman law was feudal—that is, that the invaders brought the theory of dependent tenure with them, as well as the idea of seignorial justice, to say nothing of ordeal by battle. Money compositions, the *wer* of the Saxons, seem to have been unknown to them—in other words, they had advanced beyond this primitive conception of punishment, which is clearly connected with that of family, tribe, or kindred; while they had in the Inquest a simple but strictly probative inquiry into matters of fact, the germ not only of trial by jury, but of rational as distinguished from superstitious methods of proof. Finally, and, considering the times, the fact is significant, themselves soldiers and men of action, they knew the value of uniform law. The conqueror's right-hand man was Lanfranc, the great lawyer of Pavia, traces of whose Italian training are believed to be still visible in the pages of Domesday Book.

The foregoing may serve to give some slight idea of the earlier chapters. To go more into details, let us take trial by jury. Is there anything new to be learned about it? We have long known that the primitive jury was not at all the body that we know, and it has been the fashion to say that whereas now jurors constitute a special tribunal of fact and pass upon the credibility and probability of testimony offered by the parties, they were formerly witnesses. Now a witness is a person who comes into court and testifies to a fact. On points which we call points of law he is not allowed to open his mouth. Yet nothing is clearer in the early cases than that the jury was relied on to settle questions of law. In the Year-books the verdict takes the form of question and answer ; and such questions are asked as, Which of the two has the greater right to Blackacre, William or Hugh? or, What damage has A done B? The jury answer, "William," or "Hugh," or "100 shillings," as the case may be. What the authors say about trial by jury seems to explain the whole matter. Before the introduction of the jury, there was in England practically no notion of proof as we understand it, and, what is more, law consisted of local custom, which could be proved only by local evidence. The right of William or Hugh to Blackacre, for instance, would depend on facts within the knowledge of persons living in the neighborhood, and the right would be known to them and nobody else. Consequently, if proof by ordeal (or multiplication of oaths, which was the method in force in the Saxon world) was to be supplanted by a rational method, one of the first steps would naturally be an inquiry of those locally cognizant of the facts as to what the facts were. They would therefore be witnesses, but they would often be witnesses to what we call law as well as to fact. The machinery for this inquiry the Normans had in the Frankish Inquest, and it is among the smaller surprises of which this book is full to find it laid down as pretty well settled that the origin of the palladium of our liberties is "not English but Frankish, not popular, but royal" (vol. i., p. 121).

To turn to a question of procedure, a very interesting account of the "forms of action" makes many points clear, though suggesting, of course, questions which the authors do not answer. Whatever the origin of the Writ may be, the only way to understand a medieval action is to bear in mind that while to us the right or injury involved in a controversy is the main thing (and a large portion of our reports consists of discussions of the nature and extent of rights and injuries), these considerations nine centuries ago were practically unimportant. Injuries were few and simple, rights were governed by custom; the great question was one of relief. Could relief be had? Now what the Chancellors of the first English Kings appear to have done is to have devised a royal writ for any form of wrong that was brought to their notice. It is generally said that the common law provided a vast number of fixed forms of writs for interference with real property, and had only one, that of trespass, for almost every other kind of complaint. The facts given here (vol. ii., ch. ix.) seem to make it quite clear that what actually happened was that writs were invented as fast as they were needed, and that at one time writs multiplied until nearly every possible form of complaint or demand had been put into this form. If the writs at a given period could be all brought together, we should have a complete codification of the law of the time. The writ, therefore, did not represent originally a spirit of formalism, but of constant innovation. The formalism is seen when we come to inquire what takes place after the writ is issued. Then we find that the plaintiff, having selected his form of action, must stick to it. He cannot make a general complaint and let the court determine afterwards what the action is. The golden age of these forms may be regarded as one of progress; at a later date we find an entirely new process going on. Writs can no longer be invented; to give a new right of action, Parliament must be resorted to, or else the judges by means of fictions develop one form of action out of another. Why the change should have taken place we do not know, but it is obviously a mistake to imagine that the writ represented that sort of rigid formalism which we associate with the early Roman law. As the authors say, "Let us not be impatient with our forefathers." It was through their determination not to allow judges to do what they pleased with actions that the English race escaped the system of the civilians and canonists, which was later to prove a ready weapon for tyrants. It is the boast of the modern law-reformer that he has swept away form and put in its place substance; and yet in these pages a time is revived when Form was the "twin sister of Liberty."

Fingerprint Directories. By Francis Galton, F.R.S., D.C.L. Oxford, and Hon. S.C.D. Cambridge. Macmillan. 1895. Pp. 127.

In his former book Mr. Galton has convinced his wondering readers that the total number of different fingerprints in the world—that is, the patterns in which the papillary ridges in the bulbs just below the tips of the fingers are disposed—is very great indeed; so great that there is less than one chance in four that any one finger should ever find in the whole wide world another finger to match it exactly. He has also made it plain that these markings of the finger-tips do not vary with age; in none

of the many cases examined after an interval of years was there any change, with one exception, that of a child of two years, on whose finger at the age of fifteen two little ridges had fused into one. And nothing is easier than to take the impression: a copper plate is smeared with a thin smooth layer of printer's ink, the fingers are pressed firmly upon it and then upon a piece of paper, and the thing is done. It is evident that this extraordinary individuality in the tips of the fingers furnishes a sure means for the identification of criminals—far surer, even, than Bertillon's system of measurements. In practice (for the method is already in practice in England), the impressions of all ten fingers are taken, to make assurance doubly sure, and there is then no possibility of not being able to recognize a given man by his markings after any interval of time. It is wholly inconceivable that two persons should show coincidence in the prints of two or three, not to speak of ten, fingers. The method is therefore simplicity itself as a method of *proving* identity, and incomparably more certain than personal recognition or identification by photograph.

It was a very different question how far it could be used for the purpose of *tracing* identity; that requires a classification of finger-prints, and it might easily have happened that they did not readily lend themselves to classification—that they had exhibited interminable intermediate gradations, as do the individual members of a heap of broken stone by the road-side, instead of falling into distinctly marked families, or groups, as do the natural kinds (to use the logician's term) of the animal or vegetable world. The fact that they do not constitute a continuum is what gives them a superiority over Bertillon's measurements as a means of identification. It is to the explaining of his method of effecting this classification that Mr. Galton's present volume is devoted. It turns out that there are three *types* of pattern, to one or the other of which every finger-print may be referred—namely, the papillary ridges may be arranged in *arches*, *loops*, or *whorls*, and this characteristic alone, combined with the fact that there are ten fingers instead of one, and that the several fingers vary independently, is sufficient to subdivide the class of English criminals into some 60,000 groups (the tenth power of three), containing each an easily manageable number of types, which can then be discriminated from each other by the examination of several minuter forms of difference. A man's description might then be

w l l a a w a l ,

which means (in the order which will hereafter be adopted) that the little finger of his left hand presents a whorl, the ring-finger a loop, the middle finger a loop, and so on. By this means the time required to see whether a man who has just been arrested has already left his finger-marks in the criminals' card-catalogue is reduced to a few minutes. It is true that very many of the possible types do not occur, and some occur with disproportionate frequency, but the method has none the less shown itself to be a perfectly practicable one; it was hit upon only after many other seemingly possible schemes had been rejected.

Society owes to Mr. Galton a due meed of gratitude for having put into its hands, as the result of much patient labor, one more weapon to be used in its long fight against the criminal classes. At sixty-three English prisons finger-prints are now taken by trained wardens and forwarded to a central bureau for classification by experts. There would seem to be every reason why the system should be introduced into other countries as rapidly as possible.

Municipal Home Rule: A Study in Administration. By Frank J. Goodnow. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

PERHAPS there was never a time when a deeper interest was felt in the government of our cities, and the title of Prof. Goodnow's book will doubtless attract many readers. But it is only fair to warn the public that there is nothing "popular" in the methods of investigation and presentation adopted in this treatise. It is essentially a law-book, and large parts of it will be found quite unreadable by the laity unless they are animated by a most determined spirit of inquiry. All attempts at reform in municipal government, Prof. Goodnow contends, "must of necessity depend upon an accurate delimitation of the sphere of action which can, with due regard to the interests of the State as a whole, be assigned to our municipal organizations." This is so because of the intimate connection of municipal with State government, and this connection must be thoroughly understood before we can determine what is feasible in the way of improved city government.

The American municipalities are by origin and development different organizations from the municipalities of Europe. In that continent the origin of local self-government is to be found in the old feudal idea of the autonomous rights of the cities. Every one knows the great part played by these semi-independent communities in the Middle Ages; but it is perhaps commonly supposed that the development of centralized administration in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries extinguished local autonomy. Prof. Goodnow points out that this is an erroneous view, and that, after the French Revolution, the principle came to be recognized that municipal corporations had a sphere in which they could act free from all central control. The relation of the general Government to the municipal governments is similar to that of the Government of the United States to the States. The presumption is in favor of municipal competency, and the central administration can interfere only where it has express authority. In America the case is reversed, and it may be laid down as a general rule that none of our cities has any self-governing capacity except such as is expressly delegated to it by constitution or statute.

This feature of our system is in the main due to English precedent. The English cities have had no such careers as those of the Continent, and their influence in English political history is of recent date. The incorporation of municipal boroughs in the time of the Tudors had the purpose and effect of enabling these bodies to own property, but gave them very limited governing powers. The corporations formed under these charters consisted of a small number of citizens, and their incapacity for efficient administration of public affairs, as well as their political corruption, has been proverbial. For a long time the tendency was to create additional administrative bodies for special purposes, as new wants were developed; but during the last half-century the whole system, or muddle, as it might better be called, has been reconstructed. We cannot consider the details of this process, but the general result has been to create genuine local legislatures with administrative powers, subject to the supervision in certain lines of national boards of commissioners; and this result is commended to our favorable consideration by Prof. Goodnow.

The American municipal organization consisted in the first place of a municipal council, which discharged nearly all the functions of government. By way of improvement this council came to be organized as a bicameral body, and as a further check to misgovernment the mayor was made independent of it. Then followed the changes demanded by the spirit of democracy; the extension of the suffrage leading to the election by the people of pretty nearly all the principal administrative officers. The reaction from this state of affairs led to the investment of the mayor with enlarged functions, giving him, as Prof. Goodnow says, "a plenitude of power which is unexampled in the aristocratic society and monarchical governments of Europe." This form of government, however, he regards with disapprobation, because it has not so far been very successful, and because foreign municipalities have secured better government by a different system. But as he seems to ignore the fact that foreign municipalities are not governed by universal suffrage, we cannot assume that we have only to imitate their institutions to obtain their success.

The complications arising from the control of the administration of municipal affairs by State legislatures have been infinite, and the attempts by constitutional restraints to remedy the mischiefs so resulting have not succeeded. Prof. Goodnow examines at length the cases arising under the prohibition of "special legislation," and devotes much space to the decisions that have defined the liability of municipal corporations for tools and for the management of their property. His analysis and comparison of these decisions is very thorough, and has much interest for lawyers and students of political institutions; but it is altogether too technical to be considered here, and, indeed, most of it might have been omitted without injury to the writing of the treatise. It would have been sufficient for the author's argument had he stated the principles recognized by the courts without summarizing the cases, although, of course, the method that he has followed is more satisfactory from the legal point of view. The chief points that he makes are the necessity of withdrawing matters of purely local concern from the control of the State Legislature, while retaining State control in affairs of general interest. The distinction and its difficulties are well illustrated by the agitation concerning the excise laws which is now prevailing in New York. According to Prof. Goodnow, it would not do at all to permit cities to manage their own affairs without some State control, but this control he proposes to limit to such things as are of public importance, and to commit its exercise to central boards of administration, as has been done in the case of State boards of health, education, etc. In short, he proposes to introduce something of the centralized administration against which De Tocqueville warned us. This change in American policy is too momentous to be examined in this review, and we will confine ourselves to remarking upon the changes wrought by time in the political doctrines inculcated at the college where Lieber thundered against bureaucracy.

The Silva of North America: A Description of the Trees which grow naturally in North America, exclusive of Mexico. By Charles Sprague Sargent, Director of the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University. Illus-

trated with figures and analyses drawn from nature by Charles Edward Faxon. Vol. VIII. Cupuliferæ (Quercus). Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THIS sumptuous treatise progresses steadily, on substantially the lines marked out by Prof. Sargent in his introduction. Following the generally accepted sequence of the natural orders of flowering plants, the work has now reached in its development the interesting family to which the oaks belong. To the fifty species of this genus growing north of Mexico, and to a few hybrids between certain species, the present volume is devoted.

Of the system of nomenclature adopted by Prof. Sargent it is not perhaps necessary to speak at this time, further than to express again what has been embodied in the notices of the earlier volumes, namely, the belief that the system greatly impairs the permanent value of the whole work. But, this kept out of view, one can have only words of praise for the pages of illustration and of text now before us. The proportions in the letter-press have been well kept, and most of the illustrations are even more satisfactory than those which have preceded them in the earlier orders.

A treatise like this must, from the nature of the case, consist of at least three threads in the strand. There is, first, the plant-portrait with analytical details. It is this which imparts to the treatise, if the work is thoroughly well done, as it is here throughout, a high degree of value which cannot diminish as the years go by, although so much else in science becomes obsolete. Mr. Faxon's fidelity to true morphology, his remarkable insight into recondite matters of structure, and his artistic feeling as well as skill, place all the eight volumes easily in the first rank. It should be said in passing, that the reproducers of Mr. Faxon's work have not fallen off from their early excellence. In some of the plates there is a decided improvement. Perhaps attention should also be called to the fact that the superb plates in this volume exhibit many characteristics displayed by the trees in their winter state. The second thread of the strand consists of the systematic descriptions, which are, of course, mainly verified amplifications of the details presented by the many botanical authors who have first studied the species in question. But with them must be incorporated the results of more recent investigations, and the whole coördinated. While a final decision as to the success attained in this must be reserved until the descriptions have been subjected to actual trial at the hands of students, it can now be said that the difficult task appears to have been well done. The third of the factors referred to is less important in itself, but it goes a long way towards making such a work of immediate interest, and that is the matter of general information. Almost all trees have interesting peculiarities; these characters have been happily seized on by Prof. Sargent and felicitously treated. Nomenclature aside, therefore, we have only commendation for the volume. It remains to be seen whether the appearance of biographical sketches of living botanists given freely as footnotes will have the effect of stimulating or of repressing botanical research.

As generally limited, the genus Quercus, or Oak, comprises not far from three hundred species, of which about fifty occur in North America, north of Mexico. Our species are grouped rather naturally into the white oaks, more than half the whole, and the black oaks, which, with one anomalous species, make up the rest. White-oak acorns, taking the term white oak in its large sense as signifying a class, have very little or no downiness on their inner surface, while the other group is characterized by the presence of a surface which in some cases is velvety. Besides these obvious characters, there are certain distinctions between the classes which mean a good deal to botanists, such as the number of the stamens, the length of the styles, and the position of the abortive ovules. But when one comes to the divisions of the two classes themselves, it is necessary to make use of the fact that some of them ripen their fruit in one year, while others take two; after this division, one has to employ the leaves to obtain further characters. Veining, shape, and surface all have to bear their part in furnishing distinguishing characters. Leaves are variable at best, and oftentimes most puzzling, but in the genus Quercus they are fairly constant in shape and lobing. Hence Mr. Faxon's faithful delineations give trustworthy standards, which cannot fail to settle some disputed points. And, too, his excellent drawings of bare twigs will enable the very impatient, who cannot wait until next summer for the leaves to appear on their oaks, to make a shrewd guess as to the species in hand.

Those who would construct the family tree of oaks out of the existing fragmentary evidence in the strata of tertiary or earlier formations have concluded that the genus had its origin with the chestnuts far to the north, and that possibly it has seen its best days. But the wide range of the three hundred surviving species, and the innumerable uses to which the valuable trees may be put, stimulating man to cherish and even cultivate certain sorts, indicate sufficiently that the oaks are far from being really decadent.

Advance Japan. By J. Morris. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

WHETHER Mr. Morris, who has been in the employ of the Japanese Department of Public Works, means the first word of his title to represent a verb in the imperative mood or an adjective qualifying the noun—with the suggestion of a letter dropped at the end of a participial form—might puzzle a grammarian to decide. His full title is "Advance Japan: A Nation Thoroughly in Earnest." The work reminds us of a snap-photograph of a procession. It is the literary picture of the Japan of 1895. The style is that of a writer for an encyclopædia, and the chapters are broken up into paragraphs with headings, each of which in bold-faced type names the subject treated of below. The author gives us more than four-score modern illustrations (besides some capital charts and outline maps), which are reproductions mostly of photographs, in various degrees of artistic merit. He uses the best authorities, though he quotes or gives credit to none. His statements are therefore as accurate and as pragmatic as an engineer's notebook. Traces of literary beauty are few, and there is no index. The book is, however, a superb campaign document in questions of British foreign politics. It will handsomely supplement Messrs. Curzon and Norman's proofs that Japan is well worthy of being an ally of Great Britain.

This is the book to read for information, for it is an excellent example of the literature of knowledge. The clearness and thoroughness with which Mr. Morris has digested, distilled, and decanted a whole library of books on Japan is such as will exasperate the unquoted authors and ignored investigators, while delighting the busy reader. History, geography, language, manners and customs, communications, etc., etc., are tersely described in the genuine style of the staff writer on a dictionary. In the last four or five chapters the author's diction warms appreciably, for when he pictures armaments and narrates the story of the Chino-Japanese war, he tells about that of which he was part. Being much in the interior, he knew the men who made soldiers, as well as their machines and methods of engineering and transportation. The account of the war operations is accurate, as well as clear and detailed, and, with the illustrations, forms probably the best existing digest of what was, in reality, an eight-months' strife between Japan and the two or three only (of the eighteen) Chinese provinces interested.

Like almost all the men who have come into closest contact with the Japanese, Mr. Morris believes that they are not a people "prone to content themselves with a mere veneer of scientific culture." Despite his evident lack of acquaintance with the moral forces making the new Japan, he believes that "relapse is impossible." He finds in the Japanese exactly that quality which Orientals are popularly supposed to lack, and which he calls "mental ballast." He says: "Unlike other Asiatic peoples, they preserve their equilibrium under all conditions, are thoroughly practical, persevering, and sincere." To which verdict, after twenty-seven years of close acquaintance with the Japanese, we say "Amen!"

Though vastly more than a tourist, Mr. Morris is not a scholar, for he translates the title of the retired *kuambaku*, or regent Taikosama, as "Great General." To an American who knows that Townsend Harris was the first and real maker of the treaties and the opener of the ports of Japan, the credit awarded to Lord Elgin (p. 126) seems either a joke or an illustration of the way some Englishmen write history. Almost as a matter of course, Mr. Morris uncritically accepts the prehistoric chronology of the native fabulists and myth-makers, which was invented a thousand years or so ago. Except a few slips like these, the seeker after facts will not be disappointed in this book.

The Natural History of Aquatic Insects. By Prof. L. C. Miall, F.R.S. With illustrations by A. R. Hammond, F.L.S. Macmillan & Co. 16mo, pp. 389, figs. 116.

THIS volume is a contribution of more than ordinary value toward the growing demand for information concerning the habits and life histories of the insect world. The author is Professor of Biology in Yorkshire College, Leeds, and is evidently one of the class not contented with serving simply as an instructor; he is also an investigator and an earnest student of nature. While the purpose in view in the preparation of this volume is modestly announced as a desire to revive an interest in the writings of certain old zoölogists, as Réaumur, Lyonnet, and De Geer, the work contains several studies which are obviously new, illustrated with drawings made by the author or under his supervision. As one of these, we would cite the chapter on *Simulium*, or the black fly, in which is told (although by another writer) how the fly which lives in its larval and pupal stages beneath the water, when in readiness to assume its final winged form is released from its pupal case enclosed in a bubble of air, which, when reaching the surface, explodes, at the same time spreading out the limbs of the fly so that it can run upon the water until it finds some solid support where its wings may expand

and dry and fit it for flight. To those of us who knew the black fly only as the terror of the Adirondacks and of some of the Southern States, it will be a surprise to learn that "in Britain the flies of *Simulium* are perfectly harmless."

It will also be a surprise to most of the readers of this volume to find how much of interest is connected with a study of aquatic insects, differing so greatly as they do from those which ordinarily come under our observation. It will be quite new to learn of their number. Instead of there being a single family of "water-bugs," representatives of most of the orders in their early stages are to be found in the water, even the caterpillars of moths, larvæ of ichneumon flies, and grasshoppers. The author maintains that an aquatic life has been acquired by insects Originally they were all terrestrial Later, "both fresh and salt waters have been successfully invaded by insects." The successive steps by which this has been accomplished is shown in the varied habits of the *Tipulidæ* (crane-flies), etc. The larvæ of some of these live in dry soil, others in moist earth near streams. Some live immersed in soft mud or water, but come to the surface for air; while, finally, there are those which obtain their entire supply of oxygen from the water.

There are many interesting features in this volume to which attention might properly be called, but it may suffice in this brief notice to commend its careful reading to those who desire to know more of the life of nature in its infinitely varied forms. The book is worthy also of a place, for reference use, in the libraries of working entomologists.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, A. V. The Electrical Transmission of Energy. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.50.

Abbott, C. C. A Colonial Wooing. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.

Alger, Horatio, Jr. Adrift in the City. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.

Anderson, Rasmus B. The First Chapter of Norwegian Immigration (1821—1840): Its Causes and Results. Madison, Wis.: The Author.

Arnold, Sir Edwin. The Tenth Muse, and Other Poems. Longmans, Green & Co.

Baring-Gould, W. D. Fallacies of Race Theories as Applied to National Characteristics. Longmans, Green & Co.

Balfour, F. H. Cherryfield Hall: An Episode in the Career of an Adventuress. Putnams. $1.

Barr, Mrs. Amelia E. Bernicia. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25

Bird, H. E. Chess Novelties. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.

Black, Alexander Miss Jerry. Illustrated. Scribners. $1.

Bloundelle-Burton, John. The Desert Ship. F. Warne & Co. $1 25

Boldrewood, Rolf. The Crooked Stick; or, Pollie's Probation. Macmillan. $1.25.

Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. Famous Leaders among Women. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.

Boothby, Guy. A Bid for Fortune. Appletons.

Boutwell, G. S. The Constitution of the United States at the End of the First Century. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co $3.50.

Brightwen, Mrs. Inmates of My House and Garden. Illustrated. Macmillan. $1.25.

Brown, Rev. John The Pilgrim Fathers of New England and their Puritan Successors. F. H. Revell Co. $2.50.

Buchan, John. Sir Quixote of the Moors. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.

Buchanan, Robert, and Murray, Henry. The Charlatan. F. T. Neely.

Buehler, H. G. Practical Exercises in English. Harpers.

Burnett, Mrs Frances H. Two Little Pilgrims' Progress: A Story of the City Beautiful. Scribners $1.50

Byng, A. H., and Stephens, S. M. The Autobiography of an English Gamekeeper. 3d ed. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams $1.

Callaway, Miss Frances B. Charm and Courtesy in Letter Writing Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.

Carey, Rosa N. My Little Boy Blue. F. H. Revell Co. 30 cents.

Carr, J. C. King Arthur: A Drama. Macmillan. 75 cents.

Champney, Mrs. E. W. Witch Winnie at Versailles Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Chatterjee, Bankim Chandra Krishna Kanta's Will London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.

Crittenden, L. E. Abraham Lincoln's Speeches. Dodd, Mead & Co $1 25.

Church, Rev. R. W. The Beginning of the Middle Ages. Macmillan. $1 50.

Coleridge, S. H. Anima Poetæ. From the Unpublished Note-Books of S. T. Coleridge. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.

Cook, Clarence. The House Beautiful: Essays on Beds and Tables, Stools and Candlesticks. New ed Scribners $2.50

Dodd, Rev. William. The Beauties of Shakspere. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.

Donahoe, Rev. Thomas. The Iroquois and the Jesuits. Buffalo: Catholic Publication Co.

Dougall, L A Question of Faith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co $1.25.

Earle, Mrs. Alice M. Colonial Dames and Good Wives. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Eggleston, G. C. American War Ballads and Lyrics. Putnams. $1.50.

Elliott, E. S. A Day's Time Table. F. H. Revell Co. 30 cents.

Flory, M. A. A Book about Fans. Macmillan. $2 50.

Ford, P. L The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. VI. Putnams.

France, L B. Over the Old Trail: A Novel. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.

Fean, G. M. Cormorant Crag: A Tale of the Smuggling Days. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Ferguson, James, and Fergusson, Robert M. Records of the Clan and Name of Fergusson, Ferguson, and Fergus. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

Finley, Miss Martha. Elsie's Journey on Inland Waters. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Fox, John, Jr. A Cumberland Vendetta, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.

Gardner, Prof. Percy, and Jevons, F. B. A Manual of Greek Antiquities Scribners. $4

Garnett, Richard. William Blake, Painter and Poet. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] Macmillan.

Gibson, W. H Our Edible Toadstools and Mushrooms, and How to Distinguish Them. Illustrated. Harpers. $7.50.

Gore, Rev. Charles. Dissertations on Subjects connected with the Incarnation. Scribners. $2.50.

Grant, Robert. The Art of Living. Scribners. $2.50.

Grant, Robert. The Opinions of a Philosopher. Scribners. $1.25.

Grant, Robert. The Reflections of a Married Man. Scribners. $1.25.

Geikie, Cunningham. The Apostles: Their Lives and Letters. [New Testament Hours.] James Pott & Co. $1.50

Granville, Margaret. The Summer Heart. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents

Graves, Prof F. P, and Hawes, E. S. A First Book in Greek. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.

Gregory, Prof. Emily L. Elements of Plant Anatomy. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1 35.

Guerber, Miss H. A. Contes et Légendes. Part II. American Book Co. 60 cents.

Guerber, Miss H. A. Stories of the Wagner Operas. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Hare, Augustus J. C. The Gurneys of Earlham. 2 vols. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $6 00.

Harris, J. C. Mr. Rabbit at Home. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.

Harris, J. C. Uncle Remus, his Songs and his Sayings. New and revised ed. Appletons. $2.

Hewlett, Maurice. Earthwork out of Tuscany. London: Dent; New York: Putnams. $1.75

Hill, Rev. Thomas. The Postulates of Revelation and of Ethics Boston: G. H. Ellis.

Hocking, Joseph. "All Men are Liars." Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.

Holbrook, Dr. M. L. Physical, Intellectual and Moral Advantage of Chastity. M. L. Holbrook & Co. $1.

Hope, Anthony. The Chronicles of Count Antonio. Appletons $1.50.

Horsburgh, E. L. S. Waterloo: A Narrative and a Criticism. London; Methuen & Co.

Howells, W. D. Stops of Various Quills. Illustrated. Harpers. $2.50.

Hudson, W. H. British Birds. Longmans, Green & Co.

Humphrey, G. H. The Law of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and Other Prominent Ecclesiastical Bodies. 4th ed. James Pott & Co. $1.50.

Hutchinson, William. Handbook of Grasses London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.

Hutton, Barbara. Castles and their Heroes. Whittaker. $1.

Hyde, M Carrie. Goostie, Yan and Nochie of Tappan Sea. Boston: Roberts Bros. Each 50 cents.

Hyde, M. Carrie. Under the Stable Floor: A Christmas Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.

Jack, S. T. How He Does It. Chicago: M. J. O'Neill.

Jones, Alice I. Beatrice of Bayou Teche. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.

Jowett, Benjamin. College Sermons Macmillan. $2.

Jowett, B., and Knight, M. J. A Selection of Passages from Plato for English Readers. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50

Kent, Rev. William. Substantial Christian Philosophy. New York: J. B. Alden.

King, Horatio. Turning on the Light: A Dispassionate Survey of President Buchanan's Administration from 1860 to its Close. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.

Kipling, Rudyard. Out of India. G. W. Dillingham.

Lawson, Sir C. The Private Life of Warren Hastings. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.

Lee, Susan P. A School History of the United States Richmond, Va.: B. F. Johnson Publishing Co. $1.50.

Lenthéric, Charles The Riviera, Ancient and Modern. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams.

Loudon, W. J., and McLennan, J. C. A Laboratory Course in Experimental Physics. Macmillan. $1.90.

Lyall, David. A Wastrel Redeemed. F. H. Revell Co. 30 cents.

Macdowall, A. B. Weather and Disease. London: Graphotone Co.

Maclaren, Ian. A Doctor of the Old School. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.

Martin, E. S. Cousin Anthony and I. Scribners. $1.25.

Matthews, Brander. His Father's Son. Harpers. $1.50.

Maud, Constance. Wagner's Heroes. Edward Arnold.

McClellan, Mary. Vanna. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.

McLean, Allison. Paul Heriot's Pictures. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.

Merriman, H. S. The Sowers: A Novel. Harpers. $1.25.

Molesworth, Mrs. The Carved Lions. Illustrated. Macmillan. $1.

Molesworth, Mrs White Turrets. Whittaker. $1.

Montorgueil, Georges The Three Apprentices of Moon Street. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.

More, Sir Thomas. Utopia. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24 cents.

Morgan, Prof. M. H. Eight Orations of Lysias. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.

Murray, George. An Introduction to the Study of Seaweeds. Macmillan. $1.75

Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Depravate—Development (Vol. III.). Fee—Field (Vol. IV.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. Each 60 cents.

Muzzarelli, Prof. Antoine. The Academic French Course. American Book Co. $1.

Myers, Prof. Philip Van Ness. A History of Greece for Colleges and High Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co.

My Honey. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

North, Sir Thomas. Plutarch's Lives. Vols. III. and IV. London: David Nutt.

Norton, C. L. Jack Benson's Log; or, Afloat with the Flag in '61. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.25.

Nyne, Atey. Wilmot's Child. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.

Oman, Charles. A History of England. Edward Arnold.

O'Grady, Standish. The Chain of Gold: A Boy's Tale of Adventure on the Coast of Ireland. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Parkhurst, Rev. C. H. The Swiss Guide. F. H. Revell Co 30 cents.

Peek, Hedley. Skeleton Leaves. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co.

Pendleton, Louis. In the Okefenokee: A Story of War Time. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.

Perry, Prof Bliss. Scott's Woodstock. [Longmans' English Classics.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.

Petrie, W. M. F. Egyptian Decorative Art. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Putnams.

Phelps, Elizabeth S. Gypsy's Cousin Joy. New ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 50.

Phelps, Mrs. E. S. A Singular Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.

Plympton, A. G. Dorothy and Anton. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

Porter, Jane. The Scottish Chiefs. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.

Potter, Rev. E N. Washington a Model in his Library and Life. E. & J. B. Young.

Pulitzer, Albert The Romance of Prince Eugene. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.

Pyle, Howard. The Garden behind the Moon. Scribners. $2.

Pyle, Katharine. The Rabbit Witch, and Other Tales. E. P Dutton & Co. $1.50.

Raleigh, Prof Walter, Robert Louis Stevenson. Edward Arnold. $1.

Richardson, Ralph. George Morland, Painter, London (1763—1804). London: Elliot Stock.

Ripley, F. H., and Tapper, Thomas Natural Music Reader. Primer and Five Parts. American Book Co.

Ritchie, A. D. Molecules and the Molecular Theory of Matter. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2

Rod, Lily L. Pierre Puvis de Chavannes: A Sketch Boston; L. Prang & Co. $1.

Romanes, G. J. Darwin, and After Darwin. Vol. II. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.50.

Romanes, G. J. Mind and Motion and Monism. Longmans, Green & Co.

Roy, Neil. The Horseman's Word: A Novel. Macmillan. $1 25.

Russan, Ashmore, and Boyle, Frederick. Through Forest and Plain: A Tale of Flowers and Filibusters. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.

Russell, Prof. I. C. Lakes of North America. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.65.

Sanders, George A. Orations, Addresses and Club Essays. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.

Scott's Poetical Works. [Oxford Miniature Scott.] 6 vols. T Nelson & Sons $7.

Skrine, F. H An Indian Journalist. Calcutta: Thacker, Spink & Co.

Shattuck, William. The Keeper of the Salamander's Order. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.

Sherman, L. A. Science of the Soul. Port Huron, Mich.: Sherman Co.

Sizer, Nelson. How to Study Strangers by Temperament, Face and Head. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.50.

Smith, C. S. Fifty Selections from Valerius Maximus. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 25 cents.

Smith, Mary P. W. A Jolly Good Summer. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.

Steadman, E. C. A Victorian Anthology, 1837—1895. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co $2.50.

Steel, Mrs. F. A. Red Rowans. Macmillan. $1.

Stephens, W. W. The Life and Writings of Turgot. Longmans, Green & Co.

Stevenson, R. L. Novels, Travels, Essays and Poems. Thistle Edition. 16 vols. Scribners. $32.

Stoddard, Rev. C. A. Cruising among the Caribbees. Scribners. $1.50

Streatfeild, R. A. Masters of Italian Music. Scribners. $1.75.

Sue, Eugene. The Wandering Jew. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.

Sunday Reading for the Young. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.25.

Swett, Sophie. Cap'n Thistletop. Boston; W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.25.

Tait, Prof P G. Dynamics. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan $2 50.

Taylor, Eliza D Little Bet: a Sketch. James Pott & Co. 35 cents.

The American Digest, 1895. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.

The Favorite Book of Beasts, Birds and Fishes. T. Nelson & Sons 50 cents.

The Journal of Countess Françoise Krasinska. Chicago: A. C McClurg & Co. $1.25.

The Poetical Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson. Juvenilia. The Lady of Shalott, and Other Poems [People's Edition.] Macmillan. Each 45 cents

The Silver Fairy Book. Illustrated. Putnams. $2.

The Veil of Liberty: A Tale of the Girondins. London: A. & C Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.

Van Dyke, Rev. Henry. Little Rivers: A Book of Essays in Profitable Idleness. Scribners. $2.

Van Dyke, Rev. Henry. The Story of the Other Wise Man. Harpers $1.50.

Washburn, H. S. The Vacant Chair, and Other Poems. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.

Watson, Prof. John. Hedonistic Theories from Aristippus to Spencer. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.

Way, Arthur, and Spencer, Frederic. The Song of Roland London: Nutt; New York: Macmillan. 40 cents.

Wilson, Prof. E. B., and Leaming, Dr. Edward. An Atlas of the Fertilization and Karyokinesis of the Ovum Published for the Columbia University Press by Macmillan & Co. $4.

Wingate, C. E. L. Shakspere's Heroines on the Stage. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.

Winter, William. Old Shrines and Ivy. New ed. Macmillan. 25 cents.

Wolfe, Theodore F. A Literary Pilgrimage among the Haunts of Famous British Authors. Philadelphia: J. B Lippincott Co. $1.25.

Wolfe, Theodore F. Literary Shrines: The Haunts of Some Famous American Authors. Philadelphia: J. B Lippincott Co $1.25.

Wooson, Constance F. Mentone, Cairo and Corfu. Harpers. $1.75.

Wright, Henrietta C. Children's Stories in American Literature, 1660—1860. Scribners $1.25.

Zola, Emile. A Love Episode. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 7, 1895.

The Week.

It was only the very sanguine who looked for a victory for good government in this city on Tuesday. There were no city offices to be filled. The real trial of strength with Tammany will not come off till the mayoral election of 1897. It is in that year that we shall find out finally whether the reform sentiment which worked so powerfully for good has held firm. Tammany's highest vote this year is 122,000. Last year it was 112,000. Here is a gain of only 10,000 votes. The accessions of 10,000 German voters on the excise issue would account for all this increase. Nobody doubts that there were more than double that number of accessions. A generous estimate of the thick-and-thin Tammany vote this year is 90,000. This is only a little more than a third of the total vote cast, which was about 242,000. It is the old story. The people of the city have allowed a minority of their number to get the upper hand of them in an election. Several thousand German voters helped directly to put Tammany in the front by voting for its candidates, but Tammany would have been defeated had not a much larger number of voters, who took the trouble to register, refrained from voting. The total registration was 281,000, and the total vote was not much over 242,000. Nearly 40,000 voters, for reasons known only to themselves, had interest enough in the election to register, but lost that interest before Election Day arrived. Undoubtedly many of them chose abstention from the polls as the best method by which to express their disapproval of the enforcement of the excise law. They could not bring themselves to the point of voting directly for Tammany; neither could they bring themselves to the point of voting in favor of the American Sunday. A large number of other voters came to a similar conclusion about the relative merits of the Fusion and Tammany tickets. When professed reformers told them that one was little better than the other, and that it was really a choice between Platt and Croker, they decided that they would not vote at all.

There were some notable victories elsewhere for the cause of good government. The reëlection of David B. Hill to the Senate on the expiration of his present term is rendered impossible by the Republican success in the State at large. In Maryland the bell has begun to toll for Gorman also. It has already tolled for Brice in Ohio. These two men wrecked the Democratic party when they joined together to defeat the Wilson bill in the interest of the Sugar Trust. Gorman has met his first serious defeat in the rejection of his candidate for Governor of Maryland, and in the assured election of a Republican Senator in place of Gibson, who is his echo and *alter ego* in the Senate. Brice is certainly defeated for reëlection. It was loudly proclaimed before the election that if Campbell were successful in Ohio, he would be the Democratic nominee for President next year; and this peril has been averted. If the later returns confirm the reported election of Bradley in Kentucky, that will be fitter cause for rejoicing than the defeat of Hill, Gorman, Brice, and Campbell all together, since it will be the death-knell of the silver faction in the Democratic party. It is not necessary to say that when silver ceases to be a nightmare of the Democrats, it will cease to disturb the dreams of the Republicans also. The far-Western Senators who have been taking on such airs during the past two years, will become as humble and submissive as any other needy office-seekers when they can no longer gain anything by abandoning their own party. The defeat of Hardin in Kentucky will be a sure sign that the Democratic party, neither in the campaign of next year nor in any future campaign, is to be a silver party; and this will be a boon to the country beyond measure.

His own State has "gone back on" one of the leading Jingoists of the country. When Secretary Herbert recently decided that the bid of a Michigan firm for building a war-ship could not be accepted because our treaty with Great Britain forbids the construction of such vessels on the great lakes, Don Dickinson came out with a "ringing" demand that our Government should not be restrained by a little thing like a treaty, and an ingenious plea that we might get around the prohibition by building parts of vessels, but not the whole, in his State. The people of Michigan, however, are not inclined to run the slightest risk of disturbing the present arrangement with Great Britain, even in order to gratify one of their own statesmen. The Detroit *Tribune* points out that, if our Government should take up the Dickinson idea, Great Britain would undoubtedly regard the action as an infraction of the agreement and terminate the treaty, as either party has a right to do. It would be folly, the *Tribune* holds, to give Great Britain the slightest excuse for withdrawing from the bargain, since "all the advantages of the arrangement are on our side," and "it is a mighty fine bargain for us as it stands." Nine-tenths of the lake shipping belongs to this country, much of it could be quickly made available for war purposes in an emergency, and within a week of the outbreak of war the whole Canadian shore would be at its mercy, while our military advantages are equally obvious, and we could effectually block the entrances to the lakes against the war-vessels of England. The prosaic conclusion of the *Tribune* upon the Dickinson outburst is that, "however little we may care to please Great Britain elsewhere or in other matters, the jingoest of Jingoes, if he be intelligent, must hesitate to give her the slightest cause for uneasiness in this." Meanwhile, the President has sustained Secretary Herbert.

The Treasury deficit of $6,500,000 for October was expected. Last October it was $13,500,000. For the four months of the fiscal year now elapsed, receipts are behind expenditures to the amount of $16,000,000. This would indicate a deficit at the end of the year of $48,000,000. But no such figure is likely to be reached, as the returns from customs show a steady increase, the excess of the four months this year over last being upwards of $10,000,000. Still, there is little or no chance of income balancing outgo by next July. Whether more revenue will have permanently to be provided is a matter for nice calculation. With a net cash balance of $87,000,000 now in the Treasury, the probable deficit for two years could be comfortably faced under ordinary Government financing. But our Government financing is fearfully and wonderfully extraordinary, with its demand notes outstanding to the amount of four times the gold on hand to redeem them. This is the nightmare of the Treasury officials and of the business world. The question how to get the Government out of the banking business must keep pace with the question how to put the Treasury in funds.

There is some preliminary chatter at Washington about an investigation by Congress of the bond-syndicate operation of last February. It is to be hoped that any members of Congress who think there is political capital to be made by airing that matter again may be gratified. Every fact that it is possible to know except the names of the associated bankers—that is, of those who came in after the Belmont-Morgan party took hold—is already known. It is known exactly what they paid for the bonds and what they sold them for, and what the present market price is. It is known also that the Government might have saved upwards of $16,000,000 on the transaction if Congress had been willing to make the bonds payable specifically in gold. If anybody is deserving of impeachment for matters connected with it, those members of Congress who voted in the negative on this question are the ones. Nevertheless, they all ought to have their curiosity gratified. If there is to be such an investigation, it

ought to be undertaken soon. The opportunity for blather will be very great, and it will be a public advantage to know early in the session who the new blatherskites are.

The Georgia Governor's vigorous condemnation of lynching is only one of many expressions showing a growing sentiment in the South against mob rule. From the newspapers in Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee, and Texas there is a chorus of appeals to the people to make legal methods paramount in the treatment of criminals. The old attitude of regretting the necessity of Judge Lynch has given place to expressed opinions that in no case is lynching justifiable. It detracts somewhat from the appreciation of the motive underlying these expressions of sentiment to be told, by the Knoxville *Sentinel*, that the change is due to "the recent examples of the extent to which the barbarism of lynch law may be carried." When the victim of the mob was only hanged, and when only one crime came within the jurisdiction of the lynchers, then "public opinion sanctioned the summary vengeance of the mob," to quote the Memphis *Appeal*. But now, when "men are lynched for crimes which are not capital felonies," and when mutilation of the victim's body "is a common practice," it is time for the law—still quoting the *Appeal*—to cease to "divide its jurisdiction with the mob." It is only fair to say, however, that the majority of the Southern newspapers rise to a higher moral level in their condemnation of the mob, and in their support of the law for the law's sake.

Through the influence of Senator Tillman a section has been inserted in the draft of the new Constitution for South Carolina declaring that each township in the State "shall constitute a body politic and corporate," and empowering the General Assembly to create additional townships and to provide a system of township government. As was indicated by the debate in the Constitutional Convention, the adoption of this section looks to the introduction in South Carolina of the New England system of town government. The experiment will be watched with interest. By many, the New England town government is regarded as indigenous to the soil, as a manifestation of the spirit of the Puritan settlers, finding expression in home rule for the little communities and in the production of the first written constitution emanating from the people. In South Carolina the conditions have been radically different. There has been more of the autocratic tendency in a system under which appointments of county officials have been made at the capitol, the active interest of the citizens in local affairs lying dormant. The strongest arguments in the convention in favor of the adoption of the township system were that better local officers would be secured, better schools and roads would be provided, more economy would be exercised in the handling of the public funds, and a higher class of citizenship would be developed through the town meeting. The system is to be applied at first only in counties where the negro voters do not predominate, and with a suffrage requirement of one or two years' residence in the township.

The State Grange of California is loudly calling upon the American Protective Tariff League to come on. It sets forth the following facts as the basis of its cartel: The League requested Bro. David Lubin of Sacramento to contribute to its funds. Lubin sent on $1,000, to be paid over when an impartial committee should decide (a) that the present system of protection is just to farmers, or (b) that a bounty on agricultural exports would be inequitable as long as there is a protective tariff on imports. The League declined to claim the money under these terms. On September 4, 7,000 farmers, at a Missouri harvest home, submitted the same "issue of principle" to the Hon. William McKinley. He made no reply. Now, therefore, comes the Grange and demands that the League give a categorical answer to its questions. No dodging will be allowed, as copies of the demand have been mailed to both the President and the Secretary of the League. We trust that Lubin will not let up on the League, and will continue to flourish his $1,000 check until he gets his answer or compels the League to come over to his position and advocate a bounty on exports.

The Cleveland Chamber of Commerce has set a good example by adopting a resolution protesting against the tendency to prolong the Presidential campaign; declaring that the time intervening between the conventions of the two great parties and the election should be shortened from six months to three; and requesting the national committees, "in the interest of the commerce of our country," to consider earnestly the desirability of fixing a late date for the holding of the conventions. This question has been much discussed during the last few weeks, and an overwhelming majority of the newspapers of both parties have come out in favor of a short campaign. There can be no doubt that the press reflects the sentiment of business men, but it is most desirable that this sentiment should find expression in action such as has been taken at Cleveland. The resolutions adopted by the Chamber are to be transmitted to representative commercial bodies throughout the country, and a general expression of opinion from such organizations ought to have some effect upon the politicians who compose the national committees.

The *Tribune* tells us that a Reed dinner took place at the Brunswick Hotel week before last, at which a number of prominent politicians from various parts of the country were present. The phrase Reed dinner means a dinner to promote the nomination of Thomas B. Reed for the Presidency by the Republicans next year. It is said that an attempt was made to work such a dinner at the Arlington Hotel in Washington, last May, but that, when the diners came together, a considerable number of them failed to harmonize on Mr. Reed, or, as the *Tribune* report puts it, "The McKinley sentiment was so strong that no direct pledge from all present could be secured." This shows the necessity of sounding your diners before they come to the table—a precaution which was observed in the present instance, thanks to the discernment of Mr. Samuel Fessenden of Connecticut. Mr. Fessenden succeeded in bringing together Senator Matt Quay, Mr. Thomas C. Platt, Mr. Thomas H. Carter of Montana, Chauncey I. Filley of Missouri, and other politicians of note to the number of ten. Their substantial agreement in favor of Reed being assured, they next considered the ways and means to make their desires effective. The first step was to secure the right place for holding the convention. Upon this point the *Tribune* account says:

> "Joseph H. Manley, chairman of the executive committee of the Republican national committee, and one of the most adroit Reed boomers in the country, is in California. He was at the meeting, however, in spirit. He went to California, it is asserted, to feel the pulse of the Pacific Slope and see how that region would take the nomination of Mr. Reed. It is said to be his advice that the Republican national convention be taken to San Francisco, with the understanding that the West stand with the men who bring it there to secure the nomination of Mr. Reed. That is what was talked of and what was done at the dinner at the Brunswick. Those who recognize in the men who were present the anti-Harrison combination of 1892 will wait to see whether they will be successful or not."

It seems to us that altogether too much publicity has been given to this dinner for the good of the candidate. The people, as a general rule, do not like to see the Presidency disposed of by ten or a dozen men in dress coats, sitting around bottles of champagne, in a fashionable New York hotel. Mr. McKinley, if he is wise, will tell his dozen of boomers to take their dinner in some quiet rural community, wash it down with hard cider, and smoke pipes after the repast. Then if the affair should get into the newspapers, it will look much better than this Brunswick Hotel Reed dinner.

Sir Henry Tyler, the well-known English railway expert, writes a letter to the London *Times* from Panama on the subject of the renewal of work on the Panama Canal. This letter, contrary to the prevailing opinion in England and the United States, and contrary to the preconceived opinions of the writer himself, expresses the belief that a canal on the plan now proposed, beginning where the Lesseps company left off, can be com-

pleted for a sum not exceeding $100,000,000. Not only so, but he believes that the money will actually be found by the French investors, who already have so much of their capital in the work that they cannot afford to let it lapse. Sir Henry did not visit Panama for the purpose of examining the works, but was en route to Peru on other business, and he remained on the Isthmus long enough to inspect them and to look over the plans. He found 1,500 men actually at work, and 800 more under contract to begin as soon as they can be brought from Jamaica and other West Indian islands. He was informed that the number would be increased to 4,000 as soon as the right kind of laborers could be found. It is to be hoped that Sir Henry's conclusions are well founded. The only object of a canal is to pass loaded ships through the Isthmus. If the French people, who have already spent $290,900,000 according to the official report of the liquidators, are willing to spend $100,000,000 more, we ought to thank them. Undoubtedly there is a considerable infusion of French national pride in the renewed attempt to join the oceans at Panama, but that does not harm us in any way.

Two canals, however, are not wanted in that quarter of the globe at present. If the Panama Canal is to be completed within six years for $100,000,000, we do not need to spend an equal sum on the Nicaragua Canal. It would, of course, be helpful to those who have already put money into it if the United States Government would either advance the money for finishing it or pay them what they have already spent. If the French company is really going on, with a prospect of completing its work, it would be cheaper for us to reimburse the Nicaragua Construction Company and stop there than to build another canal. In fact, public opinion will not tolerate the spending of public money in a foreign country for anything so visionary as a duplicate waterway from the Atlantic to the Pacific. There is a large amount of Jingoism enlisted in the Nicaragua enterprise, but it will evaporate very fast if the ships of the Old World are not under the necessity of using the Nicaragua Canal at all.

Just before the unexpected fall of the French cabinet, a good deal of significant talk was heard in France about the need of "concentrating" political groups and factions and really setting up a system of party government. M. Goblet, for example, made a speech at Toulouse on October 19, in which he drew a vivid picture of the imbecility of the present system. It is only a question of the time any given Prime Minister will fall. His only way of getting a majority is to placate a certain number of "groups" with offices and other governmental good things. But from their very nature, by the inner law of their being, such groups will not long stay placated. One of them finds that another is getting more sub-officials or getting into more syndicates than itself, and then there is a cry to heaven. Bones must be flung its way, or the ministerial majority will disappear. But sooner or later the supply of bones gives out, and down goes the ministry. This is a wretched and nerveless system of government, says M. Goblet truly, and the aim of France should be to form two great parties in Parliament and the nation, by which something like cohesiveness and stability could be secured. For his part, he would have the Radicals and Socialists of all shades make a beginning by coalescing. This union would force other factions to unite, and thus in the next election voters would have a choice between two parties instead of being perplexed by the appeals of a dozen. Such a political consolidation is, no doubt, most desirable, but it is certain that it will not come for the first time of asking. Leaders in control of a tight little group of parliamentary votes are not going to give up their power and perquisites without a fight. It is all very fine to talk of "concentration," but they will beg leave to point out that concentration means suicide for them. Already, in fact, the Socialists have declined M. Goblet's proposals with marked coldness.

Unhappily, there is not much use in discussing the prospects of the new French cabinet. It will probably, in a few months, or it may be weeks, furnish one more proof of the impossibility of tacking on the British cabinet system to democratic institutions. Its failure was predicted at the outset by the best observers, and it may now be said to have occurred. The British system of electing ministries by the Legislature could succeed only where party ties are strong, where it has also strong traditions behind it, and, above all, where the members of the Legislature are not paid. The payment of members in a country like France fills the Chambers with small men, the great body of whom are in some way "on the make," or eager for favors of some sort. It is therefore impossible for any ministry to keep on good terms with them very long, and when they get vexed with the Minister, they also try to "get even" with him. The system would break down very soon, even in this country, where the party discipline is extremely rigid. No Minister, elected by Congress, would be long in office without creating a clique of enemies, who would determine to "have his scalp" on the first opportunity, if all that was necessary to turn him out of office was an adverse vote on almost any question that came up. Every one who listens to the denunciation of the cabinet, for the time being, by Congressmen in Washington every year must feel thankful that its tenure depends on the President. The evil is aggravated in France by the fact that public opinion in the provinces does not concern itself in the least with the quarrels of the politicians in Paris. What most concerns the French people outside of Paris is the administration, and this is very strong, efficient, and regular under all ministries. Consequently, the masses toil and spin and save and take their "consommations" in almost complete indifference to the Parisian crisis. In fact, the evanescence of the ministries has now become a popular joke. "What an inn the Ministry is," and "I always come to Paris when my father is Minister," are two of the pleasantries in recent popular plays, and they bring down the house. In fact, as long as the Chambers do not propose to fight Germany, the only power that could conveniently invade France, the provincial public takes but little interest in their proceedings. The best thing that can be said for the existing régime is that it is, on the whole, about as good as if not better than any that have preceded it.

M. Bourgeois pledges himself to enact a bill prohibiting members of either Chamber from holding positions as directors in companies having contract relations with the state. Such a measure might easily become law, as everybody would feel bound to vote for it, and no corruptionist would find it at all hard to get around it. Members of Parliament who have been paid for their legislative services to corporations by being made directors, would simply have to take their fees as counsel, conciliators of public opinion, or in some other guise easy to assume. To pass in England such a law as the one proposed in France would vacate half the seats in Parliament, and no one would think of suggesting it. The difference is, of course, the difference between a Parliament made up largely of a wealthy and leisured class serving without pay, and one composed mainly of needy local politicians and country lawyers, paid, but poorly paid, and trained to look upon a political life as the way to make a fortune. There is a marked English sensitiveness about directors in public office, but it relates purely to members of the ministry. Some three-score directorships were held by members of Lord Salisbury's Government when appointed to office. Mr. Balfour, when questioned about it in the Commons, laid down the rule that was to be followed. No member of the Government was to be allowed to hold a directorship in any company that might have legislative favors to ask, or a directorship the duties of which would consume time that properly belonged to the public service. As a consequence of this rule, fully half of Lord Salisbury's directors in office promptly severed their connection with their companies. This was enough to still the mutterings of the most savage radicals.

THE REAL MISCHIEF OF JINGOISM.

SOME of the wretched Jingoes declare that we calumniate them when we say they are seeking to drag us into war. They declare there will be no war; that they never meant to go to war; that what they are doing is preserving what we must call an attitude of manly asininity towards foreign powers, especially Great Britain. But no rational person ever supposed that the issues of war or peace were in their hands, that they could open hostilities with anybody, or that they would ever themselves be caught within five hundred miles of a battlefield. They are no authorities on any subject of either national or international concern. Nobody minds what they say about the right or wrong of any international dispute. What we accuse them of is active hostility to American civilization.

In the first place, they try to destroy the influence of the last eighty years of international peace by preaching the barbarous European doctrine that war is a noble and inspiring national occupation, no matter what its cause or aims; that a nation can be elevated by slaughtering great numbers of young men and laying waste vast tracts of country, and by practising on an immense scale and for a considerable period the highwayman's doctrine that might makes right. In the next place, they make it difficult for the officers of the Government to approach any international question in a spirit of legality or justice, by producing the impression that the public will consider any such spirit a sign of meanness and want of patriotism. In the third place, they degrade us and make us ridiculous in the eyes of the civilized world by opening every controversy with epithets and abuse, so as to make our diplomacy look like a row between a bartender and a lover of free drinks.

In other words, they powerfully reinforce the influences which are to-day tending to barbarize the United States, and against which good men and women are everywhere fighting, one might say, for their lives. For example, we do not believe there is a single civilized country but our own to-day, in spite of the great armaments of Europe, in which public men like Lodge, and Ware, and Grout, and Chandler would get up and publicly advocate war as a profitable and useful undertaking, in the absence of any distinct quarrel with anybody. There is in the Old World great pride in war and respect for military virtues, but every one who speaks of it publicly speaks of it with horror as a dreadful necessity, and recognizes its savagery. Even the commanders of all the great armies profess to-day to be working might and main for peace. It is only in the United States that we can find statesmen clamoring for war as a sort of commercial venture, and as a good means of teaching patriotism to the young. They talk of it, in short, as an Indian chief might talk who was organizing a war party against a hostile tribe.

To appreciate the full significance of this, it has to be taken in connection with such incidents as the rising of "labor" two years ago to block the national highways, and inflict untold suffering even on women and children, in order to settle a trumpery trade dispute; with the frequent attacks on jails by armed lynching parties, not in the frontier States only, but all over the country; and, above all, with such occurrences as the following which was reported in all the papers on Wednesday week, and which passes as an ordinary bit of news, though it is not the first, second, or third event of the kind:

> "Henry Hillard, a negro, who assaulted and murdered Mrs. Leonard Bell, the wife of a young farmer, near Tyler, Tex., on Monday night, was captured yesterday and burned to death in the public square at Tyler by a mob of 300 armed men, and in the presence of thousands of persons, including women and children. The negro was slowly tortured to death, the fire being quenched at intervals to prolong his agony."

Such things are now absolutely numerous. What is the effect on the "women and children"? It would not be unnatural or surprising if a community fed on such horrors should eventually abandon peaceful industry and turn buccaneers.

It is to be observed that nearly all the noisiest Jingoes are Republicans, and this is what one might expect from the outburst of what we might well call ferocity which marked the close of the high-protection period. The last effort to save the McKinley bill and make necessary a large revenue, as our readers may remember, consisted in vigorous stimulation of the hostility to foreigners. The Republican orators revelled in descriptions of the sufferings our new tariff had caused among the European working poor, and Mr. Chauncey Depew produced, as McKinley's highest title to admiration, the fact that there was no American so detested abroad as he was. The demand for a large navy as a good way of spending money when the pensions as a source of expense were exhausted, had then to be supported by vigorous denunciations of other naval powers, and wide-spread reports of their evil designs against American peace and honor. From these things an open demand for war, as an end in itself, for education, for glory, for money, or even for fun, was not far off, and now we have it.

The effect of all this on our public life, too, is very visible. The young men who go into it, far from modelling themselves on Webster, or Clay, or Marcy, or Seward, or Everett, or Adams, to say nothing of the founders of the republic—far from trying to speak with the voice of any of these eminent men on international law, or on currency, or exchange, or trade, or commerce, or trying to become trusted authorities on any of these questions—are taking up the rôle of international swashbucklers, as the true way to political promotion, and "holler" for more ships, and hurl defiance to the four corners of the earth. It is a melancholy fact that there is to-day not a single man in public life who is listened to with respect or confidence on any of these topics. Daniel Webster's place in the Senate is filled by a man who sought to discriminate against the goods of a foreign nation in order to make it change its standard of value, and a pupil of his has urged us to avoid arbitration as a means of settling international difficulties. In fact, the kind of instruction our leading men are pouring out on a much troubled people would, if effective, carry us back before long to the condition of the barbarous tribes whose only peaceful occupation was raising corn and bacon to feed the fighting men. That the America of Washington and Franklin and Jefferson should come to this in a century, shows the absurdity of political prophecy.

WHO MADE CROKER?

THE great significance of the two checks for $125 each which Mr. Greene, the Chief Engineer of the Dock Department, says he sent to Richard Croker in order to retain his place, lies not in their amount, nor in the conditions under which they were sent, but in the undoubted fact that they are samples of thousands of similar remittances to the same man from various elements of this community. If every man in this city who holds vouchers which have come back to him through his bank with the clumsy and ignorant scrawl of "Richard Croker" on the back, were to come forward with them, what an innumerable cloud of witnesses should we have as to the sources of Croker's wealth! Croker himself bears testimony voluntarily on this point by saying that he does not "care a damn" about Mr. Greene's revelation, that his (Greene's) checks "were sent, like many other checks, as campaign contributions," that "it might prove interesting reading to the public if the names of some of the men who have contributed to the Tammany Hall campaign fund were published," and that "there are many members of the Committee of Fifty that have sent generous checks to the campaign fund of Tammany Hall, and *these checks were endorsed by Richard Croker.*"

It will be observed that Croker admits that it was the custom to draw the checks, as Mr. Greene drew his, to the personal order of Richard Croker. What Croker did with the proceeds was nobody's business except his own. He deposited Mr. Greene's checks in his personal bank account, and all others undoubtedly went the same way. There was no accounting to anybody. Croker was at liberty to spend as much of the money as he chose for campaign purposes and to keep the remainder for himself. As we have pointed out repeatedly in the past, no financial position in the world compares for a moment with the position which Croker held in Tammany Hall, so far as opportunities

for sudden and great wealth are concerned. Every office-holder in the city was compelled to do what Mr. Greene did in order to retain his place. Every candidate for a Tammany nomination for office was forced to contribute anywhere from a few hundred dollars up to as high as $25,000 or even $40,000 for it. Every corporation in the city which was at the mercy of Tammany officials here, or a Tammany-controlled Legislature at Albany, made its contributions also. No account was kept in the name of the treasurer of Tammany Hall. Small wonder that Croker snaps his fingers in the face of the revelation of his system of obtaining vast wealth, and says: "As for those checks, I don't care a damn about them." Why should he? He has received the money for every one of them. He is rolling in riches; has something like a half-million dollars in a stock farm and racing-horses; only a day or two ago bought a new horse for $25,000; lives in an $80,000 house; has a fine residence in London; rides in handsome carriages, and, when he travels over the country, has a special car for himself and family. No man, under such conditions, would "care a damn" for the full revelation of the system by which he attained his wealth.

The men who ought to care are the contributors. Mr. Greene does not appear to think that he did anything discreditable when he bought retention in his office of Croker for $125 a year. The men who contributed to his campaign fund possibly did not think that they were doing anything discreditable, though they were buying legislation, or immunity, from him. They were recognizing his right to sell them the government of the city in which they live. All the men who sent him checks contributed to his power as the ruler of New York. They are the makers of Croker and of all Tammany bosses, past, present, and to come. Their money it was which made the power of this ignorant, brutal wretch, who came to this country from a foreign land, and from youth to manhood spent his days in brawling and carousing with one of the worst "gangs of toughs" that the city has ever known. His power and wealth were bestowed by American money, and if all the checks upon whose backs "Richard Croker" has been scrawled with such visible effort could be held up to the light of day, the names signed to the great mass of them would be found to be those of good Americans.

This is the crowning shame of the matter. The system whose methods Mr. Greene's checks reveal has been known to exist for a long time. We have now the visible proof of its working, and for the first time Croker's confession of its simplicity and perfection. Small wonder, in view of the great success which he has had in the operation of the system, that he should be indifferent to its exposure and to public opinion about it. For him "the past is secure," and he cares nothing for the future. Nothing can be revealed which will injure his character. What he did as Tammany boss was exactly what was to have been expected of a man of his antecedents. The "government" which he gave the city, and which so many reputable persons went about saying was "really a very good government," is now seen to have been a division of plunder by rascals and thieves who kept up an outward semblance of decency in order that their opportunities for plunder might be continued. This was precisely the kind of government which was to be expected in payment for cash. Could anybody expect that a scoundrel who had bought the power to rule would rule honestly? Many people seem to have expected a miracle of this sort, but we are glad to believe that they have been convinced of their error.

Croker's use of the word "informer" is an interesting reminiscence of the experience of his Irish parents. He himself came to this country at the age of twelve, but he must have heard his father and mother and their friends often discourse on the peculiarities of the political system they had left behind them. "Informer," in the mouths of Irish Catholic peasants, means a man who gives evidence against his confederates in a criminal conspiracy of a political or agrarian character. It is not used to describe a witness in a prosecution for any other crime, or in the prosecution of a single man. The "informer" is generally, if not always, a man who has become acquainted, either as *particeps criminis* or otherwise, with the offences or designs of an organization of some kind engaged in criminal enterprises, and gives evidence against its members in a court of law, or puts the police on its track. So thoroughly demoralized have the Irish people become, too, that the character of a witness in such a prosecution is, in the eyes even of those who hate or suffer from the crimes he exposes, the very basest a human being can bear. Some illustrations of this which came out in the disturbances that followed the rise of the Land League in 1880 are among the most curious incidents in the history of human society. It is not unnatural that this tradition should make a deep impression on a man like Croker, whose own youth was passed in an atmosphere of hostility to the police and the law. Moreover, we have no doubt that if the mind of the great body of the more ignorant Irish supporters of Tammany could be got at, it would be found that Tammany was to them a vague and shadowy reproduction of the "Peep-o'-Day Boys," "Whiteboys," "Moonshiners," and "Molly Maguires"—that is, an organization which somehow came in between them and the Government, and gave them protection and succor which the Government ought to give, but does not.

Croker's refusal to tell what becomes of the money he receives, on the ground that if he told he would be an "informer," shows that some such view of the organization is in his mind, though he does not perceive the consequence of revealing it. In fact, Tammany greatly resembles the "Molly Maguires" in Pennsylvania. Those who remember the history of that organization will recall that it got its members, some of them notorious criminals, into the county offices, and thus barred the course of justice against its murderers. The indifference of Tammany to the character of its men springs from the same source. Although it had full command of the city offices only for a year or two, the number of indicted men and public brawlers and semi-criminals whom it managed to thrust into city offices was a striking proof of the extent to which the organization had, in the minds of Tammany men, supplanted the State. Croker himself rose into power from the ranks of the criminal classes, and it would probably be impossible to-day to shake his power by bringing any accusation of crime or illegality against him. Saying he stole would be very like saying a Moonshiner had shot an "informer," or a "Molly Maguire" had killed a foreman. In fact, Tammany's cohesive power is easily understood by any one who is familiar with Irish peasant life. What is not so comprehensible is the number of native Americans who belong to it—some of them, like Cram and Comptroller Fitch, men of education—and the still greater number who are willing to use it and work with it for party purposes.

LITERARY ADVICE AND PATRONAGE.

Some unpublished letters of Sainte-Beuve's, lately printed in the *Figaro*, yield an instructive idea of the great critic's attitude towards literary aspirants who sought aid and comfort from him. A young Breton, M. Luzel, with a provincial reputation as a poet, had come to Paris in 1855 to try his fortune, and, after some months of literary ups and downs (mostly downs), applied to Sainte-Beuve for advice. He got it, cold and unwelcome. Sainte-Beuve honestly told him that his poetry was only ordinary, and that, at his age (thirty-four), it was doubtful if his verse would ever acquire the originality and impact which it lacked. The thing for him to do was to go back to Brittany and resume his position as teacher. M. Luzel was obstinate, however, and continued, for a time, to cultivate literature in Paris on a little oatmeal, saying to himself that he would teach the critic not to consider himself infallible. But it was not long before he was glad to arise and go to his father, and in later years he could not say enough of the wisdom and real kindness of Sainte-Beuve's advice.

In one of the latter's letters to Luzel is the following passage:

"To give you a sort of preface or letter of introduction, to be placed at the head of your collection and so aid you to find a publisher, is a kind of thing I have never done. No critic with independence and reputation to guard

ever does it. That form of good-nature, moreover, does not long deceive anybody."

There is solemn truth in this for critics, and if we did not believe that all our Sainte-Beuves already appreciated it and acted upon it, we should be tempted to give them a word of exhortation. But there is equally solemn truth in it for the thousands of young men and women who still go to Paris, as they did in 1855, and to London and New York also, to seek their literary fortune. Out of the heads of too many of them it is impossible to get the idea that the thing is to be done by trick or favor. The whole secret, they think, is to get properly introduced, to be launched under favorable "auspices," to secure weighty patronage. This idea is at the bottom of the numerous literary associations that are founded, ignorantly or fraudulently, to persuade obscure writers that a way has at last been found to give the humblest author a powerful friend at the editorial court. "Your manuscripts," they say to their victims, too ready to be convinced, "are fully as meritorious as any that are published, but they are rejected because you have no one to bring them to the editor's favorable notice. Pay us for doing it, and your light will no longer be hid."

Now, that there is such a thing as literary boosting, or that it may be highly successful for a time, we should not think of denying. Examples to confute us, if we should, would be too ready to hand. But it still remains true that, as Sainte-Beuve said, such boosting cannot be long successful. Examples of this also are ready to hand. To mention names would be invidious, but every reader with a memory can recall writers boosted high, five or ten years ago, only to fall the harder and be the more thoroughly forgotten. In the long run, "auspices" can do nothing for an author, except, perhaps, to hasten a little his opportunity for a hearing, and whether that will do him any good depends on himself; it would have been found by himself, sooner or later, in any case. A great deal of confusion on this point has survived as a superstition from the time when literary patronage was essential, because without it there was no such thing as publishing at all. But the Mæcenases and the Elizabethan nobles are only nuisances, as literary go-betweens, in an age when editors and publishers are bidding wildly against each other for every scrap and kind of popular writing.

The old literary ambition will long continue, and long may it. The Daudets and the Luzels will keep on going up to the great capitals, and crying with swelling hearts, as they catch the first glimpse, "À nous deux maintenant!" But they ought to understand what a tough and remorseless antagonist they are challenging, how increasingly cynical he is about literary recommendations, and that the one thing which will lay him on his back is demonstrated merit. Hence the inevitable emptiness and uselessness of the literary advice, so eagerly sought, so wearily given. The best advice, in fact, comes down to the form of two questions. The first is: "Are you a genius?" If this can be answered in the affirmative, nothing further need be said; no advice is possible, no help is needed.

But if, by any possibility, the answer is negative, then all that is left to ask is, "Do you know anything? Do you know any one thing better than any other one man? If you do, can you write it out in a way to command attention?" If so, the world is an opened oyster before you. We lately saw a letter from a well-known writer who was speaking a good word for the literary life. He said that his first offering to a newspaper was accepted, his first magazine article likewise, and his first book also. But he omitted to give the reason. The work was that of a specialist in each instance. Neither paper, magazine, nor publisher could have got just that matter from any other source. There is no mystery, no favoritism, in such success. Even in our age of ignorant scribbling, the men who know are heard gladly. But if you do *not* know, if you know only as well as thousands of others who are in possession ahead of you, the best thing you can do is to go back and learn. To genius the world will surrender on sight; to knowledge it will surrender all in good time; the aspiring writer who has neither, had better look out for a soft place to fall.

There probably never was a time when it was more important than it is now to insist that writing does not come by nature; that "happy-thought" literature is worth no more than happy-thought law or medicine; that long apprenticeship and study are as essential to the writing art as to any other. Hence the harm of such rash prophecies as the one just put forth by the editor of the *Century*, that we in America are on the eve of a great "revival of creative literature," because we have so many interesting "problems," because we are growing very "serious" (evidence for this not given), and because so much attention is now bestowed upon municipal politics and charities of all sorts. Creative literature is a mysterious business, but we are certain there cannot be any without creators, and we would ask what signs there are that we are on the eve of them in any great numbers. Creation *ex nihilo* may pass in theology, but it never will in literature. Forty years ago an acute critic wrote: "The reason why so few good books are written is that so few people that can write know anything." Even the bare art of knowing how to write has declined since then, from lack of knowing anything to write about, if we may believe the late Prof. Nettleship. In an address on "Natural Science and Literature," he had something to say which it would be well for the smooth prophets of creative literature to consider, and which critics giving, and young writers seeking, advice may profitably ponder:

"I am bound to say that for some time past, at least in England, there has been more of manly effort, more of patient self-renunciation, among the students of natural science than among the students of literature. . . . In the present generation it seems to me that a kind of paralysis has seized upon the thinking power which should produce good literature. One cannot but notice, side by side with a restless desire to produce, a curious impatience of the labor of learning, of thinking, and even of writing well. Emotion, sentiment, a newly awakened interest in a subject, are taken as ample justification for writing about it."

THE ATLANTA EXHIBITION.

ATLANTA, October, 1895.

THE wrong way to estimate the importance and comprehensiveness of the Cotton States and International Exposition at Atlanta is to ask those who have visited it if it is as good as the World's Fair at Chicago. This, however, is the question most commonly put. We must set aside comparison with Chicago, and judge the Atlanta Exhibition on its own merits. The managers of the World's Fair attempted to carry out a gigantic and difficult undertaking. Backed by the whole country, and with the official participation and aid of numerous foreign countries, they succeeded admirably. The managers of the Atlanta Exhibition, with little besides the support of their own town of 110,000 inhabitants, 50,000 of whom are blacks, planned a comprehensive exhibition on the general lines of international shows, pushed the execution of their project with indefatigable industry, and now present a general exhibition the completeness and extent of which, considering the conditions of the enterprise, are extraordinary.

The exhibition grounds are situated in Piedmont Park, about two miles from the centre of the city and easily reached by trolley-cars and omnibuses. There is a large plateau with high ground on one side A lake and stream called "Clara Meer," a plaza about equal in area (at a guess) to Madison Square, and wide avenues are the decorative features of the plateau and the means of communication between the buildings. There are gondolas and electric launches on the lake, omnibuses on the roads; and broad flights of steps reach up from the level to the higher parts of the grounds. About the only distinctively bad things in the decorative scheme are some tall columns placed about these steps. They are surmounted by figures which are in general about as good artistically as the ordinary Indian tobacco-sign. A frieze in color in the portico of the Art Building is of no better quality, but makes a good spot from a distance. The Art Building, the Woman's Building, the Pennsylvania Building, and the New York Building are the best on the grounds in general aspect and purity of design. Few of the others are pretentious, and all seem well adapted to the purposes for which they were erected. None of them offends by positive bad taste. The color scheme for the larger buildings is bluish gray with white trimmings, and the roofs are colored moss-green. The Art Building, a pretty and commodious structure of Renaissance design, the Woman's Building, and some others are entirely white. The general effect is good, and a bird's-eye view of the Exhibition embowered in the forest that surrounds and reaches into the city is altogether pleasing. There is a "Midway," as at Chicago, called here the "Midway Heights,"

and it is a very good pleasure street. Some innocent attractions, such as the very interesting "Old Plantation," are infinitely better than the so-called Oriental shows. Cairo Street, with the exception of some long-suffering but picturesque camels, with their native drivers and "shouters," is a Cairo street only by a most vigorous effort of imagination. By night the grounds and buildings are lighted up by electricity, with fine artistic effect. It is so well done, indeed, that it suggests the thought that new appliances and methods have been added to those adopted two years ago so successfully at Chicago. Red fire is used at times in addition to the electric illuminations, and the general effect is fairy-like.

High praise is due to the directors of the Exhibition for their management of the difficult question of making awards. President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University was appointed Commissioner of Awards. He was ably seconded in the details of his work by Prof. Gore of the Columbian University at Washington, who was United States Commissioner-General at the Antwerp Exposition, and by Mr. John Birkinbine of Philadelphia. Dr. Gilman appointed a jury that included some of the best-known and ablest educators, experts, and critics in the country, and the Atlanta people had the satisfaction of seeing arrive in their city on the 15th of October a body of men who constituted a better jury of awards than any other exhibition in this country has had, and one quite competent to judge at any international exhibition. The citation of a few names from the list of judges is sufficient proof of this. The list includes: Gen. Henry L. Abbott, U. S. Engineers; Presidents Adams of Wisconsin, Mendenhall of Worcester, Dabney of Tennessee, MacAlister of the Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, and Miss Irwin, Dean of Radcliffe College, Harvard; Profs. Simon Newcomb of Washington, C. S Sargent and I. N. Hollis of Harvard, C. B. Richards of Yale, Rowland and Remsen of Johns Hopkins; ex-Gov. Bullock of Georgia; Admiral Belknap, U. S. N.; G. Brown Goode of the Smithsonian Institution, D. H. Burnham of Chicago, and Thomas Nelson Page. These gentlemen and their associates have publicly testified to the extent, variety, and excellence of the exhibits in the separate sections within the scope of the exposition. While not officially represented in the exact sense of the word, there are creditable displays in the building for Manufactures and Liberal Arts from Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Austria, and Russia. Mexico, Chili, and other South and Central American countries have duly accredited commissioners and comprehensive or special exhibits. The State of Georgia, in a large building of its own, displays its natural resources and home industries, and California and other States do likewise. In the Negro Building the progress and achievements of the race are shown in education, science, and labor. A Japanese village and a number of restaurants and cafés offer refreshment and food to the visitor, and, with its lawns and oak trees enclosed by an iron fence, the pretty house of the Piedmont Driving Club, flanked by the New York and Pennsylvania buildings, furnishes hospitality to its guests, and makes a convenient and fitting place for official luncheons. The United States Government has a large and well appointed building, and makes therein an exhibition that is generally conceded to be the best it has yet presented.

The standing committee of the Exhibition on the Department of Fine Arts wisely decided, when plans were laid, to secure the services of a competent chief or superintendent who should set to work to obtain as complete and representative a collection of works as possible. This task was allotted to Mr. Horace Bradley of New York, a native of Georgia. The result of his labors is seen in the exhibition in the Fine-Arts Building. The excellent portraits of the colonial and Revolutionary periods in the State exhibits in the Woman's Building were brought together under other auspices. The exhibition proper in fine arts consists of between 1,000 and 1,100 works in oil painting, sculpture, water-color, black-and-white drawing, and etching. There is a special exhibit under the head of "Mural Painting," and a good collection of architectural work is sent by the Architectural League of New York. The exhibition of sculpture would be considered an excellent one in New York, and is simply a revelation to the average Southern visitor to Atlanta. It includes groups and figures of heroic size, such as "Gallaudet and his First Deaf-Mute Pupil," by D. C. French; J. Q. A. Ward's "Pilgrim"; F. Wellington Ruckstuhl's "Mercury Teasing the Eagle of Jupiter"; medals and bas-reliefs in bronze by the great French artist Vernon; half-a-dozen small bronze figures by F. W. MacMonnies; figures, busts, and bas-reliefs by Olin L. Warner, Herbert Adams, W. A. Davis, J. Scott Hartley, Wayland Bartlett, E. C. Potter, and other well-known sculptors. The collection is a large one, filling the entire central gallery, and is catholic and representative in character. It is not marred by bad work.

Mr. Bradley's representations to French and other artists, together with the zeal of some of the foreign commissioners, have resulted in bringing to the art galleries a collection of pictures which, while it lacks, of course, most of the familiar names, yet includes some that are of the first rank. Two delightful works by Olivier Merson, "Je vous salue, Marie!" and "L'Ermite"; "Danse Enfantine," by Mme. Demont-Breton, and "La Légende," by Adrien Demont, are conspicuous. Mme. Madeleine Lemaire, Louise Abbema, Souza Pinto, Checa, Belloni, Nunes-Vais, and J. H. S. de Haas are other foreign exhibitors. A group of water-colors by Weissenbruch, Mme. Roosenboom, Kever, Valkenburg, Hanrath, Duchattel, and other painters of the Dutch school is especially noteworthy. Many of the best American painters, both at home and abroad, are represented. Portraits by Miss Beaux of Philadelphia, Vinton of Boston, Eastman Johnson, Beckwith, and Fowler of New York, and Hinckley of Washington are notable. A fine little picture of a lady in black is by H. Van der Weyden of New York. Twenty-eight pictures, depicting landscape and landscape and figures, are contributed by Theodore Robinson of New York, and well exemplify the methods of a clever and artistic painter. Two figure subjects by R. W. Vonnoh; a large and ably handled genre, "Brittany Legend," by Henry Mosler; two large decoratively treated canvases with well-drawn figures by Mrs. Mary F. MacMonnies; "Upland Cotton," a new work by Winslow Homer; "Christmas Bells," by E. H. Blashfield, and subject pictures by Messrs. Walter Gay, Gari Melchers, Bridgman, C. S. Pearce, Du Mond, Weeks, H. R. Butler, J. G. Brown, Curran, Albert Herter, and others give variety to the walls and set a standard for the exhibition. In landscape work there is nothing quite so good as "Abandoned," by Charles H. Davis; and Mr. Howe's cattle and sheep, Mr. Bisbing's bulls in combat, and Mr. Horatio Walker's pigs in a "Siesta" are the prominent canvases in animal painting. Other excellent landscapes are shown by Messrs. Woodbury, Steele, Picknell, Ranger, Whittredge, Parrish, Hayden, and Whittemore. Messrs. Richards, Nicoll, and Chapman are the noteworthy painters of marines. Some delightful water-colors are signed by Miss Kate Greatorex. Her skill in broad treatment of this medium is most effectively shown in "Bateau-Lavoir, Moret, France," and forms a striking contrast to the charming, carefully finished drawing in color, by Albert Lynch of Paris, intended for the title-page of the American edition of Louis Morin's 'French Illustrators.' The water-color and black-and-white drawings form a strong feature of the art department, and the catalogue includes the names of many of the best American water-color painters and almost all of the noted illustrators. Twelve large working drawings in color for figures of the apostles, executed in mosaic in the Church of the Madeleine, Paris, by Charles Lameire, and some four or five mosaics by Grasset, are especially worthy of mention in the department called "Mural Painting." Here, too, are representative projects or finished works by John La Farge, Shirlaw, Low, Blashfield, Armstrong, F. S. and Ella Condie Lamb.

Well placed and well housed, the Fine Arts Department, which might, perhaps, have been expected to be a weak display at Atlanta, is seen to be one of the best parts of the Exhibition. There are no pictures whatever by some of the most celebrated American painters, but this deficiency, while apparent on reflection, is not felt in a general view of the galleries. What has been brought to Atlanta is of so good an average of merit that the first impression is one of completeness. Now that visitors to the great Southern Exhibition have the opportunity to see for themselves the present state of American art, perhaps a more general appreciation may follow, just as occurred in the West after the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876—an appreciation that gained in acuteness and breadth as a consequence of the World's Fair at Chicago in 1893.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

THE VENETIAN ART SHOW.

VENICE, October 22, 1895.

THE International Fine Art Exhibition which is about closing is especially interesting in its display of *fin-de-siècle* tendencies of all modern schools. Every variety of method now in vogue seems to be represented here, although few of the most important foreign artists have deemed it worth their while to send their best works, and some send only studio rubbish, unsold failures, which to a great extent deprives the exhibition of its intended value as representative of living art.

A cursory survey of the Italian section impresses us with the fact that the art of Italy of our own time has received its inspiration from Paris rather than from the example of the great native masters. There are a few exceptions, as, for instance, Giovanni Costa and his pupils, but they are not well represented. The master himself has a work which is very splendid in color and interesting in composition, "Ad Fontem Avicinum"; but figures are not his forte, and there are too many obvious defects in drawing in his peasant women around the fountain not to mar the general effect. A work which has attracted quite unmerited attention is Grosso's "Il Supremo Convegno" (The Last Meeting). The indecency of the subject excited the Patriarch of Venice, after visiting the exhibition in the

spring, to write a pastoral letter to the faithful through the Venetian papers, exhorting them not to go there. To this day there is a placard in Latin to the same effect hung up in the sacristies of the churches. But although Venice is considered especially clerical in its tendencies, the letter attracted an immense crowd continually before the picture, so that for many weeks two municipal guards had to protect the safety of this work of art from the pressure of the great concourse of people. Granting that it is permissible to every artist to choose his subject, and that the dramatic quality is not lacking here, Grosso cannot be considered a great artist, excepting in a certain brutal power of realization; his flesh painting is hot in tone and wanting in delicate gradation of color. The same lack of any refinement or subtlety is chargeable to his vast canvas, evidently a portrait, of a woman with bare shoulders in a white satin dress against a white background, called "Sa Majesté la Femme"—a type of femininity appealing to man's lower instincts. This lady seems to preside over the show, greeting the eyes of any one entering, and her supremacy would account for any falling off of the race of this pleasure-loving people.

On our left is Giuseppe Ferrari's very black "Transiat a me calix iste"—Christ with outstretched arms in a wood of ilex trees. This picture also is of a size quite disproportionate to its poverty of design. The Saviour of men has assumed the person of a common Abruzzese model, and the artist has limited his range of color to terre-verte, black and white. Far more amusing is the work of the "Vibrists" on the opposite wall. This sect paints in streaks of primitive colors which fuse together when seen at a distance, but which look like an obsolete form of Berlin wool-work when one is rash enough to approach. Morbelli has represented the figures of seven women from the middle downwards, standing in water at work in a rice field; there is only one head (in profile and covered with a handkerchief) to the seven, and six of them are, but for variations of color in their cotton skirts, exactly alike in position and equidistant from each other. In simplicity of design this beats the Primitive school. An Italian critic calls this style "la pittura del morbillo" (the measles style of painting), and the expression exactly describes the appearance of the fourteen colors of the stooping forms. Segantini paints now on the same principle, but has besides entirely smeared the underpainting of his picture with particles of gold, which breaks the color. This picture, No. 311, "The Return to their Native Soil," peasants in a cart going along a mountain path under a rosy sky, is a sad falling off, through perverse mannerism, of a painter who, in his early work, had great freshness of conception and originality. Previati, another "Separatist," adding mysticism to this deplorable manner, contributes "The Burial of a Virgin," a procession of shadowy women following a bier and winding away into infinite distance, as if the phantoms of Saint Ursula's eleven thousand had come to the funeral of the last of their kind. Oreste da Molin, a Venetian painter who loves to depict the humorous side of life, sends a picture entitled "By the Day at Two Francs," an episode in the existence of the unoccupied. Two clerks, in threadbare, patched clothes, are doing up accounts, while a third, not having any work, is hungrily gnawing at a bare thigh-bone of antediluvian dimensions. The painting is extremely clever, the scene lifelike, but savoring rather of caricature in the emaciated types of the clerks.

Of the Italian Impressionists, Boldini, a Ferrarese painter, long established in Paris, holds the palm. His portrait of a child in black and white against a slate-colored background is the best thing of its kind here; the head is excellently modelled and drawn, but the long thin legs, stockinged in black silk, finishing in pointed black shoes, are inordinately drawn out. A pastel of Verdi, in the same room by the same artist, is also in excellent style. Occupying the centre of one room is Laurenti's "Parable" in two compartments separated by a column of its frame. The artist represents steps going up on the left, with children and maidens rushing on full of joy, a marriage at the summit; on the right, figures clothed in sober colors are descending. Notwithstanding a certain weakness in drawing, this picture, painted in tempera, makes a good impression through its freshness of color and its simplicity of treatment.

Michetti, who is regarded by Italians as their great genius, sends the "Daughter of Jorio," a work which has received the highest prize, and which Italians are inclined to consider the most remarkable work in the exhibition. The catalogue advises us to place ourselves as far as the room will allow from this picture in order to enjoy the general effect. At a first glance it occurs to the spectator that this is a sketch in which only the heads are finished and the rest roughly indicated on a coarse gray canvas, such as is used for the sail of a boat; but on closer examination it is evident that the striking eccentricities are intentional, and that the artist is satisfied that he has produced a great work, for which studies for the principal heads, of gigantic proportions, hang on either side. The scene is in the Abruzzi, and represents a peasant girl, shrouded in brown, in the costume of the country, resolutely walking down hill, her head bent and covered so that only the end of her nose, and lip, and chin can be seen. The outline of her back indicates that she is carrying a baby in the shawl wound across her shoulders and head; her movement of stepping down hill is that of a wooden doll of prehistoric mechanism. On a ridge of land above her a number of men are lounging in nonchalant idleness, observing her and sneering at her. One of this company has no head, the picture ending at his shoulders—no feet either, for a mound of earth hides them from view; we are told in explanation, again by the catalogue which acts as the chorus in a Greek play, that "the woman is the daughter of Jorio—she who sinned for love, and who, through her sin, is branded with shame and fascination. She is passing along a mountain path, followed by the derision and evil desires of the men lying along the stony mountain ridge in lazy attitudes." The expression on the men's faces tells the tale well enough; but why all effort should have ceased there, is a mystery the catalogue does not attempt to elucidate; nor does it explain why the picture is placed outside its frame instead of being inside, according to long-established custom. Were not the frame an elaborate design of wild mountain flowers and grasses in relief, we might suppose that the misfit was accidental. On examining the foreground, we note that the inequalities of the surface, meant to represent rapid execution, are produced by the canvas having been, as a preparation, besmeared with plaster, lumps of which give texture by actual light and shade. Michetti is the most prominent of the Neapolitan painters, and has a number of followers who believe this to be a great work. It seems incredible that, with Tintoret's painting within reach, such mountebank trickery of the brush should be seriously discussed. Morelli is another Neapolitan of mark who is responsible for a very weak picture of Christ in the desert being ministered to by angels after having been tempted. This has neither the clever painting of his usual work nor the modernity of conception which is his chief merit. The Italian artists of the present day are not imaginative; the only work which passes muster is of realistic tendency. Rotta has a clever representation of the pleasure-ground of a mad-house, in which the patients are taking the air, each displaying his own peculiar form of madness. The picture is painted in a gray key sympathetic with the theme, with a remarkable open-air quality, and is full of character.

The pictures of Venice which are noticeable for extremely clever work are the "Piazza of St. Mark," by Zezzos, which is somewhat injured by a multitude of open parasols and umbrellas in the foreground, and a "View of the Grand Canal" by a very young, self-taught man, Feruccio Scattola, the *traghetto* and water in the foreground being quite admirably painted; it is a pity that the point of view has been chosen haphazard. To be quite modern "il faut faire le morceau," and it matters little which. Fragiacomo, a well known painter of seascapes, has two works, neither of them as good as usual, though the King has bought one of them. Pasini, the Venetian painter *par excellence*, and one of the patrons of the Exhibition, has only an Oriental praying at the door of Sultan Ahmed's Mosque, Constantinople, which hardly does justice to his great abilities. There are several landscapes of considerable merit and some forcible portraits.

The French and English sections are not as good as one could wish, especially the former. Puvis de Chavannes sends only a red chalk study, a pastel sketch; Carolus Duran, a nude study against a brown background with red drapery, together with a portrait of a poet with a mandolin—a very living presentment, painted with great skill. Besnard has a lady in orange dress, with blue-green background and green face, and a nude called the "Vision of a Woman" rising out of a thicket of rhododendrons and pansies. Duez has a picture of a woman dressed in red on a red sofa in a room the walls of which are red. Biraud, a painter of the *grand monde*, sends a small portrait of the poet Armand Silvestre at his desk, a cigar in his mouth, while two nude muses from Olympus are floating around whispering in his ear. Dupré, and Lhermitte, the painter of French peasant life, have contributed small pictures, while Dagnan-Bouveret's famous Virgin in white in the vine-grown cloister tells all the more impressively for being one of the few simple and serious French works here. Forain has several sketches in oil, clever and at the same time trivial enough. No one could form any just opinion of the ability of the French school from the work exhibited here.

We wonder if Mr. Whistler considers his place among French or English artists. His charming "Little White Girl" is placed with the English section, and has justly received the Murano prize. This picture, painted thirty years ago, is a marvel of bright and subtle color and of studiously dexterous workmanship. The painting of the puffed sleeves of the white dress, the pink and red azaleas touched in against the cool white marble and gray steel of the mantelpiece, the flesh tints and red hair, are all most masterly in treatment. There is nothing in the whole exhibition which can com-

pare with this as a piece of entirely beautiful color. Italians are beginning to desire an acquaintance with the art of England of the present day, so that it is a pity that Burne-Jones has sent only "Sponsa de Libano," which gives no idea of his power as a colorist. G. F. Watts has only two small studies, very gray, as if seen through fog, of Psyche and Endymion and two babies, bloated in form, catching butterflies. "May Day on Magdalen Tower, Oxford," Holman Hunt's well-known picture, is very much observed; there is no scamping of work here—every face is a careful portrait, every flower has modelling; the clouds also have the effect, from excessive elaboration and relief, of being made of solid substance. Some of the boys' heads are quite beautiful in drawing and in type, but the portraits of the fellows' heads singing look galvanized. It is a work which fills us with sadness to see honest study resulting in a thoroughly unsatisfactory accomplishment. Sir F. Leighton's "Andromeda" has none of the directness and grace of line which usually characterize his work, and the dragon is weakly grotesque and unimaginative. W. B. Richmond and Breton Riviere are represented very poorly by the "Bath of Venus" and "Ganymede" respectively. Millais's well-known "Ornithologist" is certainly the best English picture in the exhibition, though painted years ago; the head of a little girl to the left is delightful in freshness of painting, and so is that of the young mother bending over the invalid. It is a stronger and more sincere work than any of Millais's later years. Alma-Tadema's miniature-like portrait of a lady has all his skilful, minute treatment of detail. There are several English landscapes of interest—one by Davis, one by East, a Venetian summer night by Fisher, "Our Village," by Herkomer. Among the portraits of distinction is Ouless's Cardinal Manning, quite the best in this section and splendid in color. The American painter Alexander sends a *pro fil perdu* and back of a gray lady in a stiff gray dress starting out of the frame, a red ribbon the only note of color. This, and another back of a woman in a black ulster, with her reflection in a looking-glass, have been much noticed for their graceless eccentricity, and by no means respond to the painter's early promise.

The German room in the exhibition contains an excellent portrait of the Emperor by Max Koner, several portraits by Lenbach, very scratchy and black in color, with the quality of colored drawings rather than works in oil. Dettman's picture of a child's funeral in a fishing village on the Baltic is full of sentiment. This painter is considered one of the most clever of the young German artists. He also exhibits a triptych called "Work." Uhde, who is classed among the mystics, sends a "Sermon on the Mount," a well-known work. A very excellent piece of color and painting is Vogel's portrait of a priest making an architectural design. One wall is entirely covered by Karl Marr's "Flagellants," an immense canvas, containing innumerable figures, in which groups of people, stripped to the waist and bleeding, are being scourged by a priest. It is a ghastly sight, without dignity of conception or any decorative quality. These gigantic historic pictures are fortunately rare and out of date.

Among the Spanish contributions deservedly prominent is Villegas's large picture of the coronation of the Dogaressa Foscari. Here we have a subject which lends itself to decorative effect, with its Byzantine Gothic architecture and splendid Venetian costume. In the distance the Dogaressa in gold brocade is being led out of the palace; the maids of honor dancing before her fill the centre of the picture. They are in ample skirts of transparent white, with short gold bodices. To the right come the Doge and his suite, splendidly attired in stamped and brocaded velvets; he is looking towards the Dogaressa. Opposite him stand the pages in waiting with her crown, and a lady enacting the part of Venice. The arches of the palace are filled with onlookers. The ground is covered with a scarlet vermilion carpet; wreaths of laurels of vivid green are hoisted above, and in the air there are standards of many hues. The picture is a blaze of color, the costumes are very well chosen, and there are admirable bits of painting throughout, especially in the pages' heads and the red velvet and gold of Doge Foscari's robe. The face of the Doge is not a success—he looks common and supercilious; there is no distinction about him, and the head of the senator immediately following him is also too like a caricature. The picture lacks *ensemble;* there is no repose about any part, no subordination of detail for the sake of general effect.

The Dutch and Belgian artists exhibit together. Sweden, Norway, and Denmark send melancholy effects of twilight in snow and setting suns.

The sculpture is scarce and astonishingly poor. The French sculptor Frémiet sends a clown dancing, called "The Stone Age," and two small groups of extremely clever execution, St. George and his inseparable dragon, and a gorilla carrying off a woman; Ximenes, a figure of "The Renaissance." Trubetzkoy, a Russian artist who has studied at Milan, sends several clever sketches.

The building itself does credit to the painter who designed it—*Marius*, better known as "de Maria"—and is perhaps the best part of the exhibition. The façade is in the form of a classic temple, with stuccoed columns imitating red porphyry and walls of Oriental alabaster and verd-antique; it is surmounted by a Victory and eagles of bronze. M.

Correspondence.

'OUT OF INDIA.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me, through the medium of your columns, to warn the public against a book called 'Out of India,' recently published by a New York firm? It is put forward evidently as a new book by Rudyard Kipling. It is made up of a hash of old newspaper articles written nine or ten years ago, to which are added moral reflections by some unknown hand. It appears, of course, without my knowledge or sanction — is a common "fake"; and I must disclaim all connection with it.—Very sincerely,

Rudyard Kipling.

Waite, Windham Co., Vt., November 3, 1895.

JOHN ROBINSON'S TRACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You cite, in your issue of October 31, Dr. Garnett of the British Museum, respecting a copy of John Robinson's 'Manumission to a Manuduction,' 1615, which he assigns to "Leyden" as the place of publication, while a section of the catalogue of the Museum recently received assigns it to "[London]." Dr. Garnett is also quoted by you as calling this Museum copy of the tract "absolutely unique." Dr. Garnett is seldom caught napping; but he was misled by what Ashton said in his edition of Robinson in 1851, when he had not been able to find it to reprint. This omission was noted at the time by the late Dr. Charles Deane, who caused it to be printed the next year in the first volume of the fourth series of the collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society (1852) from a copy in his possession, and now in the Deane library, as kept together by his heirs. Dr. Henry M. Dexter, in his 'Bibliography of Congregationalism,' a few years ago, credited this same copy to Mr. Deane's collection. Justin Winsor.

Cambridge, Mass., November 2, 1895.

"COLLEGES" AT HARVARD AND ELSEWHERE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The reference to the term "college" for a single building in your issue of September 24 suggests that the same word with the same sense is still used in various parts of the country. It is true that such a use is not recognized by any of the dictionaries—the Oxford, Century, International, Standard, or the dictionaries of Americanisms by Bartlett and Farmer. Yet the expression is found not only among common people, but among students as well, and in some college catalogues. Of the latter I may mention a single instance in which the names East College, Central College, and West College were given to the three buildings of an institution, doubtless without thought on the part of the trustees that the usage is not sanctioned by the lexicographers.

In the college town, common people not only use "college" in the sense referred to, but "colleges," besides the singular as a collective term. Parallel to this last usage is the expression "universities," which has been heard in a university town, although, so far as I know, "university" is never applied even dialectally to a single building. These, and other examples which might be cited, seem to indicate that common people, at least, often associate the word "college" with one of a group of buildings belonging to a collegiate institution.

In view of this similar employment of the word "college" in other parts of the country, therefore, can the quotation of your correspondent be assumed as proving even "a certain adherence to the English usage in the matter of separate colleges"? May it not be more probably—shades of Harvard Overseers pardon the suggestion!—merely a dialectal use of the word, originating in America? At any rate the usage noted is common enough to-day to deserve to be recorded in future dictionaries. Oliver Farrar Emerson.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., November 2, 1895.

CONTROL OF FICTION IN LIBRARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your comments on my note about fiction in the Brookline Public Library make it appear that a few words of explanation might profitably be added in further elucidation of a subject of real public importance. Your note as to "a full line" of trash (waiving, if you please, the question of degrees in trashiness) voices a somewhat common idea that library directors are apt to yield quite unreservedly to the public demand for unprofitable fiction. Justice to the common practice of such officers nowadays requires that the falsity of this

idea should be exposed. No more enlightened and public-spirited efforts to improve and elevate the community in its tastes and feelings are being made anywhere than those made by the persons in charge of our public libraries. In Brookline, as elsewhere, it has seemed best to cater to a small extent to low and unformed tastes, for the purpose of drawing to the library that large class (large even in Brookline, with its thousands of servants) who will not otherwise come under its influence. The inclusion, in Brookline, of Mrs. Southworth and others like her, who are excluded elsewhere, is due to the simple fact that the library was formed early, when this group of writers were taken as the best (almost the only reputable) writers who could be used as such a bait. In later years (when the Salem library was formed, for example) there was a new and better school of writers of light fiction, and there had also been progress in the public taste. The evidences of this progress, which are plainly visible in the steady improvement of the fiction called for at the libraries, is one of the most hopeful signs of the times. The Brookline library had perhaps better be "weeded" a little about this time if it would keep in the front rank in this movement. But the explanation which you think is needed is doubtless correctly given in what I have said.

Respectfully yours,

W. I. FLETCHER.

AMHERST COLLEGE LIBRARY, MASS., November 4, 1895.

Notes.

THE *Publishers' Weekly* announces an issue of the new 'American Catalogue, 1890-95,' in parts, beginning directly with A-H of the author-and-title alphabet, adding another part before the close of the year, and concluding the work as early in 1896 as possible. This for the immediate convenience of the trade and the libraries.

The same organ reports the establishment in this city of 'The Club Bindery' by thirty-eight members of the Grolier Club, which will do no work for other persons unless in default of full employment from the association. Its workshops are at 31 Broad Street.

While D. Appleton & Co. have in preparation a sumptuous illustrated edition of Hall Caine's 'Manxman,' under the author's personal supervision, with the aid of more than forty photographs—the issue being limited to 250 copies—Dodd, Mead & Co. have secured the American market for a correspondingly fine edition of J. M. Barrie's 'Auld Licht Idyls,' with eighteen etchings by William Hole, making a quarto volume limited to 100 copies (out of 550) for the United States.

Roberts Brothers announce an illustrated edition of Balzac's works as translated by Miss Wormeley. The edition will be in forty octavo volumes, limited to one thousand numbered sets, and will be illustrated with designs by prominent French artists, and reproduced in "goupilgravures." The work will be sold by subscription.

An entirely new edition of the works of Lord Byron, including his letters, public and private, under the supervision of Mr. W. E. Henley, will be brought out by Macmillan & Co. in ten volumes. They also have nearly ready Dr. George Brandes's study, 'William Shakspere,' translated from the Norwegian by William Archer. This work has already appeared in German (Leipzig: Albert Langen; New York: Westermann). Further publications of this house are to be a second, corrected, edition of Prof. Mark Baldwin's 'Mental Development in the Child and the Race,' issued only in April last; 'American Types,' essays from the *Atlantic Monthly* by Gamaliel Bradford, jr.; lectures by Prof. Arthur G. Webster of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., on 'Electricity and Magnetism'; 'The Child in Primitive Culture and Folk-Thought,' by Dr. A. F. Chamberlain of the same university; and 'In a Walled Garden,' by Mme. Belloc.

From the Cassell Publishing Co., New York, we are to have 'The History of *Punch* and its Times,' by M. H. Spielmann, with 120 illustrations of many kinds.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'Algerian Memoirs,' by Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman, an account of a bicycle tour in the spring of 1894, extending the entire length of Algeria; and 'A Pocket History of the Presidents, and Information about the United States,' by Thomas Rand.

'The Evolution of Church Music,' by the Rev. Frank Landon Humphrey, is promised by James Pott & Co.

Ginn & Co., Boston, announce 'A Practical Method in the Modern Greek Language,' by Eugene Rizo-Rangabé.

'Garrison Tales from Tonquin,' by James O'Neill, will be published this month by Copeland & Day, Boston. A poster for this work, "by Jo Hing, a talented Chinese artist, is very nearly completed."

'Paderewski and his Art' is the title of a timely brochure of 44 pages by Henry T. Finck, published by Whittingham & Atherton. It is elegantly printed on thick paper, has a title-page by Mr. Kenyon Cox, two rare portraits of Paderewski, and a facsimile of the manuscript of one of his favorite pieces. The text is biographic and critical.

Smith & Elder, London, were to publish last month a new volume of essays by Vernon Lee, entitled 'Renaissance Fancies and Studies,' a sequel to 'Euphorion,' of which the third edition appeared last autumn. It contains the following essays: "The Love of the Saints" (a study of the influence of the Franciscan movement on art), "The Imaginative Art of the Renaissance," "Tuscan Sculpture," a valedictory chapter on the value of similar studies (comprising an estimate of the late Walter Pater), and a biographical romance of the fifteenth century, called "A Seeker of Pagan Perfection."

Mr. Gladstone is said to be hard at work on his edition of Bishop Butler. It will consist of three large volumes, the last of which, it is understood, will contain a collection of Mr. Gladstone's various essays on the author of the 'Analogy.'

It is announced that M. Edmond de Goncourt, after he gets his book on Hokusai well off his hands, will publish a last volume of the "Journal des Goncourt," which will be brought down to the year 1895. Thereafter he will continue to keep a journal of his life, but does not expect to print it during his lifetime. The reason for this delay on the part of the eminent diarist is not, at first sight, easy to make out. It can hardly be due to any dread of scandal, for M. de Goncourt has already shown himself impervious to that fear. Possibly he may think it well that some of his younger literary brethren, among whom he has not made himself universally beloved, should receive a gentle intimation that he has a rod in pickle.

It is a great satisfaction to have General Grant's 'Personal Memoirs,' after the unprecedented wave of popularity which the work enjoyed when first sold by subscription, at last appear in a form worthy of so important a classic. The Century Co., having taken it over from its late publishers, have clothed it in the best garb of the DeVinne Press and in a binding appropriate to the simple elegance of the typography. Col. F. D. Grant has supplemented his father's notes with a few chiefly of a biographical nature, and has freely used the broad margins partly for topical indications, and especially for precise references to books and authors relied on, or which the student may consult with profit. A new index of more than fifty pages has been provided. Finally, changes in the portraits and in the maps are to be noted. No one can reread these chapters without a sense of their having, over and above the extraordinary interest which attaches to them as a military narrative and an autobiography, a high moral usefulness in the sphere of patriotism. They will not recruit the ranks of the professional fighter or of the Jingo. The North and the South alike have salutary lessons to draw from them.

So many volumes and publishers and illustrators are attached to the name and fame of 'Uncle Remus' that we need to be reminded of the order of precedence. The Tar Baby series, as we may designate the first, was issued by the Messrs. Appleton, and it is this which, after fifteen years of undiminished popularity, they republish—'Uncle Remus: His Songs and His Sayings'; a sort of jubilee edition, adorned with 112 illustrations by A. B. Frost. Mr. Frost fully sustains his reputation for cleverness and humor in his sympathetic designs, whether on a large or a small scale. The title-page is delightfully conceived, and the artist is thoroughly at home with Brer Rabbit, Brer Possum, and that "out'nes' man," Brer Tarrypin. Mr. Frost's success with the colored type of human beings is as marked as with the animals whom he invests with a semi-human appearance and behavior. The book is beautifully printed, and will satisfy the public as it satisfies the author, Mr. Harris.

The Messrs. Putnam make their annual supreme effort in *éditions de luxe* with Irving's 'Tales of a Traveller' in two extremely attractive volumes from their Knickerbocker Press. "Buckthorne" is the brand of this edition, and it is a good name to conjure with. The beautiful letterpress is hedged in with very successful symbolic borders designed by George Wharton Edwards, and printed in pale reds and blues; Mr. Walter C. Greenough furnishes tasteful chapter initials, and a variety of artists have contributed full-page illustrations of the Tales, never falling below a respectable level if not reaching the highest, and harmonizing very well with one another and with occasional photographs from nature or from old prints. Mr. Edwards's hand is also seen in the bold decoration of the cover, rich in green and gold. Altogether we have here an admirable example of American book-making, and, as we began by saying, not the first of its kind from the publishing-house whose imprint it bears.

The same imprint is on the latest of the "Elia" series, viz., Ruskin's 'Sesame and Lilies,' of which the handy size and handsome print recommend it at once. The cover is noticeably ornamental, even if the motive—of acorns and oak leaves—has no obvious relation to the title of the book.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have done well by an excerpt from Ian Maclaren's 'Beside the Bonnie

Brier-bush,' 'A Doctor of the Old School,' which is strong enough to stand alone and will be generally welcome in holiday attire. The author maintains in his preface the existence of many such "utterly Christian" characters as William MacLure, whose goodness was "a peety" to the bigoted because he "didna mak mair profession o' releegion"; and also thanks the American public for its interest in his works. The illustrations, pen-drawings by Frederick C. Gordon, are pronounced by Mr. Maclaren to have been executed in "an admirable and understanding fashion." This, no doubt, should suffice, though, except in some landscape passages, they are rather crude. The book is prettily bound.

It cannot be said that Mr. Ralph Richardson has made a very interesting book of his 'George Morland, Painter' (London: Elliot Stock), but, as nearly half of its 166 pages are taken up with lists of Morland's paintings and of engravings after them and other such material, it should prove useful to collectors and to critics. The writer is desirous, for a future edition, of information as to the present whereabouts of any pictures by Morland which have been engraved. The size of canvas, signature, and date (if any), title, style, and engraver of the engraving, with its publisher and date, and the full name and address of the present owner of the picture should be given. Any such information may be sent to Mr. Richardson at Gattonside House, Melrose, Scotland.

The October *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is a monograph on William Blake by Richard Garnett, LL.D. Dr. Garnett gives a sufficient account of the life of that strange genius and an eminently sane judgment of his work in literature and art, recognizing without exaggerating his unique merits and his equally great shortcomings. Most of the illustrations are familiar, but there are a few which we have not before seen engraved. "The Resurrection of the Dead," from a water-color in the British Museum, is particularly welcome as showing what Blake was capable of in the way of finish. We are glad, also, of the examples of color printing, which seem to be very successful, and serve to show the kind of completion by color that the rough engravings of his "Prophetic Books" were meant to receive.

Dr. Stoddard's chatty and pleasant little volume, 'Cruising among the Caribbees' (Scribners), will be serviceable if it shall lead his readers to imitate him in visiting the Windward Islands. When so many thousands of tourists and invalids rush to Florida and southern California to escape the rigors of our winters, it is remarkable that so few should know of the terrestrial paradise lying within a few days' easy sail to the southeast, where tropical heats are tempered by the trade-winds, and land and sea and sky rival each other in the ever varying panorama that unrolls itself to the voyager, and man contributes his share in the contrasts between life in the Caribbean and at home. Without being wearisome, Dr. Stoddard conveys a good deal of information about these delightful islands, though he puzzles us a little with the sex of Santa Domingo (p. 9), and he copies, without correction, a curious illustration of Froudacity (p. 147) in the historian's account of Rodney's victory of 1782, where he describes St. Lucia as lying between St. Vincent and Dominica. If Dr. Stoddard were familiar with the description of the Caribs by the Spanish discoverers, he would scarce feel sad (p. 125) in meditating "upon the speedy destruction of such a race."

'Among Rhode Island Wild Flowers' (Providence, R. I.: Preston & Rounds) is a handy duodecimo of about a hundred pages, in which Prof. Bailey of Brown University has described, in an attractive fashion and under their common names, the more conspicuous and noteworthy plants of his State. Some of his sketches are Thoreau-like in their clearness of outline and delicacy of touch. The comparison of the purple shells of the skunk cabbage to "half-buried capuchins, or weird cobalds of German story" is a fair example of his felicity of expression. Prof. Bailey delights now and then in surprises. The wild carrot of Warwick is "a lovely nuisance." "A ballast heap for railway filling is only excelled by the delightful ash-heaps of our cities. Blessings on the conservative wealthy who leave these odd corners to offend the public and educate the botanist!" We are sure that a more comprehensive work in the same field from the hands of Prof. Bailey would be welcome.

In *Science* for October 18 appears an open letter addressed "to those interested in Quaternions and allied systems of Mathematics," and signed by P. Molenbroke, The Hague, Holland, and S. Kimura, Yale University, U. S. A. The letter calls attention to the familiar, if not fully explained, fact that, in spite of the great power and flexibility of Hamilton's quaternion calculus, and the "richness of transformations, generality of treatment, simplicity of expression and interpretation," both of this system and of Grassmann's 'Ausdehnungslehre,' these systems have failed in the half-century of their existence to receive very much attention from mathematicians in general. The writers follow up this oft told tale, however, by an expression of the conviction that, in view especially of the needs of modern electrical theory, the time is now ripe for a combined and earnest effort on the part of those who are working in these lines, to promote the progress of this branch of mathematical science. They therefore propose the formation of what they provisionally call "The International Association for Promoting the Study of Quaternions and Allied Systems of Mathematics," and ask those in sympathy with their object to communicate with one or other of the signers. It will be interesting to observe whether this appeal to the followers of Hamilton and Grassmann will meet with an adequate response.

From the press of Cohen, of Bonn, comes to us the beautifully printed 'Index Lysiacus,' which the painstaking author, Dr. David H. Holmes, has dedicated to three of his teachers, Profs. Gildersleeve, Hübner, and Usener. All students of Attic prose, for whom such indexes have answered many a hard question of usage, will welcome the book—even the English cousin who thought he detected a Western flavor in the style of Lysias, who may have been called a "dago" on the Athenian Bowery, in that part of the agora, let us say, near the shop of Lysias's cripple. While speaking of Lysias, we note with pleasure the appearance of Dr. M. H. Morgan's 'Eight Orations of Lysias' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), and while on the subject of indexes, we must express the hope that Prof. Hogue's 'Index to the Verbs and Verbforms of Isocrates' will soon find a publisher.

The Bulletin of the Geographical Club of Philadelphia, No. 5, possesses exceptional interest. It is devoted to an account of the Peary Auxiliary Expedition of 1894, prepared by a member of it, Mr. Henry G. Bryant, the Club's recording secretary, together with the scientific reports. The geological portion emanates from Prof. T. C. Chamberlain, and striking indeed are the photographic illustrations accompanying the text, which show the stratification of the Greenland glaciers, and the close analogy in their folds, faults, etc., to sedimentary rock. There are numerous portraits, and some views of natives.

The April Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society of Worcester, Mass., is marked by three papers of unusual merit. One is Mr. S. S. Green's survey of the Scotch-Irish in America, especially useful in its Massachusetts revelations, seeing that that race cuts but a slender figure in her annals. Here the curious fact is that Scotch-Irish were among the founders of a Presbyterian church in Long Lane (afterwards and now Federal Street), which ultimately became Channing's and Unitarian. Mr. Andrew McFarland Davis, apropos of Hawthorne's 'Scarlet Letter,' discusses very thoroughly "The Law of Adultery and Ignominious Punishments," first in Massachusetts and other parts of New England, and then in the mother country, where the *continuous* wearing of a shameful badge for any offence has not been discovered in his researches. In the case of incest, Connecticut copied the Massachusetts law, and the provision "requiring the convict to wear a capital I two inches long on the outside of his upper garment" was not dropped till the revision of 1821. Mr. Lucien Carr's summary of what is known respecting "The Food of Certain American Indians [east of the Mississippi]" is as agreeable to read as it is scholarly.

Mr. Edward W. James gives in his *Lower Norfolk County Virginia Antiquary*, part 2 of No. 1, a valuable list of slave-owners in Princess Anne County in 1850 (enumerated at that time by himself, as a foot-note informs us), and the continuance of a similar list for the same county in 1860, the latter census distinguishing employers from owners, who were in 18 instances in this instalment united in one person, leaving 77 employers not owners, against 713 owners. In 1850 the largest number of slaves owned by one man was 56, the next largest 55, and only one other slaveholder owned more than 30. But a part of the records is missing. A probable incident in the life of the eccentric and versatile Englishman, James Silk Buckingham (1785 1855), not recorded in the biographical dictionaries, but not contradicted by them, or perhaps by his autobiography, is revealed on p. 55. An inventory of the estate of Col. Anthony Lawrence, 1785, runs on: "a parcel brown Sugar and 3 pair Sheets; Negroes Old peg 15£ Charity 50 young Hannah & Child John 70. . . . Dinah 30 Judah 15 2 sorrel mares 24 2 bay d° 8," in innocent confusion of chattels personal. Mr. James is his own publisher at 714 East Franklin Street, Richmond.

The October number of the *William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine* is substantially filled with a great variety of valuable matter. In particular, President Tyler supplies from the records of Northumberland County a fresh batch of documents throwing light on the Washington family, connection and neighbors, and involving the names of Brodhurst, Bernard, Pope, Hardwick, Gerrard, Lee, etc.

Mountain-climbing is the subject of two of the articles in the *Geographical Journal* for October. Mr. Scott Elliot tells of his attempts to reach the summit of Ruwenzori, the snow-clad range lying in the heart of the African lake system. Though unsuccessful, through the giving out of his porters, he was able to get to a height of 12,640 feet, or about 4,000 feet below the top, and to gain some valuable information in regard to the geological structure of the mountain. His principal

object was to study its flora, and he brought back with him a large collection of plants, some of which are new to science. The forest, he found, reached to a height of 8,600 feet; then followed the bamboo zone to 10,000 feet, and above this, to 12,000 feet, a bed of sphagnum peat-moss, in which were gnarled and stunted trees of heather of enormous size, "often with a diameter of two feet!" Brambles grew to be as big as mulberries. There was very little animal life to be observed, though elephants were numerous in the forest at the foot of the range; at one time Mr. Elliot counted a hundred passing in single file. The other mountain was the Mustagh-ata, or "Father of Ice-Mountains," the highest peak of the Pamir plateau. Dr. Sven Hedin made several attempts to gain the summit, and though he climbed, with the aid of yaks, to a height of 19,500 feet, six thousand below the top, the difficulties presented by the wind, the snow, and the ice-crevasses were too great to be overcome. A successful ascent, even under the most favorable circumstances, he holds to be impossible. There is also in the *Journal* an interesting account of the Gilbert Islands, in the western Pacific, by Mr. C. M. Woodford, in the course of which he says that the natives "catch and partially tame the frigate-bird, and employ it to convey messages from island to island."

The most noteworthy article in the *Annales de Géographie* for October is a description of the physical features of parts of the basins of the Seine, Meuse, and Moselle, by Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard University, whose letters from those basins to the *Nation* will be remembered. It is illustrated by several charts and diagrams. There is also an encouraging account of the progress of the Russian province of Samara in population and cultivation, and a sketch of recent explorations in the French Congo. From a statistical paper upon the rainfall of western Europe we learn that the English Lake District receives the greatest amount, the annual average being fifteen feet; and Almería, in Spain, the smallest, the average being only ten inches. The minimum for all Europe, however, is at Astrakhan, on the Caspian, where only seven inches falls in the course of the year. These facts, which are the results of observations made during the years 1861-90, are also graphically pictured in a colored chart. The remaining contents of this number are articles on depressions and deserts, and on the distribution of the population of Germany.

The Administrative Council of the Pasteur Institute has, in accordance with the general expectation, elected M. Duclaux and Dr. Roux to the directorship and sub directorship of the Institute; M. Vallery-Radot becomes a member of the Council as representative of the Pasteur family; and M. J. B. Pasteur is made a member of the assembly. The Institute, which was opened in 1888, will go on as before its founder's death, and will carry out his work.

A correspondent in Chicago, apropos of the recent discussion in these columns, informs us that for several years the University of Wisconsin has offered a special A. B. course which is accepted, in lieu of the first year, by three of the medical colleges in that city. Several other institutions which have followed this example, have obtained similar recognition for their graduates.

A pleasing and characteristic, but perhaps somewhat overfinished, portrait of the late Prof. Boyesen has been added by F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, to his photographic imperial panel series.

By an unaccountable confusion, we lately made the wholly mistaken assertion that Robert Louis Stevenson was not mentioned in the new volume of 'Johnson's Cyclopædia.' The only palliation we can offer is, that the remark was incidental, and not in connection with a review of the Cyclopædia itself.

—The *Century* magazine celebrates this month its twenty-fifth anniversary by the first instalment of Mrs. Humphry Ward's new novel, "Sir George Tressady." The lines of this hero promise to be cast in politics and love, and are apparently to be crossed by the reader's old acquaintance Marcella, in her new rôle of Lady Maxwell. Besides an accompanying portrait of Mrs. Ward, there are portraits of Stevenson (from the bas-relief made in the sickroom by St. Gaudens), of Duse, and of Vibert the artist, each with letterpress to match. In "The Devotion of Enriquez" Bret Harte has had the clever idea of joining together in fiction a Californian Lothario of Castilian extraction and a Bostonian young lady of purest intellectual ray serene. The story is full of humor, but whether the net result of the cut-and-thrust gallantries of the hero is judged perfectly natural or absolutely incredible will depend on the reader's view of the relation of culture to instinct. Mr. Bryce has something of interest to say on the Armenian question; and, finally, in a symposium *à deux*, Mr. Roosevelt and ex-Gov. Russell define the political issues of 1896. Mr. Roosevelt holds that in the Republican convention the majority "may spare the minority humiliation by refraining from denouncing in so many words the free coinage of silver"; that to "violently oppose any scheme looking towards international bimetallism" is mere foolishness; that the Republican party should "make an aggressive fight on the question of America's foreign policy," and that "we should annex Hawaii immediately." Mr. Roosevelt would, in all probability, consider ex-Gov. Russell's mention of civil-service reform vague and unsatisfactory —a view from which it would not be easy to dissent.

—The current *Harper's* contains two articles which indirectly should as well serve the cause of political enlightenment as those written with direct political purpose. One of the two is Richard Harding Davis's "Out of the World at Corinto." Central American republics are not likely ever in the future to become objects of partisan furor to Mr. Davis, or his fellow-travellers, or the (it is to be hoped) large number of his convinced readers. Nicaragua and Corinto have lately fallen into the background of national consciousness, together with our sense of responsibility for the grade of consul Mr. Davis shows as representing us in certain Southern ports. Such consuls are, however, an insult to national dignity which deserves as serious consideration as possible infringements of the Monroe doctrine. The other of the two articles, "A Pilgrim on the Gila," is called by its writer, Owen Wister, a story. Nevertheless, its character, in spite of a sensational element, inclines the reader to accept it as an unvarnished picture of social and economical conditions as Mr. Wister saw them, or learned them by personal contact, in Arizona, where the balance of cleanliness appears to be on the Mormon side, but in the conduct of life and politics by theft and knavery the Gentile is able to hold his own. The next time a debate comes up in Congress on the admission of Arizona as a State, it might be helpful to members intending to vote in the negative to unearth this number of *Harper's*. Another of its best papers, "Literary Boston Thirty Years Ago," is written in Mr. Howells's mellowest and most attractively frank vein. This is not surprising in view of the pleasantness of those palmy days when our literary oracles had their shrines in New England only, when the *Atlantic Monthly* was their mouthpiece, and Mr. Howells himself its assistant editor.

—The *Atlantic* for the present month reflects, in the titles of three of its prominent articles, the changes in times and in itself. Lafcadio Hearn's "After the War" describes the Japanese celebrations of victories, and the national sentiment, as displayed in May and June last, upon the return of battleship and regiment. Prof. Woodrow Wilson prefaces his paper, "A Literary Politician," by comments on the remoter meanings of the paradoxical terms of his title. The study which follows, of the late Walter Bagehot, is not only worthy of the literary traditions of the magazine, but sets, in breadth and flexibility of view, a standard for contributors to write and readers to think up to. "The Future of Naval Warfare," by Walter Mitchell, is a paper which will certainly be *caviare* to most politicians and to all clamorous advocates of naval extension, but which deserves the more, for that reason, to be widely advertised by its thoughtful readers. A federated naval service, which, being international, would be taken out of politics and into the category of civil service, is Mr. Mitchell's ambitious idea. Its fulfilment must depend upon "the combined action of the chief maritime powers making the ocean the free common for all nations, and declaring against its use for belligerent purposes," though nothing in the terms of the league would hinder the free transportation of troops and supplies between, for instance, an empire and its colonies. The duties of an international navy would be, on an enormously enlarged scale, the duties of any navy in times of peace. Special stress is laid on the "value of a sea-patrol along the three-mile-wide track of transatlantic commerce," carrying salvage crews and "cruising with almost the precision of the life-savers of the coast-guard." The derelict would in this case disappear from the list of marine dangers, and the dread of iceberg and field-ice be greatly lessened. The starting-point of this carefully thought-out article is the contemporaneous development of fully armored ships, in which the maximum of defensive capacity is sought for, and of partly protected commerce-destroying cruisers, "fleet enough to keep out of the range of the line-of-battle craft," the qualities of each "ever leading on to vaster possibilities of ruin and expense."

—The only marked feature of *Scribner's* is a thoroughly interesting likeness of Prof. Helmholtz, taken in class-room, at the close of his last lecture but one, by one of his students. It is accompanied by some brief but acceptable remarks, by the same student, about the original, including an enumeration of his most important scientific discoveries, which, while it would no doubt be a twice-told tale to the duly crammed schoolboy, his elders may still read with profit. Apart from this, although Mr. Lang's memorial verses to Stevenson strike a pleasant chord, the number is without significance, unless it be to exemplify with emphasis the increasing tendency of the magazines to become mere picture-books for eyes of older growth. Pictures are abundantly plentiful here, and there is a plentiful lack of quality in

them, and in too much of the text that reinforces them. There is, in fact, although the magazines would too often seem to deny it, a gap between writing and having something to say which the illustrator is not always competent to bridge.

—It is now more than a year since Tolstoi's pamphlet on 'Patriotism and the Christian Spirit' formed the principal attraction in the windows of all the book-stores of Germany and France, and doubtless fell into the hands and influenced the tone of mind of a proportionately large number of readers. This pamphlet was a very moving picture of how the several nations of Europe are kept armed to the teeth in order to gratify the love of revenge and the love of aggrandizement of their rulers, while the plain people, who have the taxes to pay, have no desire whatever to spend their time in fighting. Since socialism has been such a strong power in Germany and France, the feeling of international friendliness has been growing constantly stronger. Besides the reasons for amity between nations which industrialism furnishes, the close intercourse which prevails between scientists is another bond that makes for peace; it would seem almost like a contradiction in terms for the scientific men of France and Germany to wish to go to war with each other—at least to engage in anything more than a war of arguments. And now comes a new tie which, according to M. Brunetière in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, will do much to make France (the country most to be feared) look with more friendly eyes upon the nations of the North. This is the absorbing interest which she is taking at the present moment in the literatures of the North. When one is just awaking to the power and beauty of the life of a people as depicted by its great novelists and dramatists, one is not in the humor for taking up arms against that people.

—M. Brunetière takes occasion to defend the present movement among the literary people of France, against those who object to it on the ground that the patriotic Frenchman ought to like nothing that is not French. He grants that it is doubtless pure accident that the objectors are for the most part those who know neither English, German, Russian, nor Norwegian, and he goes on to show, as James Darmesteter has done before, that the influence of race has been very much exaggerated —that it is tradition, chance, the fashion of the moment, more than race that determines the body of opinion of a given people at a given time. Germany, he points out, has abandoned metaphysics for physio-psychology, and it is at Oxford, not at any German university, that the last remaining metaphysicians are to be found. But the great tradition of the writers who secured for France its predominating influence over other countries is faithfully carried on, not by French writers, but by those of the North. The superstition of art for art's sake, the exploiting of one's own individuality, the absorption in nauseating amorous experiences—all this, he shows, is far removed from the natural development of French race or French tradition either. It is not to be wondered at that French literature seeks a return from its present degeneracy to the ideal of its own good period by way of the sound and strenuous literature of the northern countries. Such plain speaking as this from a critic who is so much the law unto minor critics as is M. Brunetière, is as refreshing as a clear cool breeze in a sultry day of midsummer.

—Every one in his turn for the translator who goeth about roaring; and, Ibsen devoured, Echegaray was next. To make the transition as easy as possible, the latter's most Ibsenish play (so confessed by the author himself) was chosen to lead off with. This, "The Son of Don Juan," we had some time ago from Roberts Bros., translated by James Graham. Another of the Spanish dramatist's later productions, "Mariana," has also been given an English dress by the same publishers and translator. What is probably Echegaray's greatest (certainly it is his most famous) play, "El Gran Galeoto," together with a drama which has long been a popular favorite, "O Locura ó Santidad," now comes to us "done into English prose" by Hannah Lynch (London: Lane; Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.). This translation cannot be highly praised. It is correct enough in general, but has no insight for the nicer dependencies, and constantly misses the connections which, in the Spanish, get you smoothly over the joltings of the version. The translator fails to see, often, how a word which may mean what she thinks, must mean something else as used. Her translation of the very title of the second play, "*Folly* or Saintliness," is a case in point. *Locura* must mean here "madness," if the whole point and a large part of the action of the play are not to be lost outright. Such a method wrongs the Spanish, and often results, of course, in choice specimens of "translation English." "El Gran Galeoto" is no doubt a difficult play to make intelligible to a septentrional, so full of southern presuppositions is it; but the puzzle is little clarified by this attempt to make the play at home in English.

EXPERIMENTAL BIBLIOGRAPHY.

A Reader's Guide to Contemporary Literature: Being the First Supplement to 'The Best Books.' By William Swan Sonnenschein. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895. 4to, pp. 16, lxxiv, 775.

WHAT is most puzzling in this "First Supplement" to the work reviewed in these columns four years ago is the question as to its exact scope. As regards the period of time covered (which is, in general, from 1891 to 1894), Mr. Sonnenschein states in his preface that while one portion of the present work was "at press," he has continued his "work upon the next." Thus, near the end of the book, one finds Jespersen's 'Progress in Language,' a work published in October, 1894, while the new edition of Pennell's 'Pen-Drawing,' published very nearly at the same time, is looked for in vain, since its classification would have been reached about two hundred pages earlier. While a similar reason will serve to account for the absence of numerous other publications of the year 1894, it by no means accounts for omissions in typical instances like the following, all of which antedate 1894: Séché's 'Les Derniers Jansénistes,' Ratzel's 'Politische Geographie der Vereinigten-Staaten,' Larroumet's 'Études de Littérature et d'Art,' and the 1893 translation of Compayré's 'Psychology applied to Education.' Even if we bear in mind the compiler's explanation that he has not only "used this Supplement for addenda to the main work" ("books which should have been, but were not, included in the previous volume"), but has made this new volume, so to speak, "run on at the foot of it," we are still in the dark. Neither in the original publication nor in the Supplement is there any mention of such works as Doniol's 'Histoire de la Participation de la France à l'Établissement des États-Unis d'Amérique,' or Baron Ricasoli's 'Lettere e Documenti,' both of which, covering as they do a series of volumes, lap over the periods of Mr. Sonnenschein's two compilations respectively. The same is true of serial publications, such as the *Educational Review* (New York). That there is a new edition of Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia now in progress, Mr. Sonnenschein is indeed aware, but his entry of it under "Johnson, *Edwin Rossiter*," is well fitted to produce nearly as much bewilderment in the reader's mind as the curious entries of Flint's 'Statistics of Public Libraries' at p. 547.

There are two other directions in which one naturally looks for light in regard to the scope of the work, namely, the question of language —whether in English or not; and the question of quality—whether the "best" books only or not. Not only does the present volume not confine its entries to works in English, but it includes the issues of the press in even the remoter portions of Europe, as well as contributions to the bibliography of the less known literatures of Europe. Yet under the heading "Rhæto-Romanian Philology and Literature" one fails to find Prof. Willard Fiske's catalogue of his Rhæto-Romanic Collection. As regards quality in selection, the original work's characteristic designation, 'The Best Books,' is ignored, so far as possible, in the present volume, and the preface even announces the deliberate intention of including certain "bad" books, with a view "to warn readers off them." This is a laudable intention, and yet there is a surprisingly large number of books—under such suggestive titles as, for instance, 'Tracked to Doom,' or 'Who Poisoned Hetty Duncan?' (p. 577)—which would seem to have eluded this warning off. These entries may be attributed to a not unnatural difference of opinion as to the merits of certain books, or, on the other hand, to an oversight on the part of the compiler. In either case they have helped to swell the bulk of the volume, which is by no means slight. As already stated above, the period covered is, in general, from 1891 to 1894 (subject to certain modifications); but, for the publications of these less than five years, more than 775 pages are required, while the publications of many times five years are brought within about 1,009 pages in the original work.

It is not easy to understand the compiler's attitude towards this question of bulk. Has it been his aim to reduce it to a minimum or not? If one should confine his attention to the instances of rubbish (not so characterized) above cited, one would doubtless say No. So would one if noting such instances as Farini, a work which is now not only forty years out of date, but of which the compiler remarks: "Of no particular value now" (p. 338); or Williams's 'Village Buildings,' on which his comment is: "Not much more than an architect's trade catalogue" (p. 505). But as soon as one comes in contact with the remarkable scheme of abbreviations employed throughout the book, this opinion is likely to be reversed, or at least held in abeyance. No such abandonment to the abbreviating tendency has been seen in any work intended for the public to consult, not even in the predecessor to this volume, and it is next to inexplicable except on the supposition of economizing space or economizing time.

A recent most interesting biography of a great historian is provided with a series of elaborate foot-notes; and so minutely is everything explained therein—"oligarchy," for instance, being defined as "literally, the rule of

the few"—that one is led to wonder just what age of readers the book was intended for. For a wholly opposite reason the reader's wonder is excited in the present volume. The formal "list of abbreviations" (most of which are usually met with) is supplied at the beginning of the volume, only slightly enlarged from that in its predecessor, but is followed by the remark: "Other abbreviations adopted in the book will, it is thought, be readily intelligible." The reader should feel highly flattered at this tribute to his intelligence, or, rather, power of mind reading, for it implies that he is a trained archæologist, and can not only make "inscripp." read "inscriptions" (p. 699), but even make "Mancs." read "Manchester" (p. 618). More than this, it implies that he can, so to speak, penetrate the compiler's inner consciousness, and instead of setting down as jargon such creations as "charstics." and "parly." (p. xxxvi and 550), take them at once to be "char*acteris*tics" and "par*liamentary*," and that he will see that "compreh." stands for "compre*hensive*," and nothing else (p. 128). He will not stumble over the language, "actresses ment. in the poem," and "Advents. in a Great City," but will read in full, as intended, "men*tioned*" and "Adrift" (pp. 596 and 578). He must think naught amiss in "A v. suggestive bk.," apart from the prodigal waste of letters in "suggestive" (p. 770); and if "The $1.25 Cent. Co. N. Y. 91," following the words "Squirrel Inn" (p. 583), should raise in his mind fleeting visions of a "bargain counter," he can but blush at thus betraying the confidence reposed in him. He must be able to abbreviate, as well as think, in other languages than English, and to render "Cte." by C*om*te (p. 7), "Hi." by H*enri* (p. 739); and, if the problem be a title-a-line, render "Ægyptr." by "Ægypt*er*" (p. lxvi), though the "title-a-line" scheme frequently proves a good deal of a will-o'-the-wisp. Compression is good, yet it can hardly be denied that it is gained at the expense of ambiguity in some of these instances. Only a knowledge of the book's contents, for example, will prevent one of Mr. Sonnenschein's American readers from seeing "New England" in the entry, "Folkl. of N. Engl." (p. 103), but it is the "*Northern* Counties of *England*" that the author means; and such an entry as "Early Vedic hymns to Tennyson" (p. 549) certainly requires to be preceded by "From," to obviate the amazing idea which it must convey to the uninitiated. Unusual penetration is surely required to decipher "Et." as "*Everett*" (p. xxiii), yet one can here turn from the index to the fuller form in the text. No such antidote, however, is at hand in the case of the confusion of the sexes resulting from the use of the same abbreviation—in text and index alike—for two different names. Thus, one should read "Franc*is*" in the case of "Thompson, Fcs." (p. 601), but "Franc*es*" in the case of "Lord, Prf. Fcs. E.' (p. 697). Such instances as those cited above assuredly do not save the reader's time. It may be questioned if so complicated a scheme of periods, hyphens, etc., as is represented, for instance, in "pt.-of-view" (p. 567), is a saving of the printer's time, or even of the compiler's time.

If we turn from the scope of the work to its execution, the positions and aims of the compiler are here also not always easy to comprehend. That such a scheme of annotations as the one hinted at in his preface would be of real service to the reader, it is impossible to doubt—namely, a digesting of "the verdicts of the best reviewers." But in too large a number of cases they represent nothing of the kind, but only a lengthened soliloquizing of the compiler. Some of the more astonishing of these cases, whether as reflecting a verbose, an undignified, or a jaunty mood of the annotator, are under Crawford (p. 617), Saintsbury (p. 565), North (p. 317), and Marshall (p. 132). As a "lost opportunity," in the way of anno tation, may be mentioned the omission to point out, under Prof. Joseph H. Thayer's 'Books and their Use' (whose title suggests apparently the most general scope), that it relates to theological books only (p. 541). Another omission is under "Wide-Awake Stories," by Mrs. Steel and Mr. Temple (p. 112), where the reader needs to be notified of the book's reappearance in 1894 with a changed title, 'Tales of the Punjab.' A somewhat analogous instance of omission is the failure to make some mention of Prof. A. B. Bruce's 'The Kingdom of God,' under St. Luke's Gospel, to which it very particularly relates, although the book is entered elsewhere.

This last-named instance is in reality a question of classification, and in this field also Mr. Sonnenschein leaves much to be desired. It is true that no two readers will ever be found to agree as to every detail of classification and sub classification in such a scheme as this; yet the method here employed well serves the practical uses of this kind of work of reference. It is one thing, however, to adopt a scheme of classification, and quite another thing to distribute the titles under it with perfect accuracy. Blind leadership is inevitable when this distribution is made by the compiler without making acquaintance with the book in question, as when Mrs. Seelye's work on the life of George Washington is entered with G. G. Evans's 'Washington Illustrated,' a work on the city of Washington (p. 289); the whole being still further complicated by being placed in an alphabetical order of States, between Virginia and Wisconsin, as if both books related to the State of Washington; or when Mrs. Shattuck's 'Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law' is placed under "Constitutional and Parliamentary Law," sub heading, "Constitutional Law," with Sir William R. Anson and other authorities (p. 154); or (most unkind of all), when Miss Barlow's 'Bog-land Studies' are labelled "Prose Fiction" (p. 579). It was surely well to include Dr. Coues's laborious reissue of the Lewis and Clark narrative of ninety years ago, but not under the heading, "Recent Travel and Description" (p. 287), where it appears; and also the invaluable 'Antología de Poetas Hispano Americanos' of M. Menéndez y Pelayo, but the latter is as good as buried by being entered only under "Spanish Philology," sub heading, "Dialects" (p. 745), and not at all under "Poetry," or even "Literature."

In the compiler's own attitude towards the question of the book's faultlessness or the reverse, the present volume offers a welcome contrast to its predecessor's astonishing self-consciousness of "substantial accuracy"; and the preface does not fail to suggest that "many slight, if not misleading, errors" have crept in. But it is surprising to read, in the very next sentence, of a certain class of errors, or, indeed, of any class of errors, that "they are all rectified in the Index"; for this is a volume in which the index makes sad work of many things which had been accurately entered in the body of the work. Such instances include the entry of Horace Walpole's name with the title of Earl of Oxford; and Mr. Goodyear's 'The Grammar of the Lotus' as 'Grammar of Law.' Confusion is caused, moreover, not only by the printing of wrong page-numbers in the index-references, and by the omission of a considerable number of names from the index, but by imperfect alphabeting of some of the names. "Skertchly," for instance, is indexed on one page when its alphabetical order would have placed it on the preceding page. By a simple oversight in the employment of the inverted commas, Mr. R. G. Thwaites becomes Thwaite in the index, Miss Edith Thompson is left destitute of any Christian name, and Mr. Huxley's writings are run in with the different members of the Hutton family. There is usually an extra hazard in straying from the beaten path of official designations, if one is not "to the manner born," as where the indexer reproduces the American State, New Hampshire (used on p. 224 in connection with Dartmouth College), at p. xvii of the index as "New Hants." As showing how a volume may be heedlessly "buried" in the index, so far as the reader's search for it is concerned, it may be mentioned that a book describing the "Tsar" and his people (by various writers), is entered, incorrectly, at p. 267, as "*Is*ar and his People"; and the index accordingly reproduces it in I, instead of in T. In like manner, one of Mr. J. Walter Fewkes's descriptions of Zuñi antiquities is entered, quite inadequately, at p. 667. Since, however, the name is misprinted "*T*ewkes," its index entry is lost by being reproduced in T instead of F. Indeed, this book is doubly buried, for, instead of appearing where one would properly look for it in the text, under New Mexico, Mr. Sonnenschein enters it under Alaska.

Instances of confused identity were frequent in the index to this book's predecessor, but their reappearance in the present volume is the more surprising because of the vigorous denunciation which the compiler administers in the preface to other bibliographical authorities who have erred in this particular. Indeed, this is, according to the claim of the preface, the one class of errors fully "rectified in the index." Some of these instances are due to the mechanical reproduction of some error in the body of the book, as where Mr. E. S. Brooks is made into two persons, one having his surname correctly printed and the other incorrectly; others to a chaotic uncertainty about alphabeting English names beginning with a preposition, as where Aubrey De Vere is to be looked for partly in D and partly in V; others to carelessness in the names of married women, as where Mrs. Norman's books are partly in N, under her present name, and partly in D, under Dowie, her maiden name; or where the indexer fails to identify Mrs. H. W. Steel with Flora Annie Steel. This last cited type of error is, however, far easier to condone than its predecessors, since it is of the first importance for a bibliographer to remember that no information is preferable to misinformation. It is, indeed, very much to the indexer's credit that he has combined three different forms of Mr. Brander Matthews's name, as found in the text, into a single index-entry, "Matthews, Jas. B.," a form, however, which is decidedly open to question. But he has, in so doing, "gathered in" also a Matthews who is neither James nor Brander—Mr. Joseph Bridges Matthews, an English solicitor, whose identity is quite distinct from that of the American essayist. A still different variety of error is that of confounding the author's sex, as in the entries Ward, Juli*a* H. (p. 48), and Allen, Ja*ne* Lane (p. 288), under which feminine disguises two well-known writers masquerade—the latter both in the text and in the index.

There remains still to be mentioned one more type of errors, for the bewilderment of the reader who desires to comprehend the plan of

the book's execution. Representative instances are the entry, in the text, of the Unionist statesman's name as "Rich." Chamberlain (p. 208), in the case of a book which is published by the same firm that issues this very 'Readers' Guide.' It is, of course, inconceivable that the compiler should not have known the true name; and in the index it properly appears as "Jos." But so it is also inconceivable that the compiler should not have known the true name of the late General Charles George Gordon (here entered as "Gordon, Gen. C. J." (p. 322), but this is not corrected in the index. On the other hand, the name of Rev. Stopford A. Brooke appears in the text (p. 734) in the inverted form, "A. Stopford," but here the index supplies the correct form. In the text, moreover (p. 199), the name of Miss Elizabeth H. Botume is wrongly printed as "Elijah"; the context, however, mentioning the author as "Miss" Botume. Nevertheless, the "Elijah" is religiously reproduced in the index.

From the instances successively enumerated above, in all of which the reader's attempts to discover consistency or completeness in the compiler's aims are signally baffled, one can only infer that the volume represents an experimental attitude on the part of the compiler. A writer on the Renaissance period of architecture has well characterized it as a time at which the great masters of their art "experimented incessantly"; and surely nothing short of this description would seem to be adequate to describe Mr. Sonnenschein's bibliographical undertakings. There is very much to be thankful for in the present volume; representing, as it does, tremendous industry, almost unwearied persistence, and an exceptional command of the sources of information. Omissions have been cited which seem difficult to understand, and yet the inclusiveness of the work is so great (as certain striking instances might illustrate) that no library can dispense with it. And after all has been said, it is as a contribution to experimental bibliography that the work is chiefly to be welcomed, for the compiler, with a very unusual fertility in experimenting, has thrown light on nearly every problem of bibliography.

As regards scope, it seems plain that Mr. Sonnenschein has rightly read the need existing for a work on a large scale, international in its inclusiveness, not limiting itself to the few "best books," but supplying a comprehensive view of the world's literature as it accumulates, and appearing continuously and at regular intervals. Certain of the largest libraries will still need to send each year, as they have always sent, to every civilized country, obtaining from each its separate national bibliography; but these instances do not begin to meet the requirements of the widely distributed "student and the general reader," to cite Mr. Sonnenschein's language, whom such a compilation as this has in mind. As regards classification, the objection that the scheme on which the present volume is based is unduly minute is hardly well taken, provided that misleading individual instances like those cited in this notice be eliminated, and provided also that so practically useful an index as the present one be always supplied as a clue to the whole. To be more explicit, an index constructed like this, not confining its entries to page-numbers, and having every book represented in it, not only will invariably save the time of the reader using it as a means of turning to the text, but will itself serve as the answer to a certain percentage of demands upon it. Still further, the change made by Mr. Sonnenschein in the present volume is to be welcomed in the interest of simplicity, whereby there is substituted for the two separate indexes in the 1891 issue ("Authors and Titles Index" and "Subjects Index") the present consolidated index of all three forms of entry. Even more welcome is the restoration of a "Synopsis of Classification" (included in the 1887 publication, but omitted in that of 1891), but the reader will be still more grateful if the page-numbers shall be added, in the case of at least the chief headings of this "Synopsis." Abbreviations of some sort are an obvious necessity in a work of this nature, but one's judgment, it would seem, as well as the actual experience of the reader, will surely suggest that they be limited to such as can be interpreted by the public, instead of being recalled only by the individual memory of the compiler. Annotations such as those shadowed forth in the preface to the present work, though but inadequately supplied in the text (together with others of a still different type, represented under Forrest, p. 342, Philips, p. 250, Dutton, p. 390, Bower, p. 643, and, with some allowances, Garnier, p. 501), will add distinctly to the serviceableness of the work. The excellent feature of the present work, of supplying dates in what some would perhaps regard as a lavish profusion—dates, namely, of publication, of reissue, of period actually covered in the narrative, etc.—should emphatically not be impaired by dilution.

As regards more mechanical features, any future work may well imitate the present one in wisely placing the page-number at the bottom of the page, thus leaving space for the various running head-lines at the top. In this volume, as in its predecessor, the choice of the various fonts of type employed gives evidence of careful study and admirable judgment; and the arrangement of the type, with the exception of the cumbrous device for indicating joint authors, can be almost unreservedly praised. Not only are the proportions of the printed page satisfactory, but so also are the dimensions of the book itself; and it is one which opens easily and lies open readily. Lastly, the fact should be emphasized that future work of this kind should be more nearly free from error. It is true that even if the directory of some city should make its appearance in any given year with more than its due percentage of errors, no firm engaged in a business of any magnitude could afford to dispense with a copy, and the field covered by Mr. Sonnenschein's successive issues is such that no library feels able to dispense with them. Nevertheless, whether by resorting to a coöperative plan (instead of practically depending on "a single hand"), or by refraining from the attempt to crowd too great a mass of work into an impossibly short time, there should in future be a much nearer approach to "substantial accuracy" than has yet been attained. The present volume has perhaps a smaller percentage of error than its predecessor, yet to have had a larger would be hardly possible. Surely the almost appalling industry and extraordinary fertility of invention represented in this volume should deserve a better fate than the praise with large reservations which alone is possible in this instance.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

Col. T. W. Knox's 'In Wild Africa' (Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co.) is the account of a journey of two boys across the Sahara. The author endeavors to blend instruction with amusement, and is fairly successful in describing life on the oases and in the desert and some of the towns of the western Sudan; but the adventures possess little interest. The route chosen by Col. Knox for his boy travellers from Algeria through Fezzan to Lake Tchad and Timbuctoo, it may be added, is practically as impossible, at the present time, as a pleasure excursion among the Mahdists or a trip to the Pole. The book is well printed and is attractive in appearance, but it is a pity that a map of the route was not given.

An adventurous journey in Alaska is the subject of Mr. Kirk Munroe's 'Snow-shoes and Sledges' (Harpers). Two plucky boys make their way, against innumerable obstacles, up the Yukon to its headwaters and thence across the mountains to the coast. This gives an opportunity, of which the author abundantly avails himself, to describe the country, the natives, and a mining camp in winter, as well as the manner of travelling and camping in the interior. Jalap Coombs, the old sailor, is sketched with some humor, while the strange influence of a fur-seal's tooth upon the fortunes of the boys and their companions gives a certain mystery to the story not without its charm. Some excellent illustrations add to the attractiveness of a book which will hold the interest of its readers from beginning to end.

In his 'Three Colonial Boys' (Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co.) Mr. Everett T. Tomlinson conveys much information regarding the enmity between the Whigs and Tories of New Jersey and Staten Island in the early days of the Revolution, and the danger attending the attempts to carry powder to the American army at Cambridge; but the youthful actors in the scenes described lack life and reality. Still, young readers will follow the fortunes of the boys with interest, especially of the one who sailed in the privateer. The book, which is attractively got up, is the first of the "War of the Revolution" Series.

A story of Colonial Virginia is Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Jack Ballister's Fortunes' (The Century Co.). It is the boy's misfortunes, however, which make most impression upon the reader, for he is first kidnapped and sold as a servant on a Virginia plantation, and escapes only to fall into the hands of pirates, from whom he finally rescues a fair damsel (and, incidentally, himself). Then, of course, good fortune comes apace. He falls heir to some money and marries the girl. The general plan of the story is commonplace, despite its historical setting. It is, moreover, embarrassed with a style wordy almost beyond endurance; but it serves as a support to the pictures, which, as they originally appeared in *St. Nicholas*, were uncommonly interesting. Unfortunately they have suffered badly in their reduction for this volume.

'Jack Alden,' by Warren Lee Goss (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), is an unusually interesting story. Its pictures of scenes and incidents of army life, from the march of the Sixth Massachusetts regiment through Baltimore to the surrender at Appomattox, are among the best which we can remember to have read. If at first thought the horrors of the battle-field and the hospital seem to be described in needlessly minute detail, still it is well that the youth of to-day should realize what a price was paid for the preservation of the Union, as well as the nature of even the best wars. The principal characters are well conceived and life-like. Lessons of patriotism and nobility of character are skilfully inculcated, and there is a just appreciation of the valor and sincerity of the Confederates. The book is thoroughly wholesome reading.

One could not wish a child to gain his first

knowledge of Napoleon from such a one-sided book as Mr. Elbridge S. Brooks's 'A Boy of the First Empire' (The Century Co.). Here we see this most versatile man in the character of a good husband (separated from his wife, to be sure, by "the cruel necessities of state policy," etc.), an unselfish patriot, a generous conqueror, and a lively, human companion and friend—all truly edifying, but scarcely historical. Moreover, if French children a century ago were as important and bumptious as they are here represented, their manners have certainly improved. To say nothing of the forwardness of Philip, the hero, we have a young girl of fourteen supporting a salon all by herself, and also dancing at a court ball, apparently without creating the least surprise.

The Century Co. reprints from the magazine Anna Eichberg King's quaint 'Kitwyk Stories' in an appropriate cover of blue and white Dutch tiles. Human nature is pretty much the same wherever you find it, and these little stories of village life in the staid Holland of a century ago will find enough response, even in this breathless time and place, to make them amusing occupation for a stray half-hour; but, as they are love stories, the youngest readers will doubtless vote them "stupid."

'Dear Little Marchioness: the Story of a Child's Faith and Love' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is much the sort of book that a judicious book-taster would expect from the name. The fact of the child's being a marchioness is the only thing at all distinctive about her. The saintly old negro, her faithful attendant, explains his virtue very profitably, no doubt, when he says, "Ev'y darky on my ole mistis' place wuz baptized, an' brung up in de Lord. An' I tuck de Blessed Sacrament whene'er her an' her chillens did. How, seh, do you s'pose I kep' frum takin' dat captain's pus, what he laid on de hall table dat day, but fur dat?" This new doctrine of the efficacy of the sacraments we must leave for the bishop to explain who wrote an approving introduction to the story.

Mr. Howard Pyle reappears in 'The Garden behind the Moon' (Scribners), a fantastic, half-allegorical—shall one venture to say, altogether tiresome?—book. "I believe," says the author, "it takes more wits to cobble a pair of shoes than to write a big book, and more cleverness to make a good wax-end than to draw a picture with a lead pencil." We agree, if this is the big book; but it must be much harder to make a good wax-end than we ever supposed, if these are the pictures, for they are by no means despicable.

It is a task like those set of old by malignant stepmothers and kings with handsome daughters, to make up a fairy story in these knowing days; and, without a fairy god-mother's help, it is, like them, impossible. Yet people still keep at it. A pretty-looking book of this sort is 'Elf-Errant,' by Moira O'Neill (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It babbles of the adventures of tiny elves who live in fox-glove bells, fight bumblebees, and ride on swallows' backs; but any sensible child who has access to the real old fairy stories will not waste precious time over such insipidity.

'The Kanter Girls,' by Mary L. B. Branch (Scribners), is another superfluous book. Two real little modern girls receive the typical fairy gifts—rings of invisibility, a boat which sails of itself according to the occupant's wish, a golden chariot to fly through the air, etc. And with these aids to travel they visit distant places and see unusual things. Two little sisters might tell each other such inventions, and it would do well enough to fill up the drowsy moments before bedtime, but we hope they would know better than to write it down in the morning.

'Chris and the Wonderful Lamp,' by Albert Stearns (The Century Co.), has some resemblance to the last-named book—that is, it bestows upon an every-day child a well-known fairy gift (in this case, Aladdin's lamp) and lets him use it according to his folly. It is, however, a much more interesting book, because strictly realistic in every other point. Chris has the lamp, to be sure, with its attendant genie at his command, but the fact that he gets so little real satisfaction and has so much annoyance in connection with it might suggest, even to a young reader, that it would be better to work steadily towards some attainable object than to have every idle wish immediately gratified. All which, doubtless, was in the author's mind, and gave him excuse for writing, though he wisely refrains from pointing the moral too obviously.

From fairies and magicians it is a relief to turn to 'Paddy O'Learey and his Learned Pig,' by Elizabeth W. Champney (Dodd, Mead & Co.), one of those unpretentious tales which are often the most satisfactory. The fortunes of an Irish boy as ordinary as his name are here told in a straightforward way, with inevitable humor and unconscious pathos enough to avoid monotony. The tone is very sympathetic, only at the end the author allows herself a little fun at Uncle Barney's expense when she raises him to the very highest pinnacle of distinction, in the estimation of his Irish friends, by making him an alderman in New York city. The pig is no mere adjunct, but such an intimate friend and boon companion as only a lean Irish pig can be, and well deserves his place on the title-page.

A collection of pleasantly written stories by Margaret Benson about her various pets is rather oddly entitled 'Subject to Vanity' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Vanity, in fact, is only one among the creatures' unexpected characteristics which the stories illustrate. It seems possible that their sympathetic friend has attributed more human feelings to birds, cats, kids, etc., than they really possessed; but, after all, she knew the individuals and we did not.

In 'The Horse Fair' (The Century Co.) Mr. James Baldwin recounts the most notable feats of our equine friends from time immemorial. Legend, history, and poetry contribute. Phaeton's impetuous team, old Rosinante, Sheridan's war-horse, and many another famous steed here course along and do their best to reawaken the enthusiasm which once greeted them. That nothing may be left out, metaphor is pressed into service to give us the "iron horse," and the dandy horse that came so near being a bicycle, besides the sailor's odd "hobby-horse" with barrel body and bottle eyes.

While the Constitutional Convention in South Carolina is endeavoring to put blacks and whites asunder, at the ballot-box and at the fireside, politically and matrimonially, Mr. Joel Chandler Harris shows how inseparably his literary reputation is bound up with the race to which his Uncle Remus belonged. His 'Little Mr. Thimblefinger and his Queer Country' of last season is now provided with a sequel, 'Mr. Rabbit at Home' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The scene and the personages are the same, and again the real drollery of the conversation is confined to the colored nurse-girl Drusilla, while the animal stories surpass in humor all Mr. Harris's inventions or adaptations of older properties. The loss of the negro dialect continues to be felt—all the more because Mr. Rabbit, having taken the floor in place of Uncle Remus, spends his old age in breaking down the distinction between *shall* and *will*, not to speak of minor vulgarisms of the old plantation. Laughable enough is "Why the Bear is a Wrestler"; and fairly humorous are "The Rabbit and the Moon," "An Old-Fashioned Fuss," and "A Mountain of Gold." In the last, either Mr. Harris is obscure or he insinuates the dogma of fiat money, as would be not unlikely from his connection with the staff of the perverse Atlanta *Constitution*. Mr. Oliver Herford's illustrations are as uneven as the quality of the tales.

The Love-Letters of Mr. H. and Miss R., 1775–1779. Edited by Gilbert Burgess. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. 1895.

It was quite worth while for Mr. Gilbert Burgess to reprint the Hackman-Reay love-letters, for they are not without literary value; we wish the editor had found it equally worth his while to face fairly and discuss critically the question of authenticity that this new edition inevitably revives.

The story of the letters is briefly as follows: In 1775 James Hackman, a young British officer, fell violently in love with Martha Reay, that beautiful and accomplished mistress of Lord Sandwich, who bore to him, among nine children, Basil Montagu, the champion of Bacon's personal character. Miss Reay, whose love for her dissolute "protector" was chiefly a quite unnecessary gratitude, long reciprocated Hackman's passion, and gave him strong hopes that she would marry him. After four years, during which time Hackman had sold his commission and taken orders—to escape the fate of an army life in Ireland afar from his lady-love—Miss Reay refused to wed. Hackman conceived that he had lost her love; and in despair he sought her at the theatre to destroy himself in her presence. Here, yielding to a sudden fit of jealousy, he shot the lady dead, and, to his wrath, succeeded in inflicting but a slight wound upon himself. He was tried, sentenced to death, and hanged; behaving on his trial and at the gallows with a fine manliness that touched London to the heart.

A year later Sir Herbert Croft told the story in a thick pamphlet called 'Love and Madness,' giving what purported to be copies of a genuine correspondence between the dead lovers. Croft inserted in one letter an important biographical sketch of Chatterton, dishonestly employing for the purpose documents lent him by Chatterton's mother and sister. When the book succeeded, Croft claimed the authorship of this letter. The world immediately doubted the genuineness of the rest; Johnson was severe; and in the *Monthly Magazine* a well-informed person expressed the general sentiment thus: "Of their authenticity we can say but little; for though we profess ourselves critics, we pretend not to be conjurors." Mr. Burgess ought to have quoted this canny remark of old John Nichols, and heeded the force of it. In this new edition, however, Mr. Burgess counts as genuine all the correspondence except the Chatterton matter; he does so after "exhaustive investigation." However dull reading a really critical controversy on this subject might have made, an editor to whom such letters seemed "a veritable 'human document' of strong interest," was bound to show the process of sifting by which his conclusion was reached.

We pretend neither to have made an "exhaustive investigation" of the case nor to be in any sense "conjurors"; but we have very little doubt that much in the letters besides

the Chatterton material is forged. Apart from purely technical matters of style, which we have no space to detail, there are numerous passages which bear every mark of insertion by Croft—an immensely versatile person—for dramatic effect. Some, if not all, the artistically ominous accounts of murder, suicide, and execution are not to be disposed of by lightly talking about "a morbid vein." And what ingenuous criticism can view without lively suspicion such sentences as the following, beside which the prophecies of a Swedenborg concerning his own death, pale?

"Yet, could I believe (which I own I cannot from the evidence in this case) that the idea of destroying her never struck him till his finger was at the trigger; that his only intention was to lay the breathless body of an injured lover at her feet—had this been the fact, however I might have condemned the deed, I certainly should have wept over the momentary phrenzy which committed it" (pp. 137, 138).

Again:

"(Should the pen of fancy ever take the trouble to invent letters for me, I should not be suffered to write to you thus, because it would seem *unnatural*. Alas! they know not how gladly a wretch like me forgets himself.)" (P. 172.)

The letters upon parts of which it would seem that suspicion must rest are of the following dates: February 16, 1776; February 22, 1776; May 29, 1776; June 18, 1776; September 15, 1776; September 18, 1776; January 26, 1777; February 6, 1777; June 27, 1777; September 20, 1777; March 2, 1778; January 28, 1779; April 18, 1779 (five P. M.). We cannot say we believe that all the rest are untampered with; but nothing is easier than to doubt.

Palmyra and Zenobia: An Account of Palmyra and Zenobia, with Travels and Adventures in Bashan and the Desert. By Dr. William Wright. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 1895.

THE first part of this book is the narrative of a trip to Palmyra in 1874, with some notices of an earlier visit in 1872, and a few chapters on the history of Zenobia and her city Palmyra. The second part is the narrative of a missionary journey to the Lejah and Hauran. Both narratives are full of adventure, breezy and interesting. Dr. Wright must be a man of almost foolhardy courage and of great physical strength and endurance. He rides from Palmyra to Damascus, a five day's journey, in one stretch. Entirely alone he goes through regions swarming with brigands and marauding "bedawin," and his encounters with these gentry, from which he always emerges victorious, not infrequently making friends and adherents of his adversaries, are both exciting and entertaining. He has a keen sense of humor, which often stood him in good stead in dealing with the Arabs. He was also well acquainted with Arabic, and is able in consequence to present a far more interesting picture of the people than the ordinary traveller can do. He was a good sportsman and an indefatigable explorer, and while his narrative is thoroughly popular in its character, there is much in it of value both to the archæologist and to the Bible student. One might have expected the author of 'The Empire of the Hittites' to find traces of Hittites wherever he went, but, if we remember aright, the Hittites are mentioned only once in the whole book, and then incidentally. Outside of the history of Palmyra, which, we are sorry to say, Dr. Wright connects with Solomon, archæological information and Bible references are introduced only casually, but are in themselves apt and almost always good.

Dr. Wright made a thorough exploration of the apparently inaccessible high-tower tombs at Palmyra, taking with him ladders and grappling irons for that purpose. He also swam up and explored for some distance the warm, underground sulphur stream at Palmyra, which appears above ground in the fountain called Ephca. In his zeal for exploration he sometimes found himself in dangerous positions, as when he dropped through a small hole at the foot of a mound in the present cemetery at Palmyra. He fell into a vault seven or eight feet high, sixty feet long, and twenty-seven feet wide.

"There were nine recesses for bodies on either side, and five at the lower end. The recesses, in length and general dimensions, resembled the *loculi* in the tomb towers which we had already explored; but they were cemented down the sides, and each had five shelves of hard-baked pottery fitted and cemented into them. On these shelves the embalmed corpses of the Palmyrans were laid, the bodies having been rammed in head foremost, with the feet out."

It was a unique and most interesting discovery, and fortunately Dr. Wright had with him some magnesian wire, by means of which he was able to explore the tomb. But it was not so easy to get out as it had been to get in. The hole was out of reach in the roof above him. He tried to reach it by means of steps which he built out of the pottery tiles and mummies from the *loculi*, but in vain, and for a time it looked as though he were buried alive in an ancient Palmyran grave. Finally, some passing Palmyrans heard him singing and shouting, and reported that the dead were crying out of the bowels of the earth. This gave Dr. Wright's people a clue to his whereabouts, and he was rescued from "sheol."

On another occasion, while exploring a ruin in the Lejah, he dropped through a hole and landed in the midst of a family party of Druses at their supper. "Fancy a man dropping through your ceiling when you are all at supper, and you will not be surprised to hear that I was greeted with a stony stare. I said all the apologies that I was acquainted with in Arabic, suitable to the circumstances, and immediately they were all delighted to see me, and no excuse would save me from partaking of their food."

Dr. Wright is a missionary of the robust, burly type, carrying the repeating-rifle in one hand and the Bible in the other. But it must be said that he regarded the former as a means of defence to be shown always, but not to be used except as a last resort. He never did use it, in fact, but the threat to use it saved him from brigands more than once. On the other hand, he was evidently much in earnest in his genuine interest in the people, and willing to risk his life for their good. He even attempted to bring those shyest and most unknown of all Arabs, the Suleib, into the missionary schools. If somewhat burly, his Christianity is also affectionate and tender.

The country north and south of Damascus along the desert is at the best of times dangerous and unsettled, and at the time of the journeys described in this volume the conditions were desperate. These conditions Dr. Wright describes graphically and effectively, ascribing them to Turkish misrule. He narrates several instances of collusion between Turkish officials and Arab brigands. On one occasion he was even an eye-witness to a meeting between red-handed robbers and their ally, the Turkish Governor of Palmyra. Turkish misrule he seems to ascribe to Islam, to which religion and its founder, Mohammed, he is not altogether fair. The Druses he seems to prefer to the Moslems, and as an Englishman he finds in them natural allies, among whom he is safe even when they are at war with the Turks. Christians of the native churches do not find favor in his sight, but at the same time he observes that Christian villages are more thrifty, industrious, enterprising, and intelligent than those inhabited by Moslems.

The book is well got up and profusely illustrated, containing 381 illustrations, including three maps, in the space of 394 pages. The maps are sufficient to explain Dr. Wright's route, and the illustrations are good, and helpful, excepting a few fancy pictures, which look as if they had been made for a boys' book of adventures.

Shakespeare's Heroines on the Stage. By C. E. L. Wingate. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

IT seems certain that Mr. Wingate must have expended much time and labor upon this work, but unluckily the result is not correspondingly valuable. He has selected fourteen of the principal female characters of Shakspere with which to head as many chapters, and then has proceeded to group beneath them notices of the various actresses, good, bad, and indifferent, who have impersonated these parts upon the stage in this country and in England since the Restoration. Naturally he has accumulated a large quantity of information, personal, statistical, and other, but the greater and best part of it—that relating to the famous actresses of preceding generations—can be found in fuller and more convenient form elsewhere, while much of the matter referring to the exploits of modern performers is scarcely worth preservation.

Mr. Wingate's work appears to be accurate, so far as it goes, but, owing to the manner of its arrangement, is not likely to be of much use for reference. The disconnected and fragmentary style, the profusion of insignificant names, and the unavoidable confusion of dates are serious faults; but the anecdotes and the plentiful illustrations will provide casual amusement to the careless reader of gossip.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Acton, Lord. A Lecture on the Study of History. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Allen, W. B. The Mammoth Hunters. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Ashe, R. P. Chronicles of Uganda. Randolph. $2.
Austin, Alfred. In Veronica's Garden. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2 50.
Bascom, Prof. John. Social Theory: A Grouping of Social Facts and Principles. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1 75.
Beljame, Al. Alastor; ou Le Génie de la Solitude. Poème Traduit en Prose Française. Paris: Hachette.
Berdoe, Edward. Browning Studies: Being Select Papers by Members of the Browning Society. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $2 25.
Blackwell, Dr. Elizabeth. Pioneer Work in Opening the Medical Profession to Women. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Bonney, Prof. T. G. Charles Lyell and Modern Geology. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bourget, Paul. The Land of Promise. F. T. Neely.
Campaigns in Virginia, 1861—1862. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Cheney, C. Emma Number 49 Tinkham Street. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
"Chip's" Dogs. R. H. Russell & Son. $1.
"Chip's" Old Wood Cuts. R. H. Russell & Son. $1.
Church, Prof. A. J. Roman Life in the Days of Cicero. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Church, Prof. A. J. Stories from Virgil. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Cobban, J. M. The King of Andaman: A Saviour of Society. Appletons.
Cooper, F. T. Word Formation in the Roman Sermo Plebeivs: An Historical Study. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Cornish, Vaughan. Practical Proofs of Chemical Laws. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Crawford, F. M. Casa Braccio. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2.
Crockett, S. R. The Stickit Minister. Macmillan. 50c.
Defoe, Daniel. The Fortunate Mistress. 2 vols. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Edgeworth, Maria. Popular Tales. Macmillan. $1.25.
Ellis, E. S. The Young Conductor. Merriam Co. $1.25.
Field, Eugene, and R. M. Echoes from the Sabine Farm. Scribners. $2.
Gannett, W. C. The House Beautiful. Boston: J. H. West. 50 cents.

Godkin, E. L. Reflections and Comments. 1865-1895. Scribners. $2.
Graham, P. A. Country Pastimes for Boys. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Green, Prof. W. H. The Unity of the Book of Genesis. Scribners. $3.
Griffin, W. T. Grandmont: Stories of an Old Monastery. Hunt & Eaton. $1.20.
Hall, Ruth What Shall We Do? Suggestions for Entertainment. R. H. Russell & Son. 50 cents.
Hatch, F. H., and Chalmers, J. A. The Gold Mines of the Rand. Macmillan. $5.50.
Hodges, Elizabeth. Some Ancient English Homes and their Associations, Personal, Archæological and Historic. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $4.
Hort, Prof. F. J. A. Prolegomena to St. Paul's Epistles to the Romans and the Ephesians. Macmillan. $1.75.
Hubbard, Elbert Little Journeys to the Homes of Good Men and Great. Putnams. $1.75
Hunt, Violet. A Hard Woman: A Story in Scenes. Appletons.
Irving, Washington. Tales of a Traveller. 2 vols. [Buckthorne Edition.] Putnams. $6.
Jameson, Anna. Sacred and Legendary Art. New ed. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Jay, W. M. L. Farrar Year-Book. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Karoly, Karl. A Guide to the Paintings of Venice. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Second Jungle Book. Century Co. $1.50.
La Farge, John. Considerations on Painting. Macmillan. $1.25.
Lamb, Charles. Essays. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Lamon, W. H. Recollections of Abraham Lincoln, 1847—1865. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Langley, E. M. A Treatise on Computation. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Luff, Dr. A. P. Text-Book of Forensic Medicine and Toxicology. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.50.
Maas, Prof. A. J. Christ in Type and Prophecy. Vol. II. Benziger Bros.
Macan, R. W. Herodotus: the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Books. 2 vols. Macmillan. $6.50.
Martin, J. M. Which Way, Sirs, the Better? A Story of Our Toilers. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Matson, Henry. Knowledge and Culture. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75c.
Meyer, Kuno. The Voyage of Bran: An Old Irish Saga now first edited. Vol I. London: David Nutt.
Milligan, Rev. George. The English Bible: A Sketch of its History. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Randolph. 30c.
Morshead, E. D. A. The Ajax and Electra of Sophocles translated into English Prose. London: Methuen & Co.
Nettleship, Prof. Henry. Lectures and Essays. Second Series. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.90
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Ronald, Mary. The Century Cook Book. Century Co. $2.
Ruskin, John. Sesame and Lilies. [Elia Series.] Putnams. $2.25.
Savidge, E. C. The American in Paris: A Biographical Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co
Schuckburgh, E. S. Cicero de Senectute. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Scott, E. G. Reconstruction during the Civil War in the United States of America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Scudder, Vida D. The Witness of Denial. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Sharpe, R. R. London and the Kingdom Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Shelley, Frank. Legends of Gems. R. H. Russell & Son.
Smith, F. H. A Gentleman Vagabond, and Some Others. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Steele, Mary D. A Happy Life. Dayton, O.: United Brethren Publishing House. $1.
St. Felix, Marie. Patricia. Merriam Co. 50 cents.
Stoddard, W. O. The Partners: The Story of an Everyday Girl and Boy. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Stokes, Margaret. Three Months in the Forests of France. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Stryker, Rev. M. W. The Letter of James the Just. Arranged for College Classes. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Sudermann, H. The Wish. Rand, McNally & Co.
Tarr, Prof R. S. Elementary Physical Geography. Macmillan. $1.40.
The Cathedrals of England. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston & Co. $3.50.
The Faience Violin. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Thomas, Edith M. In the Young World. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Tiffany, Francis. This Goodly Frame the Earth: Stray Impressions in a Journey touching Japan, China, Egypt, Palestine and Greece. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Tiffany, Rev. C. C. History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States. Christian Literature Co. $3.
Told on the Pagoda: Tales of Burmah. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.
Tomlins, W. L. The Child's Garden of Song. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co $2.
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Tyner, Paul. Cash or Credit? Madison, Wis.: The Impress Co. 10 cents.
Walsh, H. C. The Last Cruise of the Miranda: A Record of Arctic Adventure. Transatlantic Publishing Co.
Waylen, H. S. H. Thoughts from the Writings of Richard Jefferies. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
White, Horace. Money and Banking Illustrated by American History Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
White, Percy. Corruption: A Novel. Appletons.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 14, 1895.

The Week.

REPUBLICANS cannot be blamed for saying that their sweeping victories of November 5 make their success in the next Presidential election certain. Yet even the most elate of them have a haunting recollection that they felt just as certain in 1884 and 1890. The conservative vote which their Blaine and tariff and Force Bill debauch alienated has now no doubt returned to them; but there is time for it to be alienated again before next November. Let them only give Tanner, Foraker, Chandler, and McKinley, to say nothing of Platt, Quay, and Sewell, rope enough, and the hanging of the party will be among the easy possibilities. Senator Sherman already threatens a duty on wool and a general and speedy tariff upheaval. He and too many other leaders are deceived by the idea that the country wants them to "do something." But that is precisely what the country is sick and tired of. Doing something is what has undone one party after the other. As the Antinomian hymn says: "Doing is a deadly thing, doing ends in death." The voters of the nation are prepared to hail a party which will frankly say that it proposes to legislate as little as possible; that it is not going to insist upon making everybody rich, wise, and virtuous by law. All the Republicans have to do is to stand still and see their salvation. If they are too eager to help things along by going to war with England, or ripping up the tariff, or inflating the currency again, they may easily find the disagreeable lessons of 1890 and 1892 set them once more.

Right-minded men of both parties may rejoice together over the overwhelming rejection of Jingoism in the person of the one candidate who made his campaign on that issue. That unscrupulous demagogue, Campbell of Ohio, who was willing to "chance" free coinage a few years ago, made his bid for the Ohio governorship this year on a platform, which he constructed for himself, of waving the flag on all occasions, driving Great Britain out of Venezuela, serving notice that "the people are not prepared to lie down and allow the British lion to put his paws on them," and no end of such nonsense. This was really the one national issue that he put forward, and with the hardly concealed purpose of running for President on a Jingo platform next year if he should carry Ohio this year. The result was his defeat by a majority never before equalled in any gubernatorial campaign in Ohio, save when the Democrats in the middle of the war committed the criminal folly of making the "copperhead" Vallandigham their candidate.

Among the driblets of the election are two items, not very important in themselves, but of great significance as indicating the drift of public opinion. One of these is the stunning defeat of Edward Lane, the Democratic candidate for Congress in the Eighteenth District of Illinois. Mr. Lane made his campaign on the sole issue of the free coinage of silver. Lane was a member of the last Congress, and he distinguished himself by introducing a bill to make all gold contracts payable in silver. This monstrous measure to enable all debtors to cheat their creditors was actually reported favorably by the judiciary committee of the House, although the vote in favor of it was less than a majority of the full committee. Mr. Lane was also one of the most vociferous advocates of the Illinois free-silver, separate-action convention which Gov. Altgeld and Secretary Hinrichsen engineered last spring. The district in which Lane ran for Congress is usually Democratic by a decided majority, and Lane himself was elected in 1892 by about 5,500 majority. The result this time was his defeat by an estimated majority of 3,000. In Nebraska the regular Democratic convention was controlled by ex-Congressman Bryan, who is quite as rabid on the silver question as Lane of Illinois, and a much abler man. The anti-silver Democrats refused to attend this convention. They made separate nominations on a platform reaffirming the currency plank of the Chicago convention of 1892, adding to it the words "as it has been interpreted by the present Administration." The result of the election is a majority of about 25,000 for the Republicans, but even more significant is the fact that the bolting sound-money Democrats cast more votes than the regulars. Bryan is now shelved indefinitely, but he is still a young man, and he may live down his youthful indiscretion.

The charge that President Cleveland's course and policy have caused the Democratic overthrow in the recent election has been feebly put forth in a Tammany newspaper. It is worth while, perhaps, to take some notice of it. To begin at the beginning, Mr. Cleveland was the first President the Democrats had been able to elect during a quarter of a century. He was also the second one they were able to elect. These two facts were not of accidental occurrence. He was chosen in 1884 because he had given proof, in less exalted positions, of the possession of certain qualities which the people rely upon in sunshine and in storm, in evil report and in good report. He was elected in 1892 for the same reasons, and he has vindicated the choice that was then made, and more. Now, what has the Democratic party itself done—the party as represented in Congress? With the single exception of the repeal of the Sherman act, it has thwarted and flouted the President in every possible way. It did repeal the Sherman act, but it had to be nearly strangled before it would do so. By the obstinacy and perverseness of a group of Southern Senators, who refused to allow a vote to be taken on the question, the country was brought nearly to the pitch of revolution. The point of this is, that the Democratic party had no real discipline. It could not control its own members. It was like a balky team, one horse backing while the other was pulling, and vice-versa. After the country had been convulsed nearly two months, these balky Democrats, with a bad grace, allowed a vote to be taken; that is, they allowed the will of the majority to be expressed in a constitutional manner, but with extreme reluctance.

The next thing that profoundly stirred the country was the fight in the Senate over the Wilson bill. In this case another group of rioters seized control of an important measure, the most important next to the repeal of the Sherman act, and would not allow it to pass without changes in behalf of an odious private monopoly. All the signs pointed to a corrupt bargain with the Sugar Trust. The undisciplined group that blocked the pathway this time was actually able to carry its point. The result was, that four or five Senators turned the whole party right-about-face, to its intense disappointment and its abiding shame. When Mr. Cleveland refused to sign the tariff bill that was actually passed, he expressed the disgust of nine-tenths of the members of the party. But the blundering and perverseness did not end here. The party had a clean majority in both houses of Congress. President Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle had urged Congress to give them authority to sell bonds at a low rate of interest and having a short time to run, in order to replenish the dwindling gold reserve. They treated this recommendation with absolute contempt. The reason was, that they were not willing to recognize the right of the executive branch of the Government to preserve the public credit. This was in itself a monstrous outrage on the decent sentiment of the country, but it was emphasized and burned in when the House refused to save $16,000,000 on the last issue of bonds by making them payable in gold. It is true that some of the Republicans helped to defeat this proposition, but they were the minority. They were not responsible for the public business. This was another case where the party had failed in the matter of dis-

cipline. A part of the team had kicked over the traces, and the coach had upset in consequence. The upshot of the whole matter is, that no Democrat has any just ground of complaint against Mr. Cleveland for the upsetting of the party coach. They refused to follow the lead of the only man they had been able to elect as President in thirty years, and they must now take the consequences. A party which is at war with itself is in no condition to win victories against an enemy.

The result of the election in Utah last week adds a new State to the Union, and will increase the Senate to a body of 90 members, while the next electoral college will have 447 votes, making 224 necessary to a majority. Both inside and outside of the Territory there has been considerable doubt among the opponents of polygamy as to the safety of giving the sovereignty of a State to a community in which the influence of the Mormon Church seems still very strong; but the Constitution which was ratified by the voters on November 5 contains the most solemn prohibition of plural marriages, and the general feeling has been that this institution cannot stand up against the swelling tide of Gentile influence. The Constitution gives women the right to vote on equal terms with men, and establishes the novelty in judicial methods of a jury of eight members, instead of the traditional twelve. The Republicans seem likely to elect the United States Senators, but, whether Republican or Democratic, they will be "red-hot" for free coinage.

The accession of two recruits to the Republican side of the Senate from Utah, and the already assured gain of Republican successors to Hill of New York and Gibson of Maryland at the end of their terms, render it certain that the Republicans will have a good working majority of the Senate in the Fifty-fifth Congress, which comes into existence on the 4th of March, 1897, without allowing for the chances of a Republican Senator from Kentucky or Republican gains in other States at next year's elections, which are far more likely than the change in Maryland. It is possible that the Republicans may have a bare majority in the upper branch during the Fifty-fourth Congress. When the Utah Senators take their seats, as they probably will by the end of January, the body will consist of ninety members, and forty-six will make a majority. If the controversy over the vacant seat from Delaware shall result in the admission of Du Pont, the Republican claimant, as seems not unlikely, there will be forty-five Republicans to thirty-nine Democrats and six Populists, counting both Jones and Stewart of Nevada with Peffer of Kansas, Allen of Nebraska, Kyle of South Dakota, and Butler of North Carolina. But Jones is a Republican on all issues except the financial one, and his vote may thus give the Republicans a bare majority on some party questions. The Republicans, however, will not be able to reorganize the Senate committees and seize the Senate offices at the opening of the next Congress, and the wiser among them oppose any attempt to do this until they shall come into unchallenged control of the body a year from next March.

There are numerous signs that the Republicans are bent on making a scapegoat of Mr. Roosevelt, and holding him responsible for their own egregious folly in dealing with the liquor question in their platform and in their articles and speeches. Anything more ludicrous than their own praise of their "courage" in upholding the Tammany liquor law in the convention is not often met with. They seem to have fallen into the Goo Goo error that politics is simply a place for the display of the elementary virtues, such as courage, patience, temperance, and so on; whereas the first need of the politician is wisdom, to which should be added knowledge, and then comes courage; but wisdom stands highest. Any fool can be courageous; indeed, most fools are. The Republicans are now preparing to deal with the subject in a rational spirit, and throw Roosevelt to the wolves for carrying out the programme they themselves promulgated at Saratoga. A sane plank, showing that the law was Tammany's, that it had debauched the police and should be amended by the next Legislature, would probably have saved the election in this city and put three good Republicans on the bench of the Supreme Court. To boast now of the "courage" of what they actually did is "too ridiculous."

At the same time we are far from defending all Commissioner Roosevelt's methods. There was a letter in the *Tribune* last week, from an "Old Republican," which well expresses a growing popular feeling about him, of which we trust he will take note. The sum and substance of it is that we have had far too much Roosevelt during the last six months. It is an axiom of administration that when you are enforcing an obnoxious law, the personality of the officer should be kept out of sight as much as possible, and the law, and the law only, thrust into the voter's face. Mr. Roosevelt's activity and his speeches have led the masses to suppose that he was the prime mover in the whole business, and he has described his work and his intentions and his views in highly exasperating language. He has, too, appeared as an authority on such a variety of subjects that people who were suffering from him have almost resolved to perish, sword in hand, sooner than live under the rule of such a very superior person. It would be unkind to cite illustrations of all this, and unhappily it is not necessary. But it ought to cease. A Police Commissioner in this city, facing a hostile population, ought to efface himself completely in enforcing an unpopular law. He ought to stick to his work, and ought to suspend for the time being all supervision of the foreign policy of the Government, of the administration of the navy, of the next Presidential nomination, of the policy of his party, and of the present state of international law. Any one who tries to cover all this ground in one day produces an impression of youthfulness, which has always been Mr. Roosevelt's greatest impediment. Older men know it can't be done.

Mayor Strong might well have spared us the resuscitation of Gilroy, the ex-Mayor, in order to put him on a committee to represent the city he has disgraced, at the Atlanta Exposition. Gilroy has received at the hands of an outraged community the most stinging rebuke ever inflicted on a public official of his standing in the modern world. We do not mean the defeat of his party at the end of his term, but the authority given to his successor to kick all his appointees out of office peremptorily as rogues and corruptionists; and that authority Mayor Strong has exercised. This ought to have finished Gilroy's official connection with the city of New York. While in office he did all the damage to it he could by the appointment of thieves and profligates to its leading offices, and by presiding unmoved over their criminal activity. Since he left office, which he entered a poor man, he has been travelling in Europe and living in idleness. He ought to-day to shun sedulously any position that would lead people to talk of him. He will be a grotesque figure at Atlanta for the Georgians, and an insult to those of us at home who help to pay his expenses. There is an odd idea afloat that our young people learn their public and private morality out of books. The fact is, they learn it from the way they see their elders treat the men with whom they have dealings in politics and business.

We spoke some weeks ago of the effects of the Jingo movement on the discipline of the navy, which had just resulted, at the time we wrote, in the infliction of punishment on two admirals for travelling out of their sphere, and the censure of another for open denunciation of the foreign policy of his Government. Commander Young, a very valuable officer, happening to be serving on board the *Boston*, at Honolulu, when Stevens, the United States Minister, played the dethronement trick on the Hawaiians, caught the Jingo fever. Unfortunately, just at the crisis of his malady, the Fourth of July came along, and in his delirium he delivered an oration in which he called on the Hawaiians to join the American republic. On his recovery he returned to the United States, and was near being court-martialled, but through President Cleveland's mistaken lenity he escaped, soon had another attack, and has now

written a book on Hawaii in which he gives some account of the events of the "revolution," in which Mr. Blount and the Administration fare badly. Needless to say that the publication of the book has been prohibited by the Navy Department, and that, according to the Boston *Journal*, "a national censorship over the published thoughts of American officers" has thus been established.

An authoritative statement has come from England that England is ready, and always has been ready, to submit the boundary dispute with Venezuela to arbitration. Her case is that she owns the country up to the Cuyuni River. This may or may not be true—it is the question for the arbitrators. As a matter of fact, she has acted as if she did own it by having a British police post on the southern bank, over which the British flag waved. Now early in this year the Venezuelans determined to decide the matter for themselves by force. They accordingly crossed the river, took the police prisoners and held them for eighteen days, hauled down the British flag, and wrecked the post. On the day on which they crossed the river they also seized a British subject and gave him a sound thrashing as a trespasser. These facts are not denied by the Venezuelans themselves. They are the cause of the "ultimatum," or whatever it is, which Lord Salisbury is said to have transmitted to the Venezuelan Government. Now, what we want to know of the Jingoes—not the wild fellows who want war to educate the boys and encourage trade, but the calmer ones who make some pretensions to historical and legal knowledge—is, what is a first-class power to do on receiving an insult of this sort from a petty state like Venezuela? We do not now propose to argue. We simply wish to know what would be the power and duty of the United States in such a case? Suppose Chili, or Mexico, or Guatemala, or Costa Rica did all this to us under like circumstances, what action would the more learned Jingoes call for? What would Senator Lodge say, or Don Dickinson, or Mr. Grout?

Mr. Bayard is getting a terrible castigation for his Edinburgh address, in which he affirmed that "the insatiable growth of a form of socialism styled protection" in the United States had done more than any other single cause to "corrupt public life, to banish men of independent mind from public councils," and to bring it about that "jobbers and chafferers take the place of statesmen." He has been severely rebuked, and his instant recall demanded, for thus washing the dirty linen of our politics before a foreign audience. He has been triumphantly reminded that, only two days before he spoke, the American people gave enormous majorities to the protective party; and what could be more ridiculous than a political philosopher thus confuted by a popular vote? But in all the outcry there has been a singular omission to inquire whether Mr. Bayard told the truth. His own State of Delaware is indignant, but has no explanation to offer of Higgins and Addicks, the statesmen whom, under the protective system, she delights to honor. Pennsylvania is cruelly sarcastic at the expense of our blundering Ambassador to England, but is conveniently silent about Quay and Cameron, as she is about the fact that she has not produced a single public man of even the second rank in the past forty years. Bill Chandler is the only great protective statesman who has come forward in person to maintain, to Mr. Bayard's confusion, that jobbers and chafferers are unknown in our public life; but Bill is much more impressive declaring war than embodying political purity. Mr. Bayard's fiercest castigators look coldly at Bill for rushing in to muddle the argument.

A correspondent accuses us of taking a low view of the long coquetting of the Episcopal Church with other denominations, in the matter of church unity. Our aim was but to state the facts, and the final exchange of letters between the Presbyterian and Episcopal committees on unity shows that the whole thing was an illusion from the beginning. The *Independent* calls it the ringing down of the curtain on a comedy. This appears to be also the view of the Rev. Dr. Greer, rector of St. Bartholomew's, who grew jocular over the situation in his remarks before the Baptist Social Union on Thursday last. He observed: "We Episcopalians have had a good deal to say lately about Christian unity, but if you look at us real hard you will find out that our unity means that we want you all to believe as we do." So say Presbyterians, Congregationalists, and the rest: and all the looking "real hard" at each other has made it clear that church unity is at present only a dream. This has been obvious all along to the harder heads in the various denominations, who have not been at all deceived by the solemn courtesies and brotherly correspondence which meant nothing, and of which they have grown very weary.

A French custom-house return, just published, gives some particularly hard nuts to crack to M. Méline and the French protectionists generally. It puts beyond question the steady and disastrous falling off in the foreign commerce of France since she entered upon the protectionist régime. The total of exports and imports was $1,600,000,000 in 1891, fell to $1,500,000,000 in 1892, to $1,400,000,000 in 1893, and to $1,300,000,000 in 1894. There might be cheer in these figures for the protectionist theory, provided they showed that the tariff had accomplished the great object of "preventing harmful importations and stimulating useful exports." But it appears that the wicked imports have fallen off but $650,000 in 1894, compared with 1893, while the blessed exports have dropped $1,600,000. And such deadly imports as France has had poured upon her increasingly—grain and beef and mutton! These were the very things that the protective tariff was going to keep away. In spite of the warning of a French Marshal, that the incoming of foreign cattle was more dangerous to the country than that of Cossacks, the number of head brought in in 1894 was three times that in 1893. The disappointed French farmers are asking M. Méline where their protection and profits come in. He has two answers. One is, that the devilish gold standard is doing the mischief. Hence they should join the International Bimetallic League without delay. The other is, that, by a strange oversight, he did not put his tariff rates quite high enough to do the business, and therefore they should back him up in a demand that the duties be raised instanter. All this has a familiar sound this side the Atlantic, and shows how one touch of folly makes the whole protectionist world kin.

The refusal of the Emperor to sanction the election of Dr. Lueger as Mayor of Vienna had been foreshadowed by the speech of Count Badeni in the Reichsrath outlining his policy, and by the comments of the Hungarian journals on the election. The new Premier had significantly declared that the monarchy would not "swerve from the path of civilization," and the Hungarian newspapers, including the Government organ, *Nemzet*, had said that while Lueger's anti-Semitism concerned only the Viennese, his hatred of Hungary concerned the Hungarians very deeply. The Liberal Vienna papers, headed by the *Neue Freie Presse*, refrained studiously from advising the Government on the question of confirming the election, but Lueger himself ostentatiously expressed his conviction that the Emperor, as the "first Christian of the Empire," would approve of the choice of the Municipal Council. The situation was complicated by the attitude of the various political groups to which the new ministry must look for parliamentary support. The Clerical and reactionary minority of the Conservative Hohenwart Club, which on the whole is favorable to Badeni, attempted at first to intimidate him by threatening to go over to the Opposition in case of Lueger's rejection; but the club refused its consent to such tactics. Nor were the Slovens and other southern Slavs more successful who offered Badeni their support provided he disappointed their opponents, the German Liberals. The tone of the Hungarian papers was all the more determined because of the approaching millennial celebration and their dread of seeing a man like Lueger at Budapest as the guest of the nation.

WHO WANT A WAR?

THE protest of the New York Chamber of Commerce last week against the "recent warlike utterances by men prominent in public life," suggests the question who the persons and classes are in this country really desirous of a foreign war. War talk is thick, but where are the warriors? We are assured that a foreign war would be immensely popular, but what real evidence is there—evidence as distinct from half-crazy, half-jocose mouthings—that any large body of citizens, especially any large body of taxpayers, want a war?

War hath no fury like a non-combatant, and it is chiefly among the non-fighters that the rage for fighting is most intense. Professional fighters are among the most peace-loving of men, as a rule. The testimony of nearly all the great captains of modern times, from Wellington to Grant, is that war is a shocking calamity to civilization, into which nothing but the direst necessity should ever drive a great nation. It is only a man in whom the fiendish element gets the upper hand, like Napoleon, who can ask what difference the slaughter of a million men makes to one in his position. Gen. Sherman was once introduced to a gathering of clergymen in Washington, and startled the heralds of peace present by telling them that they were the kind of men who brought about wars, while he and other soldiers were the ones who hated war, went into it reluctantly, and made an end of it as soon as possible.

Yet there is no doubt a certain desire for war among our professional fighters, especially among our naval officers. The army is quieter, because a war in which it would have any serious work to do is almost inconceivable, even to the inflamed Jingo imagination. This is what makes so deliciously absurd remarks like those of Gen. Harrison in Indianapolis the other day. He spoke of "the next war" as one of the things confidently to be counted upon, said that then Georgia and Indiana would charge side by side instead of against each other, and cried out, "Woe to the enemy who has to meet that fatal charge!" This is delightful, coming from a staid old Presbyterian elder and corporation lawyer, who knows that there is about as much chance of Georgia and Indiana charging side by side anywhere on earth as there is of the American hog and sheep challenging the boars in the Black Forest to a butting contest. But the naval officers are more serious. Their zeal for a war is partly scientific. They would like to know how the big ships would really behave in battle, not simply on dress parade; whether the guns and the armor will do as well at sea as on the proving-ground, whether the new powders and torpedoes are all that they are cracked up to be. Some of them, of course, like to think of the chance of glory and promotion which a war would bring. All doubtless think they are patriotic, and that a successful war would be a great thing for the honor of the country. How widespread in the navy the war feeling has become we have no means of accurately knowing; but we fear that, especially among the youngsters, with heads easily turned by newspaper clamor, it is so general as to be really alarming. At any rate they are the only men trained to fight who show any signs of wanting to fight.

Among the ferocious non-combatants we must place first large numbers of school-children. They live in Revolutionary times by preference. The prison-ships and the Hessians fire their young blood almost as much as the cuts of war-ships in the papers, and they wake up every morning expecting war with England to begin directly after breakfast. Mention must also be made, among non-combatant children of a larger growth, of the class which Gen. Sherman said was responsible for war. Bishop Fallows of Chicago has offered his services in raising an army to go and secure the independence of Cuba. At a meeting in Philadelphia on November 4, a prominent Baptist clergyman called on this Government "to represent to Spain that it does not approve of her course in Cuba, and if the protest be unheeded, to enforce it by arms." Especially in connection with troubles connected with missionaries in foreign lands has there been an unpleasant willingness on the part of some of the clergy to draw at once the sword of the Lord and of Gideon. Then there are, of course, the rattle-pated and loose-tongued agitators of all sorts, the irresponsible warriors of the press, the politicians and the gunmakers out of a job, who fill the land with their cries. They found a fitting spokesman at the Atlanta Exposition on Monday, when the firebrand Governor of Illinois mingled with his furious ravings against capital and corporation and the national credit wild cries for war with Spain.

Admitting the existence of considerable numbers of these champions of war, professional and civilian, how large a volume of public sentiment in this country do they represent? We venture to say, only an insignificant amount. The Chamber of Commerce protest is indicative of the attitude of disinterested business men all over the land. They are not caught in the old snare of supposing that war makes "good times." They know well that war is a most expensive as well as a most cruel affair; that taxpayers will have to foot enormous bills during its continuance and at its end; that the delicate machinery of commerce can by nothing so surely as war be thrown out of working order and into disastrous wreck; and, knowing these things, they are against war and against reckless war talk. The matter is one perfectly easy for any man to test. Let him ask his neighbors and friends. Are they fierce for war? Do they do aught but smile or groan over the newspaper alarums? It is safe to say that nine-tenths of those who have any opinions, or whose opinions are worth knowing, are utterly sick of the whole outcry. The peaceful mission of this country, her fortunate aloofness from the quarrels of the Old World, her immense industrial and civilizing opportunities, are all still too deeply cherished by the great mass of Americans to admit of their seeing these great advantages imperilled by a foreign war without disgust and indignation. Luckily, it takes two to make a war, and it is evident that no European nation proposes to gratify our Jingoes. Lord Salisbury's Mansion House speech made absolutely no reference to the bloody war which our newspapers have been waging with him over the Venezuelan controversy. He may not be able to answer our arguments; anyhow, he is not going to fight us.

A SHEPHERD OVATION.

AN enthusiastic reception, numerously attended, was given last week in Washington to Boss Shepherd. The principal speaker boasted that the guest of the evening had within four years expended $40,000,000 in street improvements, which made about $1,200 for every family in the city. The guest himself avowed his mission to "teach Congress," and to "throw the capital into the lap of the Government," with more frankness than ever before. The Washington *Post* recalls the smart device by which he got all the judges who might have issued an injunction, invited to dinner in the country when he was ready to tear down the Northern Liberty Market houses. That no one recalled the yet smarter and more dramatic safe-burglary plot laid by one of his lieutenants, is perhaps due to its having been a failure in consequence of the sound sleeping of the intended victim.

What gives interest to the affair is, that Shepherd is a man who owes his popular reputation wholly to his lawlessness. Men more or less lawless have often won public favor in spite of that quality, because of other qualities which commended them to their fellow-citizens. Others have acquired notoriety, and with it a place in the State prison, because they were law-breakers and nothing else. But it would be hard to find another who, through disregard of law, holds a high place in the estimation of many respectable citizens which he would never have gained had he done everything claimed for him in a peaceable and law-abiding way.

The case affords an instructive and interesting example of the way in which the popular mind is prone to reach conclusions and form judgments. The cause of the admiration for the former boss so freely expressed by visitors to the national capital, generally coupled with the declaration that he is entitled to a statue, is this. Every one remembers what a fearful rumpus he raised by his management of the affairs of the District. Such details as the nefarious safe-burglary plot; the destruction of private property by a hired mob; the killing of owners who

tried to save their possessions; the undermining of houses by street "improvements"; the laying of miles of costly pavements where scarcely a house existed, in order to boom real estate; the leaving of streets impassable for a whole year because the contractors were too busy with lucrative jobs elsewhere to carry on their work; the expenditure of $40,000,000, with little to show for it but pavements that began to rot almost before they were travelled upon: the carnival of corruption and inefficiency in every branch of the service—details like these, we say, are, after the lapse of twenty years, merged by the memory in the one general impression that the man showed superhuman energy in his management. Now, when the visitor sees one of the most beautiful of cities, with its squares, its pavements, and its statues, he associates everything with the supposed author of the work. If told that the work was all done by men of whom he had never heard, men who repaired the wreck which Shepherd himself had created, he listens with apathy to what seems to him a very uninteresting view of the case. If the fallacy of his claim is demonstrated by facts which he cannot gainsay, he will, as a last refuge, contend that the man himself meant well, and that his successors did nothing more than carry out his plans.

We can now see how it happens that lawlessness is so important an element in Shepherd's fame. If he had gone about his work in a peaceful and law-abiding way, respecting public opinion and the courts, creating no opposition, refraining from the destruction of property, making contracts in the usual way and seeing them enforced, he would scarcely have been heard of outside of the District of Columbia, and would long ago have taken his place in the list of authors and originators of public improvements who deserve grateful recognition, but whose names one has to look for in printed records before he can remember what they were. The name of Shepherd would to-day have been as little known as those of Phelps, Twining, Bryan, and a number of other District Commissioners, who, patiently working year after year, repaired the damage their predecessor had done, and made Washington the city that it is to-day. They are forgotten because they did their work in a peaceful and law-abiding way; few heard of them at the time or remember them now.

The really important aspect of the matter at the present moment is its bearing on public morals. There was, in much of Shepherd's madness, method of a sort which men are too apt to admire. Before his time, the cost of improving the streets had to be borne by the local taxpayers, and there was much difference of opinion among them on the question of entering upon so costly a system of public works as was in contemplation. Under these circumstances, to start the work in that slow, careful, and economical way which would have commended itself to public opinion, was fraught with a number of what to men like Shepherd seemed disadvantages. First was the prospect of the legal difficulties arising from time to time with men whose interests were affected by the improvements, with their attendant annoyances of injunctions and other court proceedings. There was also the danger that if his proceedings did not meet with public approval, a local legislature would be elected which would question the wisdom of his course, and perhaps annoy him by adverse legislation. Last, and chief of all, was the fact that, under the arrangements which then existed, the expense would have been borne by the local taxpayers. To induce Congress to bear what might well be considered its fair share of the cost of the work, some pressure was necessary. As Shepherd now says, Congress had to be taught. The local supporters of the movement wanted to wake people up, and they naturally selected as their agent the man whose general make-up and antecedents showed that he had the greatest amount of waking-up power.

A reckless and extravagant policy was thus indicated as that best fitted to attain the proposed ends and avoid the prospective difficulties. The more rapidly the work was carried through, the greater the army of contractors employed, and the more inextricable the confusion, the less opportunity the public would have to intervene effectively. The quicker any given piece of work was done, or at least the quicker any particular region of the city was made a wreck, the more effectively the danger of stoppage was guarded against. Finally, the heavier the debt, and the more unable the local government was to meet it, the greater the necessity for Congress coming to the help of the city. How effectively this policy was carried out is shown by the running up in about three years of a debt which was, per capita, nearly double that incurred by the country during the civil war. The local taxpayers could fairly claim that the government which had done this was none of their creation; that Congress had forced it upon them, and that Congress should therefore come to their aid. Congress accepted this view by becoming responsible for one-half the expenditure. At the same time the recklessness of the régime was shown in so strong a light by a committee, of which the majority was politically friendly to the administration, that the government was abolished by a vote approaching unanimity.

Is there any good reason why, at this time, the verdict thus reached should be reversed? To hold that it should, is to justify principles of action which would be destructive of all public morality. If it is justifiable to make a hesitating and unwilling legislature pursue even a correct policy, by illegally and recklessly creating a situation which will make that policy unavoidable, where shall we stop? A worse lesson could not be taught to the rising generation than that implied in the condonation of such a policy. The action of Congress in abolishing the District government and organizing a new one was justified by the fact that nothing good could possibly have been expected of the former. To say that the succeeding government simply took up Shepherd's work and carried it on is to falsify the facts of the history. The District Commissioners had to substitute order for confusion, law for irregularity, and a well-considered policy for pure recklessness. This change was necessary in every detail connected with their functions—in the acceptance of bids, in the drawing of contracts and the supervision and execution of the work. In thinking of what would have been the result had Shepherd been charged with the conduct of the new government, one really interested cannot but feel as he would in recalling a narrow escape from shipwreck.

THE FATE OF THE SULTAN.

Lord Salisbury's remarks about the Turkish complication are very satisfactory as far as they go, and the news that the six Powers are acting in close concert will remove, or abate, the widespread fear that there would be an early quarrel between them over the Turkish ruins. But complete peace of mind will not be restored in Europe until it is known what is to succeed the Sultan. Lord Salisbury has plainly intimated that he is near his end. After him what? This is really now, and has been for a century, the most terrible question of European diplomacy. It has been the settled conviction of European statesmen, ever since the Greek insurrection and the Russian attack of 1828, that he must go soon. The bad management of the Czar in 1853, in trying to make a private arrangement with England only, for his extinction, saved him in that year. He was again saved in 1878 by somewhat similar reasons, and by Lord Beaconsfield's ridiculous assertion that the Sultan was an enlightened and broad-minded sovereign, who could be trusted to reform. But there seems now to be a general consensus of opinion as to the hopelessness of the Turkish condition. The old uncertainty as to what is to follow still lasts.

When it was Turkish oppression and massacres in Europe—that is, in Greece, Macedonia, Bulgaria, and Servia—which occupied the public mind, there was a vague belief that when the time came, the Sultan could be disposed of by being relegated to Brussa, the old capital of the Ottoman Turks, and left in possession of his Asiatic dominions. But this is no longer possible. His latest "atrocities" are all Asiatic, and his Christian subjects in that quarter are showing themselves as unwilling to be massacred as the Greeks and Bulgarians. Moreover, the light which the improved means of communication are throwing on all parts of the Sultan's do-

minions has left no hole or corner in which the old régime could be maintained undisturbed. Turkish rule is to-day nearly as bad as it used to be, and the railroad and the telegraph and the newspapers have made its maintenance impossible in any part of the world, even if the subject populations were willing to put up with it. A survival of the Turkish empire in Asia is, therefore, no longer possible. The Sultan, if driven out of Constantinople, must apparently be put on a pension, like the deposed Great Mogul, and left to amuse himself with his harem. But for Great Britain to join in making any such disposition as this of the Commander of the Faithful would be a very delicate matter, in view of the effect on the Indian Mussulmans, who are a martial and fanatical body, and 57,000,000 strong. Lord Salisbury just touched on this branch of the subject, and it is for England a most important one. The European Turks have, ever since the Crimean war, been steadily moving over into Asia, in expectation of expulsion from Europe, and they have been thus reinforcing the Asiatic Moslems, who would form a large body of very troublesome customers for any Christian rule after the overthrow of the last Mohammedan government.

Who would have Constantinople? is another question which would put European diplomacy to its trumps. It is the most glorious site for a city in the Western world, and, in the hands of a power like France or Austria, with a special capacity for beautifying cities, would probably become again what it once was—one of the most splendid abodes of art and pleasure the race has ever produced. But there is not the least likelihood that Russia would ever consent to have her access to the summer seas again controlled by any foreign power. Both Bulgaria and Servia and Greece would probably unite in serious protest against the appropriation by any of the great Powers of what each of them looks forward to as its future capital. This difficulty might be met by making it a free neutral city.

On the whole, the interesting moment in Turkish history will be not so much the overthrow of the Sultan as the disposal of his estate. After the capture of Constantinople in 1453, very little was known in western Europe about the nature of Turkish rule until the Greek insurrection in 1823. The exposures then made and spread over the world were horrible and made a deep impression, but simultaneously with these revelations came the rivalry between the Powers as to the possession of Constantinople. It was the secret distrust of each other which led the Duke of Wellington to call the destruction of Ibrahim Pasha's fleet at Navarino by the combined French, Russian, and British squadrons an "untoward event." It was in reality the first effort of united Christendom to abate the dreadful Mussulman plague. The steady support of the Sultan, from that date until now, by France and England has been one of the most disreputable chapters in the history of modern diplomacy. No marked improvement in the condition of the Christian populations has taken place during all that period. The only change has been an increase in our knowledge of what is going on. Disturbance and open discontent have always been kept down by massacre and robbery, but it is only lately that we began to hear of them. In fact, it would be no great exaggeration to say that the British Government is nearly as much responsible for Turkish oppression since 1877 as the Sultan himself. It was its influence, through Lord Beaconsfield, which gave the Sultan another trial, and there was then no more reason for expecting that he would change his system of government than that he would embrace Christianity.

SOME MAGAZINE MYSTERIES.

It was said of 'The Mystery of Edwin Drood' that the real mystery was "how it sells." How it does not sell, and yet obstinately refuses to make its quietus, is the thing which puzzles observers in regard to many a modern magazine. The multiplication and cheapening of periodical literature within the past five years have been extraordinary. Hundreds of editors and publishers have set themselves, as by a common impulse, to the study of the great question: "What is the magic price which will exterminate our competitors and keep the breath of life in ourselves? What is the highest sum that the thousands who never bought a magazine before will 'give up' in order to arrive at the dignity of being our readers and subscribers?" The consensus of experts now fixes that sum at ten cents—though we believe there is a daring "Nickel Magazine" to disturb the dreams of the purse-proud ten-centers. Even among the latter, however, there are several that must reckon up their assets after the manner of a late philanthropist who, in his will, counted judgments against himself as a part of his disposable property.

But it would not be fair to assert that an indecent haste to be rich is the true cause of the high birth-rate among magazines. That they have come into the world this year in numbers to make Malthus stare and gasp, every one who keeps the run of such things must have noticed. They are of all kinds, sizes, and names, and spring up in the most unexpected places. From Cumberland, Md., we have the *Hour Book*—a name delicately preparing the reader soon to exclaim with Shakspere: "But out, alack! he was but one hour mine." San Francisco puts forth the *Lark* to startle the dull night. Cincinnati gives us the *New Bohemian;* East Aurora, N. Y., the *Philistine;* and the West a multitude whom no man can number or remember. Then there are the ephemeral or doubtfully enduring art periodicals—the *Knight-Errant*, *Modern Art*, the output of the Jenson Press, and so on—which witness, for the most part, to a taste for pretty type and paper and fads in illustration. All or nearly all these carry writ on their faces that they are but mortal, bravely as they fret their little hour. Whatever be their motives or excuse for being, we say, mercenary considerations must be ruled out. They are too consciously pressing hard on the means of subsistence to be accused of the sacred thirst for gold.

The real reasons for their existence are doubtless various. One of them appears to be the desire to cultivate the local literary field. Thousands of towns contain, and know that they contain, poets, essayists, and novelists equal to those who get into print in the great publishing centres. They cannot go to the centres; therefore, why not bring the centres to them? To be silent, to go unpublished, is too dire an alternative to be thought of. Matthew Arnold had a very inadequate conception of the power of the desire to be vocal when he wrote of truly strong souls as being "unaffrighted by the silence round them." Silence is the most frightful of all things to writers with a message. They must express themselves or burst, and the local magazines that do both express them and then burst are the frequent consequence.

To lower motives, we fear, must be attributed some of the year's ventures in periodical literature. The *Philistine*, for example, proclaims on its front that it is "A Periodical of Protest," which means that its aim in life is to make irreverent grimaces at the great names in the magazine world. Some of the fooling of *les jeunes* in these audacious skits and fleerings is admirable, and has been known to move to laughter those nearest the solemn great ones satirized; but it is only fooling, after all, and too much of it provokes the reader to quote Swift:

> "Pure, genuine dulness moved his pity
> Unless it offered to be witty."

An avowed desire for revenge, for getting even with the lordly editors who have foolishly rejected manuscripts, sometimes takes the costly form of starting a new magazine. In the first number of the *New Bohemian*, for instance, we are told by the editor that "the older magazines display an unjust discrimination in their treatment of unknown writers." He himself has known of "too many flagrant cases of such injustice." Nothing of the kind will happen in *his* office, as he will judge righteously and care nothing for "heralded names." "Newness and freshness, drawn from the fecund minds of gifted unknowns," are to be the "energizing element" of the *Bohemian*. "In how far the initial number is in keeping with promises made, its readers will be the criterion." There speaks, evidently, a writer who has learned in suffering what he teaches in song, has known in his own person the prejudice of the older magazines against his free Western way of be-

ing so breezily unintelligible and ungrammatical.

But not all the magazine mysteries are confined to the periodicals of the mute, inglorious Miltons, the audacious or the revengeful. The old, established magazines are continually plunging their readers into a brown study as to why they do various things. We are not going to expose any of our own manuscripts to rejection by hinting that the editors are not infallible, but we do assert firmly, though we thereby take our poems and our essays in our hands, that they sometimes move in mysterious ways. For our own part, we should be content to accept them as ultimate and unfathomable mysteries—like the Westminster doctrine of the damning of men by divine decree, a "high mystery," out of which comfort could be got only by handling with "special prudence and care"—had not one of them himself undertaken to explain himself. He said people needlessly perplexed themselves as to what kind of matter his magazine wanted. Look at the magazine itself, that would show them. Only, he hastened to add, of course I don't want any more of that kind. Thus, just as we thought the veil was lifting, down it went again, leaving everything darker than before. And it only mixes in a new kind of darkness to recall that these editors do, in practice, want more of the same sort of matter. But here, after all, there is a clue. They do not regard the old thing over again as matter for a magazine, but as material for a book. The way the book-making sways the magazine-making is obvious to every reader. This is no mystery; it is only a misery.

THE 1895 COPYRIGHT CONGRESS.

LONDON, October, 1895.

FOR the first time since its foundation in 1878, the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale has met within the limits of the German Empire—at Dresden, September 21 to 28. Naturally the Germans were ambitious to have this meeting a signal success, and extraordinary efforts were made to show a generous hospitality and to secure a friendly commingling of all elements. An exceptional interest in the proceedings was aroused, and the attendance, both local and foreign, was unusually large. There was a gain, also, in official recognition. The congress, under the patronage of Saxony, was opened in the presence of the King, and an increased number of accredited representatives were present; the administrative departments of France sending no less than five delegates, while Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Italy, Norway, and Mexico were also officially represented. As at Antwerp last year, however, we have regretfully to note the United States and Great Britain as conspicuous among the nations unrepresented.

To the foreign mind the regular recurrence in the official programme of notices of informal evening reunions in restaurants, cafés, and beer-gardens, with a list of favorite places, might suggest the convivial rather than the serious German spirit, but it is worthy of favorable comment that the literary complexion of the congress was more strongly brought out than heretofore, and this gathering of representative men was utilized to substitute on the social programme, hitherto thickly studded with public dinners, a literary and artistic form of entertainment, with a marked accession of dignity. A "Festgabe" was dedicated to the congress, entitled, "Beiträge zum Urheberrecht" (Berlin: Deutsche Schriftsteller-Genossenschaft), original monographs dealing with the legal protection of literary and artistic property, mostly by authors already well known in relation to the subject matter; special interest attaching to Dr. Osterrieth's summary of the replies received to the "question sheet" of the working committee. Mention should be made, also, of the "Fest-Nummer" (September 28, 1895) of the organ of the German booksellers, *Nachrichten aus dem Buchhandel*, containing, in addition to its usual contents, an address of welcome, a catalogue of recent German copyright contributions, and special articles relating to literary property. The bibliography of this year's congress further includes a volume of 'Rapports du Congrès de Dresde,' containing the French text of the papers laid before the conference, and a German edition of the same, sold at three marks each—a commendable precedent in making the work of the Association available.

The preparations for the congress were conducted by a working committee (Arbeits-Ausschuss), and to this body, and especially to its "Vorstand," credit is due for the intelligent methods of procedure adopted and the valuable results achieved. The printed reports were on hand at the opening of the conference (a marked improvement upon previous congresses), and a printed list of persons in attendance was initiated; while the general programme of meetings and festivities, printed in French and German, was well got up, and the "ordre du jour" of the working sessions showed admirable systematic coherence and proportion.

It is a matter of history that the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale organized the movement which resulted in the Berne convention of 1886 creating the International Copyright Union. This compact was, of necessity, a provisional one, such as would permit the federation of states possessing very diverse legislation; but its probable alteration in the future was recognized, and from year to year at the annual meetings of the Association the text of that treaty has been discussed with a view to its amendment. At the Dresden conference, in anticipation of the forthcoming diplomatic congress for the revision of the Berne convention, this topic was given the leading place on the programme. The executive committee presented a digest of the resolutions of the Association since 1886, setting out the directions in which amendment of the existing legislation relating to literary and artistic property was considered desirable, with a view to submitting a recommendation that the Berne treaty be revised in line with the reforms suggested. As a commentary on the report of the executive committee may be viewed the elaborate "étude" by M. Georges Maillard of Paris, 'On the Principles which should serve as a basis for the Unification of the legislation relating to Copyright in the countries of the Berne Union.' A paper of practical value, the joint work of Dr. Paul Schmidt and Prof. Ernst Röthlisberger, one of the secretaries of the Berne Bureau, points out the divergence of the existing legislation of the countries of the Copyright Union from the stipulations of the Berne convention, and, taken in connection with M. Maillard's essay, shows clearly where and how far the legislation in force falls short of the model proposed.

The discussions on these papers led to the adoption of a series of resolutions on the principles which should govern the unification of copyright legislation. Space fails for comment; summarily, it is considered that the exclusive right to publish or reproduce, by whatever process or in whatever form, a literary or artistic work, belongs to the author, independent of its merits, its use, or its destination; and that this exclusive right applies to all writings, oral addresses, dramatic and musical compositions, all productions of graphic and plastic arts, photographs, and architectural works. The right should exist for fifty years after the author's death, to the profit of his heirs or assigns. All reproduction, entire or partial, made without the author's consent, should be repressed, and should be understood to include translation, representation, or public performance, as well as adaptation, dramatization, musical arrangement, or reproduction by another art. Textual citation should be permitted only in a criticism, a polemic, or for instruction, and on condition that the author's name and the source used shall be expressly indicated. All works should be equally secured, and no particular formalities should be imposed for the protection of music, while newspaper and periodical contributions should be protected as other literary works without requiring the publication of any reservation of rights. The right of reproduction should be considered as independent of the right of property in a manuscript or work of art, and the transference of the material object should not imply the right of reproduction, and, reciprocally, the alienation of the rights pertaining to an author—publication, representation, execution, translation, etc.—should be restrictively interpreted. The author who has parted with his right of reproduction conserves the right to superintend the reproduction of his work, to prosecute piracy, and to oppose modifications made without his consent. As a means to aid in the unification of legislation, it is proposed that the Berne Bureau be authorized to produce an international vocabulary of the equivalent juridical terms used in the legislative texts of each country, and that it be confided to the Bureau to deliver official translations of the various national legislative acts.

As a rider to the report of the executive committee, the paper by M. Albert Vaunois, delegate of the Société des Études Historiques de Paris, urged the need for uniformity of legislation to the end that the sale of a work of art shall not carry with it the alienation of the right of reproduction by the artist, and contended that, so far as France and Great Britain are concerned, this could be effected by a clause in the treaty of Union. The principle advocated, endorsed by the Association, has been embodied in the laws of Germany, Belgium, Spain, Italy, and Switzerland, as well as of some of the non-Union countries; but in England the copyright in a painting ceases upon the sale of the picture, unless the artist, by a written agreement, reserves the copyright to himself, or by a similar agreement transfers it to the purchaser, and it is to be observed that the Copyright Commission of 1878 advocated that the copyright should pass to the purchaser. In France there is no explicit statute governing the case, and the judicial decisions, since 1842, have been prejudicial to the artist. Dr. Osterrieth read a paper advocating the suppression of two paragraphs in articles 2 and 11 of the Berne convention in order that international copyright protection

may become independent of the fulfilment of formalities prescribed by the legislation of the separate states of the Union, and a resolution to that effect was passed. Anent this, it may be noticed that the Institute of International Law, at its recent session at Cambridge, in a series of resolutions urging the revision of the Berne treaty, proposed an amendment of article 2 in line with Dr. Osterrieth's proposal. The careful study, by M. Alcide Darras, of the copyright conventions between France and Germany may also be considered as having a bearing upon the revision of the Berne convention.

A series of five reports was explanatory of the present status of the principal countries not yet within the Copyright Union. The first, by MM. Darras and Eisenmann, deals briefly with South America and the United States; so far as the latter is concerned, only referring to the Act of March 2, 1895, and two judicial decisions of 1894. On Austria a lengthy report was submitted by Dr. Heinrich Schuster of the University of Prague, well known by reason of former contributions concerning the proposed new Austrian copyright law. Mr. Halpérine Kaminsky reported encouragingly of Russia, and was supported by Mr. Issakoff, delegate of the Russian Literary Society, who declared that there was no lack of good will in Russia, not only to amend the present law in conformity with modern ideas, but also to enter the Berne Union. Dr. Karl Torp of Copenhagen gave the congress an insight into the present situation of Denmark and Norway, not encouraging as to the immediate admission of these two countries, while Mr. J. H. Hora-Siccama's "Étude sur les Pays-Bas" summarized public opinion in Holland as unfavorable to that country's entrance into the Berne Union.

The easily understood difficulty in the case of the smaller European countries lies in the restriction of the freedom of translation. It seems cheaper to sacrifice their native authors' interests abroad than to curtail free recourse to foreign books. But public opinion grows, and it is beginning to be realized in these countries not only that a restriction of the reproduction of foreign literature within their boundaries would bring to their own authors the power advantageously to dispose of their rights of translation in other countries, but that a more important benefit would accrue in the fresh stimulus they would receive, with the resulting development of national literature. To sum up: the larger European countries are tending towards membership in the Berne Union, and it is only a matter of time and the adjustment of the international exchange of literature so far as the minor states are concerned. The serious question remains with Canada and the United States. The former country was dragged into the Copyright Union by Great Britain, and is evidently disposed—owing to the corrupting example of the United States—to break away, while in the latter country it is difficult to detect any evidence of growth in the direction of an intelligent interest in and understanding of the question of literary property.

Next in importance to the various contributions touching upon the Berne convention were those submitted concerning the legal relations between authors and publishers. These are: a summary of the previous discussions of the Association upon this subject, by Armand Ocampo of Paris; a project for a law governing literary contracts, by Martin Hildebrandt, one of the directors of the Deutsche Schriftsteller-Genossenschaft; a presentation, by the Leipzig publisher, Robert Voigtländer, of the legal differences in the case of literary works undertaken at the initiative and request of a publisher, and a lengthy summing up by Mr. Ernst Eisenmann, who has contributed some novel ideas regarding this subject in his monograph entitled, 'Le Contrat d'édition et les autres louages d'une œuvre intellectuelle.' The debate which followed resulted in a vote of the congress that the whole matter be recommitted to an enlarged committee, with instructions to lay it before all associations likely to be interested, and to submit to the next congress a résumé of the observations which may thus have been elicited.

The project for the creation of a universal bibliographical bureau was revived by M. Jules Lermina, who submitted a paper entitled: "Rapport sur la Constitution d'un Répertoire bibliographique mensuel scientifique, littéraire et artistique." His scheme not only contemplates the establishment at Berne of an organization which shall supply the world with a monthly record of its literary production, but is intended to secure the coöperation of the nations in the compilation of a universal bibliography, to include all books that shall have been published up to the end of this century. His paper and warm advocacy caused an animated discussion, not entirely favorable; the utility of the bibliographical work suggested not being denied, however (except by M. Grand-Carteret), though the difficulty or impossibility of execution was insisted upon. A final vote declared that, in the opinion of the congress, it is of international interest to constitute a universal repertory of all the books which have appeared or are to appear in the entire world, and the question of how it can be carried out was passed to a committee to report at the next congress.

In the last working session, M. Frédéric Mettetal of Paris read two papers, one on anonymous and pseudonymous works and the other on posthumous publications, claiming for each class legal protection for a term of fifty years from first publication, which view was sustained by the congress in suitable resolutions. At the Antwerp congress M. Georges Harmand presented a paper on literary collaboration, but for want of time its consideration was postponed. This year there was a supplementary report by the same author, which also failed of discussion, but M. Maurice Maunoury of Paris took up the subject so far as encyclopædic works are concerned, and a resolution was voted to the effect that the person under whose direction the whole work was executed should be considered the legal author of it, but without prejudice to the right of each collaborator to reproduce his personal contributions in a manner not to injure the entire publication. The concluding paper, by M. Lucien Layus, representative of the "Cercle de la Librairie" of Paris, dealt with the reproduction of art works belonging to a public museum, and, despite spirited opposition upon the part of M. Grand-Carteret and others, it was voted that such reproduction should be permitted only with the consent of the artist or his legal heirs. To next year's congress (which is to meet at Berne) was relegated the presentation of a "model" copyright law which the Association is requested to formulate. S.

THE SOUVENIRS OF GENERAL LEJEUNE.

PARIS, October 21, 1895.

GENERAL LEJEUNE is better known as a painter than as a general, though he was a good soldier and a very bad painter. His pictures can be said to have but one merit—exactitude; as a painter of battles, he had the advantage of witnessing the actions which he depicted, and the scenery in which he places his combatants is always absolutely correct. He was an officer of engineers, and, as such, it was his duty to make for Gen. Berthier, the chief of staff of the Emperor Napoleon, aquarelles representing the different parts of the battlefield after each great battle. He afterwards used to enlarge these aquarelles and to place in the midst of them some of the dramatic scenes of which he had been a witness. At a time when the memoirs of the Napoleonic period were not in demand as they are now, Gen. Lejeune published his 'Souvenirs,' to the number of twenty copies only. These copies are mostly destroyed or lost, and a new edition of them has just been published under the title 'De Valmy à Wagram.'

Lejeune was at Valmy, the first victory of the Revolution. Born in Alsace, he first went to school at Versailles. As a boy he met the Queen Marie Antoinette, who showed him the Trianon; a young man, he enlisted in one of the battalions of volunteers who were to resist the invasion. His company was called the "Compagnie des Arts," and he found himself in it with Jean-Baptiste Say, with poets and philosophers who were to become generals, prefects, or senators of the Empire. He was seventeen years old, and sang gayly the "Marseillaise"; he went with his friends to the Camp de la Lune, and arrived just in time to take part in the battle of Valmy. After a time the Compagnie des Arts was disbanded. Lejeune returned to Paris, which he found in a state of consternation. The Terror was at its height; executions took place daily.

"One day, having dressed myself well, I was going quietly to breakfast with a friend when a patrol stopped me and insulted me with the name of *muscadin* [it was the insult in fashion]. I was arrested, taken all day from corps-de-garde to corps-de-garde and imprisoned with some others in the Church of St. Martin. It was only at ten o'clock at night that we were conducted before Henriot, the Commander of Paris. We had committed no other crime than wearing white linen and clean clothes. Our judges, however, hesitated long before letting us go, and it was midnight when I was at liberty to breakfast."

Some time afterwards, he found himself in a crowd in the Rue St. Honoré, near the Oratoire du Louvre (now a Protestant church).

"There were people at every window, and even on the roofs, and it was with a cruel, atrocious, and delirious joy that on all sides was sung the obscene song:

> 'Madame Veto avait promis
> De faire égorger tout Paris,' etc.

[The name of Madame Veto had been given to Marie Antoinette since she was said to have claimed for the King the right of veto.] Already were seen the squadrons escorting a cart in which a woman was seated near a priest, and the executioners stood behind them. The procession advanced with an inhuman slowness so as to prolong the agony of the victim and to satisfy the curiosity of the hundred thousand people whom this horrible spectacle had drawn together. I began to tremble violently and my heart nearly ceased to beat, when I heard whom I was going to see. . . . It was the same Marie Antoinette, in the same white costume I had seen her in when I had the honor of accompanying her to the Trianon. Her attitude was that of a saint, and the priest who exhorted her seemed more unhappy than herself. At sight of her many eyes were filled with tears. [David made from a window a sketch of Marie Antoinette in the fatal cart.]"

Lejeune was very happy to leave Paris; he enlisted in the regular army, and entered first the artillery, and, as he had special aptitudes, he was placed among the engineers. He spent

the winter of 1794 and 1795 in Holland, and in the following campaign he was employed in throwing bridges over the Rhine near Düsseldorf. He was afterwards sent to Bamberg to prepare the crossing of the Rednitz for Ney. He rapidly became a captain of engineers, and Berthier took him for his aide-de-camp. Berthier sent him to the Valais with some bags of gold destined for the countryfolk who were to help the First Consul cross the Saint Bernard with his artillery. In Italy, Lejeune was chiefly occupied with the construction of bridges on the Po. He was fortunate enough to be present at the famous battle of Marengo, and his account of it is not without interest; it made me involuntarily think of Tolstoi's theories on war in 'War and Peace.' The battle of Marengo was tactically won by four hundred men, guided by Kellermann, who charged without orders, merely following his own inspiration. What consequences did not this charge have! "The genius of the First Consul," says Lejeune, "showed him at once the consequences which he could draw from his victory, and, the same evening, he dictated his conditions to Gen. Melas, who consented to abandon Italy."

At the camp of Boulogne, Lejeune felt somewhat humiliated on receiving the order not to leave the place when the army took the road to Germany until he had expedited three thousand pairs of shoes in the direction of the Rhine. He could join the Emperor only on the day of Elchingen, and gave an account of his mission to him; he complained of having been left behind. "You are a child," said Napoleon; "shoes are necessary for marches, and it is by marches that battles are won." He proved it by forcing Gen. Mack to capitulate in Ulm. Lejeune remained with the army and saw Austerlitz. He gives a very graphic account of the disaster which befell a part of the Russian army, when it took refuge on a frozen pond which could not resist the weight of a few thousand men and their artillery. On his return to France, through Munich, he had occasion to see the brothers Senefelder, who had just discovered the method of lithographic printing, and he made a lithograph which he brought to the Emperor in Paris. He tells us that he was prevented by his occupation from giving much more attention to the new process, which was introduced in France only in 1812. The painter, by the way, never forfeits his rights in his memoirs: he interrupts, for instance, his account of the march from Ulm to Austerlitz to give a description of the forest of Amstetten under snow on a fine sunny day.

A new war was preparing, and Lejeune had to leave Paris to carry the orders of the general staff to the various corps in Bavaria and in Saxony. The battles of Jena and of Auerstaedt were fought, and the Emperor, following up his successes, entered Poland. Lejeune passes very briefly over these great events and the operations which ended at Eylau. His love of the picturesque was evidently not satisfied in the mud of Poland and amid the snows of Russia. The sufferings of the Russians as well as of the French were heartrending, and the losses of both armies at Eylau were terrible. Lejeune was evidently very humane; he never fails to deplore the spectacle of a battlefield. "The lines, the squares, the shock of the cavalry were traced on the ground by rows of corpses; the wounded, so numerous that they could not all be removed at once [this is after Eylau], crawled into heaps to warm each other. . . . I saw a horse, who had only three legs left, licking the face of his old cuirassier, who stood astonished before him. This man had hardly bread enough for himself; he gave it to his horse before leaving him." Napoleon remained three days at Eylau, seeing that the wounded were taken good care of. He had some Russians operated on by his own surgeon, Yvan.

After Eylau, the Russians retired on Koenigsberg, and Napoleon pressed the siege of the three fortresses which he had left behind him, Stralsund in Swedish Pomerania, Colberg on the Baltic, and Dantzig at the mouth of the Vistula. In his capacity of officer of engineers, Lejeune took the orders of Napoleon to the besieging generals; and he came back only on the evening of the battle of Friedland, which had lasted sixteen hours. "It was at the end of this glorious day that I arrived out of breath and happy to bring good news [the successful assault of Colberg]. . . . At the first word I said about the advanced fort of Colberg, which I had taken, the Emperor interrupted me and said gayly, with an expression of great joy: . . . 'Friedland will be worth as much as Austerlitz, Jena, and Marengo.'"

Lejeune was a witness of the famous interview at Tilsit; he made a drawing of the scene, which has since been engraved.

"My friend Bontemps," he says, "kept with religious care the two pens and the inkstand that were used for the signing of the treaty which promised Europe a series of happy and prosperous years. If a word which Talleyrand, Prince of Benevento, wrote to me one day in 1817 should be taken as true, these three objects, with which is linked such a great remembrance, must have lost much of their value. I knew what an immense fortune the Prince had acquired under the Empire; I begged him to give some encouragement to the authors of an historical work on our campaigns and our victories. The Prince answered thus: 'Victories are interesting only as long as the advantages which they may have procured last. The results of the works of the Empire exist no longer, and their memory is effacing itself as rapidly as politics change; I cannot help the persons you recommend to me.'"

After the interview of the Emperors on the Niemen, Lejeune returned to Paris with Berthier. He soon afterwards exchanged the cold regions of the North for the warm provinces of Spain. From Spain he was sent on a mission to Bernadotte:

"I know," said the Emperor to him at Bayonne, "that you stand well with Bernadotte. I have chosen you to convey to him news which will please him. In consequence of misunderstandings between Charles IV. and his son, I have accepted their abdication of the throne of Spain in favor of my brother Joseph, King of Naples; go and announce it to his brother-in-law, Bernadotte; he will be flattered. Announce it also to the Marquis de la Romana and to the Spanish troops under his orders; tell them all the good I think of my brother. Go rest for an hour and then start immediately."

An hour's repose was not much for an officer who had come without stopping from Madrid to Bayonne. Lejeune obeyed; he stopped only a moment at Hamburg, to see Bourrienne, and found Bernadotte in Schleswig. The news he brought was very coldly received by La Romana, who was at Viborg with ten thousand Spaniards. (The defection of La Romana gave Mérimée the subject of a fine drama, which has never been put on the stage, "Les Espagnols en Danemark.") Lejeune returned to Spain, and was struck by the great change which had taken place since Napoleon placed the crown of Spain on the head of his brother. The French troops, which had been received with enthusiasm the year before, were now considered as enemies; the popular rising was universal, and the clergy was everywhere exciting the patriotic passion of the multitude. The catastrophe of Baylen took place on the day when King Joseph entered Madrid, and the new King had to retire to Burgos. Marshal Moncey had to retreat with his forces into Catalonia, and Lefebvre-Desnouettes had to raise the siege of Saragossa. It became clear that if Napoleon wished to keep Spain for his brother, he must make a conquest of the Peninsula.

Correspondence.

THE VENEZUELA BOUNDARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Washington correspondents are so cocksure of the fraudulent character of English claims in the Venezuela dispute that any search for evidence in England's favor seems to be regarded as superfluous. Yet there must be in existence an ample store of old maps which would throw light on the question, and perhaps indicate how England may be led to regard her pretensions as moderate. Possibly Venezuela may be able to present proof of equal weight on the other side; but so far as a cursory investigation enables one to judge, this would appear doubtful. There is, for instance, a map without date, issued by the house of Homann of Vienna in the last century, copied from one by Guillaume de l'Isle, geographer royal of France, who died in 1726 and was one of the most eminent cartographers of his time. In this the whole region, from the mouth of the Amazon to that of the Orinoco, is included in Guiana. Venezuela lies entirely to the west of the latter river, and the only indication of Spanish occupation is a little town named St. Thomas, on the right bank of the Orinoco, above its delta, which is specified as "sub Hispanis," implying that it was the only spot claimed to the east of the river by Spain. This is confirmed in the very detailed description of Guiana by Bruzen de la Martinière, in his 'Dictionnaire Géographique' (Venice, 1737, vol. v., p. 334), where he says that the French possess the land from North Cape to the River Marony, and the Dutch have established themselves from that point to the Orinoco. Apparently there was no conception that Spain had any claim on the territory between the two great rivers. In this there could be no prompting of hostility to Spain, for, in the period which led to the Family Compact, French prepossessions would be wholly in her favor; nor could the region in question be regarded as too valueless for consideration, seeing that the interior of Guiana had long been known as rich in gold, and, in fact, was the residence of the fabled Dorado, or gilded man, whom Raleigh vainly sought. It is observable that these statements are long subsequent to the treaty of 1648, which is cited in support of the boundary of the Essequibo. Another treaty of 1781, which is also quoted, is not to be found in Martens, nor is there in his collection any agreement or convention between Spain and Holland bearing upon the matter.

The stolid John Bullishness with which England refuses arbitration of the whole question of course raises an adverse presumption against her in the eyes of the public; and yet, before we let Senator Chandler declare war upon her on that ground, it might be well for us to in-

vestigate what are the real rights and wrongs involved in the case.—Very respectfully,

HENRY C. LEA.

PHILADELPHIA, October 31, 1895.

[The map referred to by Mr. Lea was not mentioned in the list of documentary authorities, sustaining the English claims, submitted to the Venezuelan Minister by Lord Aberdeen in 1841. It is scarcely accurate to say that England refuses arbitration of "the whole question." Her willingness to arbitrate the title to a large part of the territory in dispute has been repeatedly expressed, and was officially reaffirmed only last month.—ED. NATION.]

"COLLEGE" ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. O. F. Emerson's remarks (*Nation* of Nov. 7) upon the (American) use of "college" = "college building" admit of abundant corroboration. In the present writer's undergraduate days the Princeton buildings were thus designated, not only by the students, but in the Princeton catalogue. Thus, in 1860, there were three dormitories, known to us as North, East, and West College. The catalogue of 1859-'60, at the end of the student-list, prints the following note: "Abbreviations: N. . . . Nassau Hall; E. . . . East College; W. . . . West College." *Theoretically* N. may have stood for Nassau Hall, but *practically* it meant to every one North, or—more familiarly—Old North, without the College. As for the "Old," that was a mere epithet of pious endearment, the building having once been the oldest. But, in fact, the building of 1860 was only four years old, having been rebuilt after a destructive fire. Thus, Old North was the counterpart, in irony, of New College, Oxford. H.

NOVEMBER 11, 1895.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am not inclined to accept Prof. Emerson's suggestion, in your issue of November 7, that the application of the term "College" to a single building in the Harvard Archives is "merely a dialectal use of the word, originating in America." In College Book No. 3 there is "An Inventory of the whole Estate of Harv[d] Colledge taken by the President & Fellows as they find the same to be Decemb. 10. 1654." The first two items are as follows:

"Imp[rs]. The building called the old colledge, conteyning a Hall, Kitchen, Buttery, Cellar, Turrett & 5 Studeys & therin 7 chambers for students in them. A Pantry & small corne Chamber. A library & Books therin, vallued at 400[lb].

"It. Another house called Goffes colledge, & was purchased of Edw: Goffe. conteyning five chambers. 18 studyes. a kitchen cellar & 3 garretts."

In 1654 the institution was less than twenty years old; the building called "the old colledge" was only about twelve years old. It was the only college building in America. Its founders, and probably the majority of its governors even as late as 1654, had been born Englishmen. Some of them came directly from the atmosphere of English university life. It is hard to see how any American dialectal use of the word college could have grown up so rapidly under such conditions.

It may be worth while to add that after the building of Massachusetts Hall, in 1720, we find constant mention of "Stoughton College," and "the old college" (Harvard Hall, built in 1672), alongside of references to "Massachusetts *Hall*." Such are the names given the three buildings respectively in the faculty vote of 1725 dividing the college yard into districts for purposes of inspection and police. Later in the century the two buildings called "colleges" disappeared, and with them the use of the word in that sense seems to have disappeared also.

As to the present employment of the same word to designate one of a group of college buildings, it may or may not be properly described as dialectal; I agree with Prof. Emerson, however, that it deserves to be recorded in the dictionaries. But I am satisfied that the use of the word in that sense in the early records of Harvard, as I said in your issue of October 24, marked "a certain adherence to English usage in the matter of separate colleges." WM. G. BROWN.

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY, November 9, 1895.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In yesterday's *Nation* Prof. Emerson pointed out that the term "college" for a single building or group of buildings is used in various parts of this country; but surely he was careless in asserting that "such a use is not recognized by any of our dictionaries—the Oxford, Century," etc. In the Century Dictionary is the following: "2 (*e*) An edifice occupied by a college"; and, in the Oxford Dictionary, definition 5 is as follows: "The building or set of buildings occupied by such society or institution."

The suggestion made by Prof. Emerson that the employment of *college* in this sense may be "merely a dialectal use of the word, originating in America," is not borne out by Dr. Murray's citations, all of which are from British writings. Nor is such use of the term of recent origin in this country. I am certain I have often met with it in books by Americans or in books on America by English travellers; but the only examples upon which I can lay my finger at the present moment are the following. It will be observed that John Harvard is spoken of not as founding, but as "building" or "erecting" a college.

"It is ordered, that the colledge agreed vpon formerly to bee built at Camtridg shalbee called Harvard Colledge." 1639, *Records of Massachusetts* (1853), i., 253.

"The scituation of this Colledg is very pleasant, . . . the building thought by some to be too gorgeous for a Wilderness, and yet too mean in others apprehensions for a Colledg." 1654, E. Johnson, *Wonderworking Providence*, 164.

"You will the less wonder, Cousin, at what I have said about this Town, when you shall know this Town, that at first was called New Town, is now made an University, and called Cambridge, there being a colledge Erected there by one Mr. John Harvard, who gave £700 for the Erecting of it, in the year 1638." 1686, J. Dunton, *Letters from New England* (1867), 156.

"It was his Custom to be somewhat *Long* in his *Daily Prayers* (which our Presidents used to make), . . . but one Day, without being able to give Reason for it, he was not so *Long*, it may be by Half as he used to be. Heaven knew the *Reason!* The Scholars returning to their Chambers, found one of them on fire, and if the Devotions had been held three Minutes longer, the Colledge had been irrecoverably laid in Ashes." 1702, C. Mather, *Magnalia*, Book iv., Part i., p. 130.

"There are two fine Publick Buildings in this Country, which are the most Magnificent of any in *America:* One of which is the College before spoken of, and the other the Capitol or State-House." 1705, R. Beverly, *History of Virginia*, Book iv., ch. xvi., p. 52.

"In the beginning of this Moneth of May, the old Brick Colledge, comonly called the *Indian* Colledge, is pull'd down to the ground, being sold to Mr. Willis the builder of Mr. Stoughtons colledge." 1698, S. Sewall, *Diary* (1878), i., 480.

"Barnard, Eustace and others view'd the Roof of the Colledge which S. Andrews built, and judg'd it necessary to be taken down." 1712, S. Sewall, *Diary* (1879), ii., 357.

"Publick Buildings here of Note, are the College, the Capitol, the Governor's House, and the Church." 1724, H. Jones, *Present State of Virginia* (1865), 26.

"At the ends of this street are two public buildings, the college and the capitol." 1775, A. Burnaby, *Travels*, 4. (Refers to Williamsburg, Va.)

"The village [of Burlington] extends nearly a mile from the water, at which distance the hill, on which the college is erected, rises 300 feet above the surface of the lake." 1808, J. Dean, *Gazetteer of Vermont*, 42.

"The friends of the aborigines were not discouraged by these unpromising appearances; and, in 1665, at an expense of between £300 and £400, a house was erected for their accommodation, which was usually called the Indian College." 1833, B. Peirce, *History of Harvard University*, 28. ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, November 8, 1895.

RUSTICATION IN FOOTBALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statement has been made, and not denied, that the University of Pennsylvania football team are to be sent away from their studies into the Berkshire Hills for two weeks to prepare for a football game. Could anything indicate a more depraved sense of propriety on the part of our American colleges? It may at least be presumed that these young men were sent to college to procure an education. A COLLEGE GRADUATE.

PHILADELPHIA, November 10, 1895.

Notes.

SIDNEY S. RIDER, Providence, R. I., invites subscriptions at $40 each to a facsimile reproduction of the First Digest of the Laws of the Colony of Rhode Island, made in 1705, and never printed. The text in clear type will accompany the facsimile. The form will be folio, to match the recent edition of the Digest of 1719. Only 100 copies will be issued.

D. Appleton & Co.'s November announcements include 'The Story of the Indian,' by George Bird Grinnell, the first volume in a "Story of the West" series, edited by Ripley Hitchcock; 'The Intellectual Rise in Electricity,' by Park Benjamin; and 'Annals of Westminster Abbey,' by E. T. Bradley (Mrs. A. Murray Smith).

'St. Paul, the Traveller and the Roman Citizen,' by W. M. Ramsay, LL.D., is in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons, along with 'Poems of Pathos and Delight,' by Coventry Patmore.

'The Modern Poster,' about to be published by the Scribners, will consist of essays by H. C. Bunner and others, with more than sixty illustrations.

Forthcoming with the imprint of Edward Arnold are Milton's 'Paradise Lost,' with twelve etchings by William Strang, limited to fifty copies for American buyers, and 'Fire and Sword in the Sudan,' a personal narrative by Slatin Pasha.

'Random Sketches on Scottish Subjects,' by John D. Ross (Paisley: Alexander Gardner), will be marketed in this country by the Raeburn Book Co., 185 Grand Street, New York.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, will place among the holiday books 'Our Lord's Coming and Childhood—Six Miracle Plays,' by Katharine Tynan Wilson, with full-page drawings by Patten Wilson. They will also bring out 'The

Father of the Forest,' poems by William Watson, and a new novel by Hamlin Garland, 'Rose of Dutcher's Coolly.'

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, will soon publish 'The History of Oratory, from the Age of Pericles to the Present Time,' by Prof. Sears of Brown University.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'Is Polite Society Polite?' by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, and 'Behind the Arras,' a new volume of poems by Bliss Carman.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will issue directly 'Selections for French Composition,' by C. H. Grandgent, Director of Modern Language Instruction in the Boston public schools.

Berkeley Updike, Boston, announces an American edition of *The Quest* for 1896, the organ of the Birmingham Guild of Handicraft; and he has arranged with Miss Mary Newell of Birmingham to illustrate Hans Christian Andersen's story of 'The Nightingale' for a holiday book.

Poems by William Butler Yates, and ('The Magic House') by Duncan Campbell Scott, will be issued immediately by Copeland & Day, Boston.

Under the title of 'Studies in the Constitutional History of Tennessee' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.), Mr. J. W. Caldwell has published the substance of some articles contributed by him early in the present year to the Knoxville *Tribune*. They were originally written "in aid of an effort for a Constitutional Convention"; and although the author claims for his work an historical and not a controversial character, the book is essentially a political pamphlet rather than an historical contribution of especial or permanent value. Mr. Caldwell lays stress upon the influence of the Scotch-Irish on the early history of Tennessee, while his earnest desire to see the township system adopted in the State has led him into a cursory and otherwise irrelevant recital of the well-worn commonplaces about Anglo-Saxon and English local government. The main feature of the book is the detailed abstracts of the articles of the Watauga Association, the Cumberland Compact, and the Constitution of Franklin, as well as of the State constitutions of 1796, 1834, and 1870; but of the constitutional and political development of the State under these different instruments of government little is said. An appendix gives the names of the officers and members of the first Franklin convention and of the Tennessee conventions. There is a good index.

To meet the desires of his publishers (the Messrs. Scribner) Mr. Edwin L. Godkin has made a selection of 'Reflections and Comments, 1865-1895' from his editorial articles in the *Nation* during the last thirty years. They are thirty-three in number, arranged chronologically, and are a distinct addition to the writer's contributions to the volume of 'Critical and Social Essays' gathered from the same source in 1867. Political topics—as in the articles on Horace Greeley, the South after the War, "The Short Hairs" and "The Swallow-Tails," Organs, Physical Force in Politics, and Rôle of the Universities in Politics—are not avoided in the present collection; but social, educational, financial, and ethical discussion predominates. Some other titles are: Culture and War, The Comparative Morality of Nations, The Odium Philologicum, Prof. Huxley's Lectures, Tyndall and the Theologians, Judges and Witnesses, Mr. Froude as a Lecturer, John Stuart Mill, Carlyle's Political Influence, The Morals and Manners of the Kitchen, The Evolution of the Summer Resort, "The Debtor Class," Panics, etc. The volume is dedicated to Charles Eliot Norton, "to whom the foundation of the *Nation* was largely due."

The Clarendon Press has just published two volumes containing 'A Selection of Passages from Plato for English Readers,' from Jowett's translation, edited with introductions by M. J. Knight (Macmillan). This collection was made in accordance with the wish of the late Dr. Jowett, who helped to choose the passages. The greater part of the preface written by Jowett for Purves's 'Selections from the Dialogues of Plato' in the original, published by the Clarendon Press in 1891, is repeated in the first volume of this work. We notice that nearly all the passages included in Mr. Purves's volume are translated here, making about half of Mr. Knight's work. The greater part of the additions come from the 'Laws' and the earlier books of the 'Republic,' with one piece of solid metaphysics from the 'Parmenides.' The brief introduction prefixed by the editor to each selection will be of great help to the "English reader" in explaining the context and giving him his bearings in the discussion. We are told that Dr. Jowett thought this work would be of value to young students and to some who might be kept from reading Plato by the size and cost of his complete translation, "while the University Extension movement, and the increasing number of Colleges for Women, both in England and in America, also seemed to offer a field for a compilation of this nature." We suspect that the good Master of Balliol had not quite taken in the full significance of women's colleges, at least in this country. If we may judge by present signs, these institutions are likely to call for quite as many complete copies of Jowett's Plato, and (what is more significant) of Plato in the original, in proportion to their size, as the men's colleges. These volumes will appeal especially to the more general reader outside of the colleges, to whom these carefully made selections will give an excellent idea of the infinite variety of Plato's speculations and of the dialectic skill of Socrates.

The "Eunuchus," though often called the best of the plays of Terence, is not often read in colleges, and hence it has been rarely edited save in a bare text. And so Prof. Philippe Fabia's edition (Paris: Colin & Cie.) really fills a gap. His text is based upon that of Dziatzko, from whom he seldom departs. The notes, on the same page with the text, are chiefly grammatical and critical, there is a full introduction, and, although the editor does not profess to offer anything particularly new in the line of criticism or interpretation of Terence, yet he is thoroughly acquainted with the literature of the subject, and has the art of stating principles in a few words. The book, which consists of about 250 pages, will be very useful to students of the Terentian comedy.

Mr. George Murray's 'Introduction to the Study of Seaweeds' (Macmillan) is not meant, as so many works of about the same title are, to serve as a handy guide to species; its task is more serious. It is designed to place the student in possession of the principal facts regarding the relationship of the orders, or major groups, of algæ, and this work has been well done. We should, however, have been better pleased to see also a coördinating synopsis of the orders, either at the beginning or the close of the book. The colored plates, eight in number, are of superior quality both as to delineation and to execution. The author has presented in the first thirty pages as clear and full an account of the history of the study of seaweeds, and of the relations of these plants to their surroundings, as we have ever seen in so small a space. This has been done with no sacrifice of necessary detail. It reminds one of the happy faculty which a few persons have of never seeming to be in a hurry, when, in fact, they are crowding an enormous amount of activity into every moment. The author's style is suggestive of that of the lamented Harvey, who invested algæ with a charm that drew to their investigation hosts of amateurs all over the world; both authors have kept accurate proportions throughout their work.

Within the narrow limits of scarce a hundred pages, Mr. William Hutchinson, too, in his 'Handbook of Grasses' (Macmillan), has packed a great amount of interesting information, chiefly about British grasses. At first one is rather repelled by the shabbiness of print and engravings, but this ought not to prejudice one against the really meritorious features of such a good handbook. The grassy carpet of meadows and pastures, uplands, heaths, and moors, of riversides and marshy places, and of the seashore, is resolved into its constituent elements, and each of the constituents is pleasantly described. Even the grasses of cultivated fields, waste places, chalky and sandy fields, and of mountains are taken in turn, and thus is made, from all the materials, a charming chatty companion for any British outing. There is just about enough given as to the ancestry of the family of grasses, and likewise as to their present distribution; then the author passes to a trustworthy presentation of the multifarious uses of the plants of the order. One lays the book down with the feeling that it should have had a better dress.

The second volume of the 'Ornithology of Illinois,' by R. Ridgway, forming a large octavo of nearly 300 pages, with 33 plates, published at Springfield by authority of the State Legislature, as one of the series of the Natural History Survey of Illinois, under the direction of S. A. Forbes of the State Laboratory, contains the gallinaceous and water-birds, which are formally treated with synonymy, diagnosis, and remarks suitable to the character of a local fauna. The work appears to have been long in preparation or course of publication, as the technicalities of the subject are identical with or but little modified from those of Baird, Brewer, and Ridgway's 'Birds of North America of 1874' and later, and the illustrations are the same.

'"Chip's" Old Woodcuts' (New York: Russell & Son) are not woodcuts, and neither is the collection of drawings called '"Chip's" Dogs' issued by the same firm. The gifted artist, the late F. P. W. Bellew, was, like his father, a designer whose humorous creations needed no legend; but he belonged to our latter age of "process," or photographic reproduction of pen-drawings, and probably not one of the pieces in these two portfolios (which represent but a tithe of his product) passed under the graver. The "old woodcuts" are simply imitations of very primitive work, and are clever in this respect as well as in the exuberant comicality of conceit and detail. Both collections will be found familiar by readers of *Life*. It was well to commemorate in this way the lamented author of them.

The gist of Wagner's reforms lies in his claiming for the poet the same importance in an opera as for the composer. But, owing to the faulty enunciation of vocalists, it is usually impossible to make out what they are singing about. His admirers must therefore familiarize themselves with the stories of his operas beforehand if they would enjoy them thoroughly. There is no lack of books for this

purpose, and every year swells the list. The latest two additions are chiefly intended for young readers. H. A. Guerber's 'Stories of the Wagner Operas' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) gives in 191 pages the themes of the eleven from "Rienzi" to "Parsifal." There are some trifling errors in the introductory remarks (*e. g.*, on p. 72, where we read that "Tristan" had its first performance at Nuremberg in 1861—instead of Munich, 1865), but the plots are fairly well told. 'Wagner's Heroes,' by Constance Maud (Edward Arnold), confines itself to four of Wagner's operas, "Parsifal," "Meistersinger," "Tannhäuser," and "Lohengrin," and has therefore more room for details and dialogue, the plots being told as prose stories. Both these books are illustrated.

From Mr. W. L. Tomlins one has a right to expect nothing but the best, and his 'Child's Garden of Song' (A. C. McClurg & Co.) is an exemplification of his good judgment and taste. It contains thirty songs, with simple accompaniment, by Foster, Root, Gilchrist, Seeboeck, Dietrich, and others, beautifully printed, with colored marginal illustrations appropriate to the subject of each song; these, as much as the music, will interest children.

The Franz Hanfstaengl fine art publishing-house has issued an English edition of 'Pictorial Wagner,' with an introductory paper by Henry T. Finck. It contains fifteen full-page photogravures by Ferdinand Leeke, illustrating some of the most striking tableaux in Wagner's operas and music-dramas. They are not photographic reproductions of scenes such as might be witnessed on the actual stage, but imaginative attempts to realize the pictures which Wagner may have had in his mind's eye when he composed for an ideal stage of the future. Mr. Finck's text appropriately dwells especially on the pictorial side of Wagner's genius, and also attempts to give a bird's eye view of the Wagnerian question in general. The progress of Wagnerism in Germany, France, Italy, England, and America is illustrated by figures, and incidentally some new light is thrown on the revolutionary (Dresden) period in Wagner's life, which heretofore has been treated inadequately by his biographers, Mr. Finck included.

Mr. Charles Henry Wyatt, the clerk of the Manchester School Board, has prepared a text-book entitled 'The English Citizen: His Life and Duties' (Macmillan), which is in many respects excellent. It is intended for the use of the higher classes in the English public schools, but it contains so much information of general interest as to make it of value to any one who desires to have some understanding of the present institutions of England. The changes made by legislation during the last few years have been revolutionary, and the differences between the Old England and the New are in the main very well set forth by Mr. Wyatt; all the better, indeed, because he makes no parade of learning and writes in a plain and unaffected style.

'The Elements of English Constitutional History,' by F. C. Montague (Longmans), is intended for the use of those who are beginning to read history. The author expresses the opinion that there is no other book aiming at precisely the same object; but the excellent little work by Mr. James Rowley, entitled 'The Settlement of the English Constitution,' is, for the period which it covers, not likely to be superseded. Prof. Montague, however, goes back to the earliest times and comes down to the present day, so that his book has the merit of completeness. The subject is so large that severe condensation is necessary, with the result that in many cases the narrative becomes a rather bald statement of facts. The condensation, however, appears to be skilfully done; and while beginners in history will find the book stiff reading, it will be acceptable to those who desire a succinct account of the development of the more important political institutions of England.

Lee & Shepard publish 'A General Outline of Civil Government in the United States, the States, Counties, Townships, Cities, and Towns,' prepared by Clinton D. Higby. The author considers that the enumeration of civil officers with their functions constitutes the science of government, and actually offers this dreary list as a text-book to be used by "that large class of students who desire to complete their school work in the shortest time possible." One term, he suggests, with two recitations a week, will be sufficient for this end. We should as soon recommend a beginner in Astronomy to commit to memory the list of the stars as advise any one to undertake the study of government after this fashion. Nevertheless, as "the subject of civil government" is compressed by Mr. Higby into 80 pages of large type, the ambitious student may well consider that matters might be worse with him. We may add that the lists of institutions and officers are not without value as illustrating the general scheme of government under which we live.

The doctor's dissertation (Chicago University) of Dr. Frederick Ives Carpenter, on 'Metaphor and Simile in the Minor Elizabethan Drama,' is a thoroughly competent and, within its range, exhaustive piece of work, with which critical students of the period will have to reckon. Selecting eight authors—Lyly, Peele, Marlowe, Greene, Tourneur, Webster, Chapman, and Jonson—the author records and classifies, not merely every metaphor and simile in the restricted sense, but every trope "in which imagination is felt to be present." Frequent intelligent summaries and a final chapter of enlightening comment protect the work from the bane of pedantry, and succeed in giving a definite and satisfying general impression of each author. The essay is full of such tersely comprehensive sentences as this: "Webster's characteristic figure is the deliberate comparison. But the emotional power of his similes, if somewhat dry, bitter, and conscious, is scarcely less than that of the deepest and most burning metaphors." The work suggests Dr. F. Klaeber's 'Das Bild bei Chaucer'; but, while not equalling that book in sheer *Sitzfleisch*, is much superior to it in critical balance and insight. In parts, moreover, it is written with a distinction of style as rare in a doctor's thesis as it is welcome.

Dr. Knoke, professor of theology in the University of Göttingen, assisted by several of his colleagues, has recently opened a so-called *Rectorseminar* for the purpose of facilitating for theologians the acquisition of the pedagogical knowledge requisite for heads of common schools, instructors in teachers' seminaries, and school inspectors. This new device of enlarging the direct influence of the clergy in school affairs, though receiving no financial aid from the Prussian Government, has at least the semi-official approval of the "Kultur- und Unterrichts-Minister," but is looked upon with disfavor by the teachers of the kingdom.

The congress of educational societies recently held at Havre was attended by four hundred delegates, each society being represented by from two to five members. Though none of the organizations represented has any official connection with the public-school system, the minister of public instruction, the vice-rector of the University of Paris, and other officials of high rank took an active part in the deliberations of the congress, and the President of the republic was present at some of the meetings. The work was distributed among four sections, as follows: Courses of instruction for adults; instruction with the aid of wall maps and the stereopticon (*enseignement par l'aspect; projections lumineuses*); public lectures; and protection and instruction of adolescents above the legal school age (*patronages scolaires*). The reports of the transactions of the meeting leave no room for doubting the earnestness and effectiveness with which these beneficent enterprises are carried on in various parts of the republic.

A new educational quarterly, *Deutsche Zeitschrift für Ausländisches Unterrichtswesen* (Leipzig: Voigtländer; New York: Westermann), bids fair to rank with the best publications of its class. Its editor, Dr. Wychgram, is well known among German educators, more especially in the field of the higher education for women. He is assisted in his new enterprise by a numerous staff of men and women, eminent in their profession and belonging to many nationalities. The initial number of the periodical contains, aside from shorter contributions and a good summary of recent events in the educational world, leading articles by well-informed writers on educational affairs in England, Switzerland, France, and the United States. Dr. Waetzhold's paper on "Coeducation" must be interesting to German readers; it is marred, however, by one or two sensational statements which would find little credence in this country, and we are not strongly impressed with the acuteness of his prognostications. Dr. Schlee, in another article on education in America, errs in supposing that, for the country at large, the public high schools are of no account as far as preparation for college is concerned; in some of the Western States they serve this purpose almost to the exclusion of private schools. It would not be surprising if the difficulties in gathering and digesting the necessary information about educational matters in this country, and especially in attaining to a right understanding of them, were to baffle even the most painstaking industry of German students for some time to come.

The art publishing house of Gerlach & Schenk, Vienna (New York: Westermann), has just initiated an enterprise that commends itself by mere description. It has undertaken to reproduce the best autographic drawings by famous artists in the Albertina collection at Vienna, and will probably extend its range so as to include many other collections. Part i. is a folio containing two drawings by Albert Dürer and one each by Rembrandt, Francesco Francia, Van Dyck, Luini, Hopfer, Hans Sebold Beham, Fréminet, and Dumonstier. In other words, the Dutch, Upper German, French, Bolognese, Milanese, and Flemish schools are here represented. There is no accompanying text. Each print observes the tint of the original, and bears the name of the artist and of the collection. Publication is monthly, at three marks the *Lieferung*, and there appears to be no limit to the ultimate size of this valuable Corpus, of which the mechanical execution is admirable.

—*La Revue Blanche* of October 15 publishes a translation of another utterance on socialistic subjects by Count L. N. Tolstoi. This brief treatise forms the introduction to a book by E. I. Popoff, recently published at Berlin,

in Russian, 'The Life and Death of E. N. Drozhzhin.' Drozhzhin was an intelligent young man of the peasant class, who received sufficient education to pass the examinations for the diploma of teacher. He settled in the country, as a schoolmaster, for the purpose of propagating socialistic and revolutionary doctrines, at the age of nineteen. At the age of twenty-three he embraced Tolstoi's doctrines in their fullest extent, with all their consequences, the love of all men, even of his bitterest enemies, absolute negation of the right to kill his fellow-men, and the equally absolute refusal to recognize any other master than "God and his Son, Christ." When summoned to do his military service he refused. He was sent, by way of punishment, to the "disciplinary battalions," where he remained steadfast in his refusal. Later on, he refused to take the oath to the new (the present) Emperor. He died at the end of four years. *La Revue Blanche* gives no details from the biography of Drozhzhin, but it would be interesting to know whether they resemble those contained in a similar biography which was being prepared under Count Tolstoi's eye several years ago, and which has not been published, it would seem. In that case, the unprejudiced reader could not help feeling that though many acts of tolerance on the part of the Government officials were twisted into constructive acts of oppression, there must be some real acts of oppression at the end of the repeated refusals to recognize authority on the part of the conscript. Only, unfortunately, Drozhzhin's counterpart was so long-winded over these preliminaries that his autobiography never got to the interesting point where he was sent to the disciplinary battalion and began to have real experiences. As Count Tolstoi has already written a good deal on the subject of resistance to government of all kinds, and of the military art of murder, it is natural that his utterances in the present work should, to a certain degree, lack freshness, as to the idea and spirit, at least. Still, his expressions are often very clear.

—The third number for 1895 of the *Archivio Storico dell'Arte* comes, as usual, months late, but is more than usually interesting. The eminent architect Camillo Boito contributes an article, as brilliant as it is convincing, on the thirty-odd works by Donatello in the Santo at Padua, their original relation to each other, and his (Signor Boito's) recent arrangement of them into a reredos. Rarely, we may add, has constructive criticism had before it a worthier task or one which has been better performed. At last, after centuries of neglect, these masterpieces of Italian sculpture can be properly seen and somewhat as Donatello meant them to be seen. To return to the *Archivio*, M. Cornelius de Fabriczy furnishes a paper on Verrocchio's relations to the Medici which considerably increases our acquaintance with the as yet too shadowy figure of Leonardo's master. In reviewing the previous number of the *Archivio* we spoke of Signor Supino's acute criticism of the marbles generally supposed to have formed part of Giovanni Pisano's pulpit for the Cathedral of Pisa, and his decision that a number of these could not have belonged to this pulpit, a much simpler structure than has been believed, but must have served as the support of Henry VII.'s tomb, the chief member of which is now in the Campo Santo. In this number Signor Supino reconstructs this tomb of "German Henry," and also discusses its author's (Tino da Camaino's) works in Florence and Naples. Finally Signor Vittadini, in an account of recent acquisitions made by that model of private artistic foundations, the Poldi Museum at Milan, throws welcome light on the three Florentine Raffaellinos, almost as indistinguishable in their style as in their names, who painted toward the turn of the fifteenth into the sixteenth century.

—The quarter's advance in 'The Oxford English Dictionary' (the shortened name for 'A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles') is marked by a section from Dr. Murray in vol. iii. (Depravative—Development) and one from Mr. Henry Bradley in vol. iv. (Fee—Field). "I understand," wrote Fénelon to the French Academy, "that the English deny themselves no word that comes handy to them. They pick it up wherever they find it among their neighbors." For example, they found the French rich in four distinct verbs *dériver;* the one meaning 'to unrivet' they neglected, the others they helped themselves to, in the verbal or in a substantive form. At a much later period they took over *dernier ressort*, but with the spelling "resort" till the general spread of knowledge of the French language restored the *s* and apparently denaturalized the phrase by putting it in italics. Still later, in 1850, Dr. Lardner borrowed *derail* and *derailment*, which Bescherelle admitted to his French Dictionary in 1845, but the Academy only in 1878, and which owed their English vogue chiefly to American usage—in happy conformity to railroad experience in this country. *Derout*, 'to put completely to flight,' was toyed with, on both sides of the water, for two centuries, from 1637 to 1839, but the French are now welcome to reclaim it. The handiness of *détour* was recognized in 1738, with liberty to drop the accent, and (as in the case of *débris*) Dr. Murray thinks this still rather to be called the English form, in spite of the scholastic tendency to replace the accent. (Compare the French preservation of the English spelling of *veto*, while pronouncing *véto*.) *Design* occurs in Hooker in 1593, and we have found this spelling sufficient for all meanings, whereas the French original has been gradually differentiated into *dessein*, 'purpose, plan,' and *dessin*, 'design in art.' But then, just to show what the makers of English speech are capable of fashioning on their own account, Mr. Bradley arrays these synonyms for "the ever-womanly": *Femality* (Richardson, 1754), *feminacy* (Lytton, 1847), *feminality* (Sir T. Brown [*sic*], 1646), *femineity* (Coleridge, 1820), *feminicity* (*Fraser's Mag.*, 1843), *femínility* (*id.*, 1838), *femininess* (*Times*, 1859), *femininism* (U. S., 1846), *femininitude* (J. Thomson, 1878), *femininity* (Chaucer, 1386), *feminism* (1851), *feminity* (Chaucer, 1386). One or two of these have a squint towards old or modern French or towards the Italian, but seem independently built.

—The good old Anglo-Saxon word *fellow*—primarily, 'one who lays down money in a joint undertaking'—has been thought to be abused when coupled with "countrymen" or "townsmen," at least when not employed in apostrophe. Stocker, however, in 1583, wrote: "They keepe their faith . . . with their fellow countrie men," and there is no question that *fellow* has in such connections a pathetic weight which relieves it of sheer redundancy. It is to be regretted that we have lost the verb *fellow-feel*, considering how much overworked *sympathize* is. It did not survive the seventeenth century, in which it appeared as a "back-formation from *fellow-feeling*." *Fence* was very early (in the fourteenth century) and fruitfully shortened from *defence*. Five phrases, "chiefly U. S.," are quoted under the substantive, but only one of these, 'to stand or sit [or be] upon [on] the fence,' is now current. Proof-readers might heed the remark, under the prefix *des-*, on the distinction between "words [like *descry*, *despair*, etc.] beginning with *des-*, in which the *s* belongs to the root-word and the prefix is *de-*," and others; this for its bearing on hyphening. They may also study the history of *fetish*, in which *sh* was first used, *ch* and *che* turning up at a much later date, and Coleridge even venturing *sch*—thus Germanizing the French. Now the pendulum has properly swung back to *sh*. Those who are curious as to what constitutes an Americanism will be surprised to find a special quotation from Mrs. Stowe's 'Uncle Tom,' under the verb *determine:* "Impersonal passive. 'It was determined to sell the place.'" Quotations which we miss are President Cleveland's proverbial "innocuous *desuetude*"; the Devil's "*Fen* miracles!" in 'Father Tom and the Pope'; and FitzGerald's "The Sultan rises, and the dark *Ferrásh* Strikes, and prepares it for another guest."

—Prof. Eugène Hubert, of the University of Liège, has made an interesting contribution to the history of humanitarian jurisprudence by printing, with an explanatory introduction, the 'Mémoires de Goswin de Fierlant' (Brussels, 1895). De Fierlant was a distinguished lawyer and member of the Privy Council of the Austrian Netherlands, who was instructed, in 1771, to report on a proposition for the abolition of torture in criminal procedure. It is this report, hitherto inedited, and a subsequent one on the substitution of houses of correction for corporal punishments, that Prof. Hubert has given to the world, and the former especially is well worth reading by all who feel an interest in the peculiar social development of modern Christendom. The Netherlands were very tardy in yielding to the impulse from Vienna for the abolition of torture; it was formally accomplished in 1787, but the practice continued, and the final abrogation did not occur until the conquest of the country by the revolutionary armies in 1794. The memoir of De Fierlant is a very clear and convincing argument, of which the reasoning is supported by a number of curious cases illustrative of the abuses to which the employment of such a means of eliciting truth must inevitably lead. No one who has not studied the criminal annals of the past can rightly appreciate the entire revolution in sentiment and practice involved in the disuse of judicial torture. Except in Great Britain, it was the main reliance of society to protect itself against crime and criminals, and, hideous as it was, one may well question whether the humanitarian pendulum has not swung too far on the other side, and view with well-grounded apprehension the increase of crime in all civilized states save England, where maudlin sympathy with evil-doers has not been permitted to relax the severity of even-handed justice. M. Hubert gives us reason to regard his present publication as merely a *prodromus* to an investigation into the history of the abolition of torture in the Low Countries, a task for which his easy command of documentary sources would show him to be peculiarly fitted. If he would add to this an examination into the influence of the change on the frequency of crime, he would have an additional claim on the gratitude of all penologists.

—So perfectly natural an appointment as that of a female physician as attendant to an

institution for women has recently been hailed in Vienna as an unprecedented triumph of woman's rights, and has become the subject of general discussion in the newspapers. Dr. Georgine von Roth, who has been appointed, with the Emperor's sanction, physician to an institution for the education of daughters of army officers in that city, is a graduate of the University of Zurich. As attendant at the clinic of Prof. Neusser of Vienna, she had given evidence of marked professional ability. The interest in her appointment has been intensified by the hostile attitude of the eminent Vienna surgeon, Prof. Albert, towards the admission of female students to medical colleges. His threadbare arguments regarding the physical inferiority of women, their intellectual unproductiveness as compared with men, their manifest destiny to be child-bearers and nothing else, etc., have given rise to a flood of replies. Perhaps the best point is made by a writer in the *Fremden-Blatt*, who, while accepting with mock-modesty the rôle of *Naturwesen* assigned to her by Prof. Albert, in contradistinction to the *Kulturwesen* which she had fondly imagined herself to be, takes exception to his remark that "anatomy may have failed to reveal any structural difference between the brain of the male and that of the female." Would it not be fairer and more scientifically precise, she asks, to say that anatomy *has* so far failed to reveal such a difference, and may it not be useful to give female investigators a chance to pursue the subject? She then goes on to say, what is every day becoming more patent both in Europe and in this country, that women are the natural physicians for young children, and she quotes male physicians to this effect. So Dr. Mae H. Cardwell of Portland, in her recent address before the Oregon State Medical Society, said that "if there is a place in medicine for the woman physician, it is in the department of pædiatrics."

WOOD-ENGRAVING VS. PROCESS.

Old Dutch and Flemish Masters. Engraved by Timothy Cole. With Critical Notes by John C. Van Dyke, and Comments by the Engraver. New York: The Century Co. 1895.

Masterpieces of the Great Artists, A.D. 1400-1700. By Mrs. Arthur Bell (N. D'Anvers). London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

MR. COLE'S second series of engravings after the old masters is brought out by the Century Co. in even handsomer style than was the first in 1892, and the beautiful volume raises again the question of the relative merits of engraving and mechanical process in the reproduction of paintings. Extravagant claims of superiority over any photograph have been made for Mr. Cole, and one feels impelled to test the question by actual comparison. For this purpose let us take up side by side Mr. Cole's two volumes and one that is, in many respects, very inferior to them. 'Masterpieces of the Great Artists' contains 34 not very finely executed process plates and 8 photogravures after celebrated pictures. Only the most celebrated pictures (*i. e.*, the most hackneyed) have been chosen, but in a few instances the same or very similar works have been chosen by Mr. Cole. The photogravures are left out of the count, and we have to deal only with the inferior half-tone plates. Let us compare some of these with Mr. Cole's engravings and try to decide in what particulars either are superior. Fra Angelico's "Annunciation," Botticelli's "Primavera," and Titian's "Entombment" in the 'Old Italian Masters,' and Rubens's "Chapeau de Poil," Rembrandt's "Night Watch," and Potter's "Bull" in the 'Dutch and Flemish Masters,' are paralleled by plates in the 'Masterpieces,' while pictures by De Hoogh of very similar subject are contained in both works.

In the first of these instances there is little to choose. Fra Angelico comes out nearly equally well in both cases, though Mr. Cole has attributed to him a piece of bad perspective in the base of the left-hand column of which he was not guilty, and the engraving, curiously enough, shows a lack of definition as compared with the half-tone plate. In the cases of the "Primavera" and the "Night Watch" fair comparison is impossible, as the process plates give the whole composition, while Mr. Cole has confined himself to a fragment on a much larger scale. The engraver's incontestable superiority in these instances is largely a matter of scale alone. Comparing the other plates, one finds that the points of advantage for the engraver are a richer and handsomer quality, and sometimes, not always, greater fidelity of tone. In fidelity to form the advantage is all the other way. The greater richness of color and variety of surface of wood-engraving when done by an artist like Cole are indisputable and are constant. His cuts are much pleasanter to the eye than any half-tone can be, but this is a virtue of wood-engraving *per se*, not of wood-engraving as a means of faithful reproduction.

Now compare carefully the head of St. John or that of the Magdalen in Cole's engraving of the "Entombment" with the heads in the process cut, and see how far truth of form has been sacrificed by the engraver. He has altered the shape of the latter and entirely spoiled the expression of the former and ruined its beauty. Then look at the drapery of Nicodemus, and see how its crinkly glitter is lost in the wood-engraving so that it is more like wool than silk. Even in tone the process print is really truer, for, in spite of its exaggerations, it does give an idea of the glowing light on the corpse and its winding-sheet, while the wood-engraving is all too gray. Turn now to the "Chapeau de Poil." Mr. Cole is unusually successful here, and the process plate is a poor one. Mr. Cole's plate is not only much handsomer than the process cut, but it is much truer to the original in tone and suggestion of color, but, again, it is not so true in form. Look at the way the process plate gives you the peculiar fat modelling of the hands and the very touch of Rubens, and compare the mouth in the two engravings, and you will be convinced of the greater accuracy of process. In Potter's "Bull" the superiority even of tone is with the process cut, and it is still more so in the case of the two plates after De Hoogh. Here the very circulation of the air in the room and the wonderful justness of light and value which are the essence of De Hoogh's work can be seen only in the process cut, the wood-engraving being singularly unsuccessful in this respect.

There is, indeed, another quality in good wood-engraving which is entirely absent in process work; it is that which is referred to by the editors of the *Century* when, in announcing the completion of this series of engravings, they say: "There is a distinct difference between picture-making and art." It is, in a word, the artistic personality of the engraver himself. The reason we have not referred to that quality in making these comparisons is because the artistic personality of the engraver, when it steps between us and the personality of the original artist, is a distinct intrusion. Mr. Cole is an artist, and no one places a higher value on his art than we do; but he is not Raphael or Rubens, and it is Raphael and Rubens that we want in a series of plates after the old masters, not Mr. Cole. It is just this intrusion of the personality of the copyist that makes all the old copies and engravings after the old masters entirely useless for study, and that has made the modern perfection of photography the basis of all serious comparative criticism. The personality of the engraver is legitimately employed when he is working from nature, or from what is practically the same thing, a photograph from nature, but it has no place in the reproduction of works of art. It is this fact, and not "the rage for cheap work," which accounts for the popularity of process, at least with artists. They are willing to sacrifice much of richness and beauty of surface, and all of the engraver's personality, for the sake of the impersonal fidelity of mechanical reproduction.

We hope, with the editors of the *Century*, that "the love of good wood-engraving" will never be eradicated—wood-engraving is too valuable an art to be allowed to die; but its safety is to be assured by the same means as that of any other art. Let it deal at first hand with nature as does painting; let the engravers do such original artistic work from nature or photographs of nature as some of them are already beginning to do, and it will survive. Wood-engraving as a purely reproductive art we believe to be doomed. For other and for deeper reasons than the *Century* editors give, it is true that "such an enterprise" as that of this series of copies of the Dutch Masters not only is "not likely to be done so well" again, but is not likely to be done by any one else at all.

The text of Mrs. Bell's volume may be dismissed in a few words as containing a minimum of information and no criticism at all. Not so the text of the 'Old Dutch and Flemish Masters.' Besides the pleasant "Notes by the Engraver," which are familiar to readers of the *Century Magazine*, the volume has been supplied with introductory "notes" on Dutch and Flemish art, and with short essays on each painter, by John C. Van Dyke. These are serious and able critical studies, worthy of publication for themselves, and not merely as obligato accompaniments to Mr. Cole. Mr. Van Dyke is, of all our literary critics of art, the one who most often and most surely attains to the artist's point of view; and these essays are nearly as good expositions of the beauties proper to Dutch and Flemish painting as could be asked. In only one or two points are we inclined to differ with him, and he must pardon us for singling out these for comment rather than the many in which he seems to us indisputably right. We can refer the reader to Mr. Van Dyke's own pages for the latter.

The article on Rembrandt is very good, but in the end of it there is one short sentence that we think misleading. It is this: "Doubtless his chiaroscuro came to him from Caravaggio; but how or when, no one knows." The two systems of light and shade seem to us so radically different that to join them in this way can only cause confusion. Caravaggio was fond of brutally black shadows, as were all the artists that derive from him, from Ribera and Valentin to Ribot, and Rembrandt's love of shadow makes his work seem "black" to a modern; but here the resemblance ends. The shadows of the school of Caravaggio are nar-

row black accents evenly distributed through the canvas and equally dark everywhere. The lighting is as general as with the earlier Italians, only the shadows are everywhere black, and this without regard to the colors of the objects illuminated. What really distinguishes Rembrandt's chiaroscuro, as every painter knows, is the transparence and luminosity of his shadow. He bathed in shadow, flung it over most of his canvas—his pictures exist in an atmosphere of shadow—but every inch of it is shadow filled with light, criss-crossed with hundreds of reflections. His gloom is saturated with light, and the stupid blackness of Caravaggio's shade without atmosphere was as impossible to him as it would be to the most advanced of our impressionists. From whatever source "his chiaroscuro came to him," we venture to assert that it did *not* come from Caravaggio. If he got the hint of it from any Italian source, it is more likely to have been from Correggio, with whose system his own has real analogies.

We may be influenced by a purely personal feeling in thinking that Mr. Van Dyke does not do complete justice to Ver Meer, more commonly known as Von der Meer of Delft. The work of that artist, with its Dutch sobriety and impeccability, combines a subtlety and refinement, an air of high breeding, a delicacy and a style, which are almost unique, and give him a place quite apart from any other painter. To many of us he seems an exemplar of quiet perfection and a man hardly sufficiently to be praised. It is not, however, in a question of taste, but in one of pictorial science, that Mr. Van Dyke is surely wrong. He is speaking of the blue atmosphere of some of Ver Meer's pictures, notably the little one in our own Metropolitan Museum, and says:

"Ver Meer evidently had an inkling of what the modern impressionists have discovered, namely, that there is less luminosity in white than in blue. White is dead, flat, opaque; while blue, thinly laid, is transparent, vibrant, scintillating. Claude Monet has abundantly demonstrated this in his landscapes, but Ver Meer first hinted at it in his interiors. There was certainly no painter of the time, not even Rembrandt with his sharp contrasts, who gained greater height of light than Ver Meer; and something of it was due to his use of blue."

His use of blue was not the only thing in which Ver Meer anticipated the impressionists, as those know who have studied his wonderful little "View of Delft" in The Hague Museum; but we are mistaken if Monet would not be as much surprised as Ver Meer himself to be told that blue is a "luminous" color. It is precisely the least luminous of all colors, and that is why it is, as Mr. Van Dyke says, the "most unmanageable," and why Reynolds formulated his rule, which Gainsborough defied, that it should be reserved for the shadows and never appear in the principal light of a picture. Blue is essentially shadow, and that very fact, rightly understood, is the key to the impressionists' use of it; for as never so little blue will at once produce the effect of shadow, one is enabled to paint on a much higher key with blue shadows than without. Instead of a difference in the degree of remove from white, the impressionist merely gives a difference of tint, and so gets his whole canvas into the upper register and makes it the dazzling thing we know, while his pale blues, in spite of their paleness, still look like, and are, shadows. It is in the shadow alone that Ver Meer or the modern impressionists use their blue; light they invariably render as warm in tone, yellow or even pink, either of these colors being really "more luminous than white," which partakes of the cold nature of blue. It is the non-luminous nature of blue that makes a blue sky so hard to paint, and every decorator knows how blue kills the light of a room. It is only by breaking blue with all sorts of warmer tones, as Gainsborough did, that it can be made to express light at all.

These are, after all, few and small errors in a work the bulk of which is so good, and our last word, like our first, must be one of praise. Engraver, writer, and publisher have worthily collaborated to produce a beautiful book and one which deserves the success and the praise it is sure to receive.

CONWAY'S ALP-TROTTING.

The Alps from End to End. By Sir William Martin Conway. With 100 full-page illustrations by A. D. M'Cormick. Macmillan. 1895.

We are glad to be able to tell the reader that Sir W. M. Conway's exploits in the Himalayas have not spoiled him for the Alps. Neither has he yielded to the temptation to become a "centrist." If he chose to claim the throne of the Riffel he could occupy it without a protest. But he rises superior to all allurements, and continues to traverse the great ranges from Limone to Gastein.

The tour which is described under the above comprehensive title was an attempt to go back to the original aim of English mountaineering. The founders of the Alpine Club were travellers who wished to explore new districts, find new routes, and climb new peaks. They succeeded so well that the mysteries of the Alps are now as dead as Scheuchzer's dragons. The contemporary mountaineer feels that no fresh discoveries await him, and that his best chance of sport is to attack the peaks of a chosen range from some convenient and comfortable centre. The number of errants thus tends to diminish, while the number of "centrists" is continually on the gain. Sir W. M. Conway and the Rev. W. A. B. Coolidge, who contributes an important chapter to this volume, are both free from the reproach of abandoning the primitive and orthodox traditions of their school. By combining forces they have brought out, during the last fourteen years, a series of Climbers' Guides which treats of nearly half the Alps. This series is a standing witness to the hold which Alpine scrambling has on one of the most cultivated classes in the world. Mr. Freshfield, at a dinner of the Alpine Club, once called its small but expensive volumes "the dearest little books there are." The fact is that for their purpose they are invaluable, and though they may have been the cause of localization in others, they are witnesses to the catholic taste of the compilers themselves.

We have been led to speak of the Climbers' Guides because 'The Alps from End to End' is largely topographical. In it topography is united with personal narrative, not presented in the bald style of a pocket dictionary; but it lends the book unity, and adds vastly to its interest in the eyes of those who wish to read the text as well as look at the pictures. We wish we could say that there was no need for such a *coup d'œil* of the Alpine region, but we cannot in conscience do so. The general ignorance of Alpine geography among people who ought to be well informed is equally doleful and conspicuous. Not long ago a distinguished professor in one of our leading colleges, writing at length on Swiss government, said that the Alps as contrasted with the Jura "are made up of one great ridge supported by far-reaching buttresses." And only the other day an extensive work of reference, besides putting Mont Blanc in Switzerland, involved the Great and Little St. Bernard in hopeless confusion. We doubt whether twenty people on this side of the Atlantic could enumerate off-hand the Alpine groups, from the Grande Chartreuse to the Triglav. If 'The Alps from End to End' dispels even a part of this haziness, its publication will be justified.

Sir William Conway thus states his main purposes in the introduction:

"It occurred to me that it was now possible, taking the whole range of the Alps, to devise a new route, or rather a combination of climbs, the descent from each ending at the starting-point for the next, so that a climber might begin at one extremity of the snowy range, and walk up and down through its midst to the other extremity over a continuous series of peaks and passes . . . The route selected had to be capable of execution within three months of average weather, which is a mixture of good and bad with the bad predominating. It was also essential that it should lead as continuously as possible through snowy regions, and that it should traverse as many of the more interesting and well-known groups as possible."

In pursuance of this plan, two parties met at Turin, on June 1, 1894, and proceeded to the Colle de Tenda, between Turin and Ventimiglia. Sir William Conway had with him Mattias Zurbriggen of Macugnaga, and two Gurkhas, Amar Sing and Karbir, all of whom had shared the fatigues and adventures of Karakoram exploration. Zurbriggen will perhaps be best remembered as the man who, in spite of sphygmograph revelations, managed to smoke a cigar on the summit of Pioneer Peak, altitude 23,000 feet. Mr E. A. Fitzgerald, an old climber, was Sir William Conway's companion. He brought two Valtournanche guides, J. K. Aymonod and Louis Carrel, who accompanied Mr. Whymper to the Andes. This was a party quite strong enough to attack anything which lay in its path, and it finished its tour without accident, a comforting reflection at the end of such an Alpine summer as the last has been. Twenty-one ascents were made and thirty-nine passes traversed. The large proportion of passes to peaks was due to badness of the weather. We do not trace the line of progress, partly because its details would be too minute for the non-Alpine reader, and partly because the Alpine reader will buy the book. We will say, though, that a beginner at Alpine topography will do well to follow out Sir William Conway's whole course on the largest maps he can get. One would find it hard to recommend a better *Orientierung*. A selection of six peaks and six passes will serve to show the character of the climbing done. Peaks: Monte Viso, Mont Blanc, Monte Rosa, Jungfrau, Weisskugel, Gross Glockner. Passes: Col de la Flégère, Lötschenlücke, Oberaarjoch, Ober-Vermunt, Sonklar, Venedigerscharte. The most easterly of the peaks was the Pelvo d'Elva, in the Cottians; the most westerly, the Ankogel, in the Hohe Tauern. Sixty-five days were actually spent on the march, and the distance traversed was about a thousand miles. Probably no trip of a single summer in the Alps has ever embraced so much.

Leaving topography and coming to the narrative part of the book, we are inclined to think that the Gurkhas add more life to its pages than the Europeans. Whenever they stopped of a night at an inn, the *Mädchen* lost her heart to one or both of them. We shall not attempt to conjecture whether it was strangeness of color and costume or personal charm which produced this invariable result. Their actions

on the mountain-side are a sufficient passport to the esteem of the reader. The picture of Karbir's activity in camp is very attractive. "I have never seen a more alert intelligence," says his employer, after describing his unfailing usefulness. In climbing they were best pleased when they got a taste of danger. Descending Mont Blanc, the party crossed the Glacier des Bossons. Before they were over, a discharge of ice and stones from the Aiguille du Midi nearly caught them. "Crash! came a great rock, accompanied by several large blocks of ice. We felt the wind of them as they flew by. Karbir jiggered with delight. 'It goes li, li, li,' cried he." Amar Sing's mettle was the same. Below the Schneehorn, in the Wildstrubel region, it was necessary to cross some deeply grooved snow-slopes. The further side of one of these grooves "was of soft snow and quite vertical. Amar Sing, who was leading, went for the wall as though it had been an insult. He jumped at it, and thrust his four extremities into it. The frail substance was not strong enough for such treatment, so back he fell into the groove, and down it into a crevasse, where the rope stopped him. Karbir hauled him out, and he returned to the charge, with a better understanding of what had to be done." Three weeks later, in going from the Maderanerthal to the Ruseiu Alp, Amar Sing's reckless scrambling nearly cost him his life. "This adventure occurred out of my sight. When he rejoined me, I at once perceived that something had happened to amuse him, for he was breaking out into laughter every few minutes." Dash and usefulness, however, were not the Gurkhas' only virtues. They took enthusiastic delight in the scenery of the Alps, and were the best of friends with the guides. Here is Aymonod's opinion of them: "When I heard that I was to travel with two Indians I did not know what to expect. I feared they would be savages. But these men are charming to travel with; they are so friendly and intelligent. They are quite civilized men." One of the chief aims of the expedition was to give the Gurkhas a thorough mountaineering education, in order that they might take part in Himalayan exploration. On their return to India they were at once sent to join the Wazaristan force. We sincerely hope that they have not shared Mr. Mummery's fate in the recent disaster in the Nanga Parbat region. The despatches state that two Gurkhas perished with him, but their names have not been given.

Sir William Conway's method of telling his story by transcriptions from his dairy is not a complete success. One's experiences, recorded day by day, for three months, cannot fail to be occasionally tame. But the dull pages are few in comparison with the mass of the book, and where the incident flags, an excursus on some collateral subject often comes to the rescue. The chapter on the landslip at Elm, for instance, is a skilfully managed and interesting digression. We are also glad to hear of Father Placidus a Spescha. The comparisons drawn between the Alps and Himalayas are often suggestive, and the descriptions of scenery are full of fine feeling. Whenever the author touches upon practical matters connected with mountaineering, as in his recommendation of tents, sleeping-bags, cameras, head-gear, and *pattis*, he is sure to be listened to with respectful attention. The *patti*, which bids fair to supplant gaiters, is a stout woollen bandage, five inches wide and at least three yards long. It is wound round the leg from the ankle to the knee. This contribution of India to Alpine craft so pleased the guides that Carrel is trying to introduce the industry of *patti*-weaving in Val Tournanche.

Two chapters are added to the account of the trip of 1894. The first is by Sir William Conway, on "Tirolese Scrambles in 1875"; the other, by Mr. Coolidge, is entitled "A Run through the Western and Central Alps." The latter article is a masterpiece which does credit to the "most learned expert in Alpine topography that has ever lived." To be sure, Mr. Coolidge gives us a shock of surprise by confessing his ignorance of the Disgraz a and Bernina groups, but in the same breath he announces his intention of filling up the gap. He has our best wishes for success in this undertaking, which will put the finishing touch to the vast fabric of Alpine lore which he has reared.

Sir William Conway tells many good stories, one of which we cannot refrain from repeating. During the first fortnight of the trip, while in the Maritime and Cottian Alps, he was disagreeably importuned by Italian gendarmes who mistook the Gurkhas for Tunisian natives. On arriving at Modane he found the French officials most polite and willing to assist him. While listening to the volubility of one of them, Conway "went a-dreaming, merely agreeing with him, from time to time. 'Alors,' he said, 'nous sommes des ânes.' 'Quite true,' I replied vaguely. Down came Fitzgerald's heel, hobnailed, on my slippered foot, and I perceived that I must have blundered. The official repeated his remark severely, I replied appropriately, and the matter passed." This furnishes a parallel to the "Brigadier, vous avez raison," of Gustave Nadaud's immortal *chanson*.

In conclusion, we must praise the beauty of the volume, and the many admirable illustrations made by Mr. A. D. M'Cormick from photographs taken *en route*.

English Lands, Letters, and Kings: Queen Anne and the Georges. By Donald G. Mitchell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

VERY musical is the alliterative title of the "bold scurry" series to which, after the lapse of four years, Mr. Mitchell has added a third volume; but of English lands, letters, and kings the series says less than might be expected. What these entirely delightful volumes do give is much matter of interesting inconsequence touching personal traits and habits of English writers. And they give this matter, it is fair to say, in "art of the highest gossipy kind," such as Mr. Mitchell finds in the letters of Walpole. The present volume ricochets over a period in interpreting which Mr. Mitchell is by temperament at his best. He has a sure touch when treating human nature in its genial, its gently pathetic, its cultivated, its eminently sensible and restrained aspects; and through his book the eighteenth-century worthies walk with all their native wit and vigor. There is Bentley, in extreme old age, "a gray, rugged, persistent, captious old man, with a great, full eye that looked one through and through, and with a short nose, turned up—as if he always scented a false quantity in the air"; and the fading but unquenchable Wortley Montagu, believing always in "living on cordials when one can have no other nourishment"; Pope, big-brained, weak, misshapen, "biting that thin lip of his till the blood starts"; Swift, fierce and black, but incapable of maliciously rallying any man's affections; Richardson, his books full of "pillows bedew'd with tears"; Rousseau and Diderot, "blubbering their admiring thanks for *Clarissa Harlowe*"; Walpole, pacing through "his gimcrack of a palace" "with *pétillant* small-beerish talk," "pulling out his golden snuff-box and whisking a delicate pinch into his old nostrils—then dusting his affluent shirt-frills with the tips of his dainty fingers." And so on through the long list. To our notion, the best miniatures in the collection are those of Burney, Austen, Cowper, and Lamb. The "great melancholy" of Cowper, his tenderness, his truth to English lowland physical nature, his clear force of epithet—"full of singleness of story"—are things that by his natural affinities Mr. Mitchell has been able luminously to review. Of Lamb, again, nothing more finely sympathetic has ever been written than is here set down.

The work of each writer receives but brief criticism; and, though the critic is felicitously terse in characterization, his dicta are sometimes curiously unsatisfactory. The estimate of Bentley is hardly discriminating; that of Berkeley, unappreciative; that of Pope, extravagant; those of Gray, Crabbe, Coleridge, are inadequate from the historical point of view. It seems strange that a littérateur of Mr. Mitchell's information should think it necessary so completely to neglect the course of the great movements of this period. We can endure (better, perhaps, than we formerly could have done) the hint that there are in Pope's 'Iliad' "splendid scores of Homeric lines, which blaze and palpitate with new Greek fire"; but how can we relish the failure to trace, in even the briefest outline, the changing attitude of the period towards nature and towards mediæval life?

We referred to the author's style. It is extremely engaging; but in details it is far from unimpeachable, being victimized by *and who*, *and which*, by the pitfall of mixed tenses, and by other enemies of good English, to name which were here pedantic. The book is carefully made, but there are misprints at pages 40 (line 6), 71 (headline), and 344 (line 23).

The Mogul Emperors of Hindustan. By Edward S. Holden, LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. Pp. xvi, 365.

THIS volume might well be entitled the Historical Recreations of an Astronomer, for Dr. Holden is better known as director of the famous Lick Observatory in California than as a student and a writer of history. His volume does not pretend to contain evidence of original research or even of a thorough knowledge of the secondary authorities upon the subject which he treats. It is rather a production of what the last century termed polite or elegant literature, and consists largely of quotations from the writings of and about the Mogul Emperors who ruled in India, and of easy narratives of the events in which they played their part, with moral comments thereon. Such a volume inevitably exasperates real students of the period of which it treats, who quickly perceive its shortcomings and resent its sketchiness; but the critic should always bear in mind the fact that the general public is not made up of advanced students, and that the very slightness which offends him is a positive merit in the eyes of the ordinary reader. It is exceedingly improbable that the vast majority of American readers have ever heard the names of the individual rulers of the Mogul dynasty, and an elaborate and scholarly book upon the subject would inevitably puzzle, by the novelty of the scenes and characters described, more readers than it would interest. A really popular book upon a subject so re-

mote from immediate knowledge can better be written by an amateur than by a professed scholar; and if the amateur be, like Dr. Holden, a man of literary tastes, a charming volume, well fitted to deserve general popularity, is the inevitable result. His book, in short, is admirably suited for the library of the general reader; it is prettily got up, and prettily illustrated with portraits of the principal Mogul Emperors and the inevitable picture of the famous Taj Mahal at Agra; but it is not intended to appeal, and will not appeal, to scholars or to advanced students of Indian history. Dr. Holden has evidently read a good number of well-known books on the subject, but he has not endeavored to go further or to spend more than the leisure allowed from the labors of a busy life devoted to the service of the noblest of sciences. In his introductory note he describes how his book came to be written. "A collection of miniatures of the Mogul Emperors," he says, "came into my hands many months ago. The accounts of these unfamiliar personages which are given in the ordinary books of reference I found to be inadequate and frequently incorrect." Hence this new volume on the Mogul Emperors for the use of the general reader.

But there is one feature of Dr. Holden's book which cannot be so lightly dismissed. Every one at all acquainted with the progress and modern condition of Indian history is well aware that Sir W. W. Hunter, one of the most scientific investigators of the primary sources of historical information, and one of the most charming of writers, has made a special study of the reign and character of the last of the great Mogul Emperors, Aurangzeb. When the series of "Rulers of India" was first conceived and placed under his editorship by the Oxford Clarendon Press, Sir William Hunter was announced as the contributor of a monograph on Aurangzeb. All who knew the pages devoted to that great ruler in his 'Indian Empire' expected a valuable and interesting biography and appreciation of the last of the great Moguls from this announcement. But Sir William Hunter eventually abandoned his intention and left the task of writing upon Aurangzeb to the competent hands of Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole. Sir William Hunter has now, however, presumably working up the material he then collected for his proposed biography, kindly contributed a few striking pages to Mr. Holden's book under the title of "The Ruin of Aurangzeb; or the History of a Reaction." It is like leaving the starlight for the sunlight to pass from the elegant moralizing of Dr. Holden to the practised hand, notable historical power, and effectively displayed and thorough knowledge of Sir William Hunter. Nothing better has been written recently upon Indian history than the all too short pages in which Sir William Hunter depicts, in masterly fashion, the inevitable approach of the ruin of the Mogul power and the character of their last great ruler. The topic, indeed, is one that lends itself readily to an eloquent writer. Both on the romantic and on the philosophical side the fall of the Mogul Empire forms a striking subject; the contrasts are so broad, and the tragic issues involved so obvious, that a skilled writer finds the interest of his subject sufficient to grasp attention without need of literary embroidery. For the sake of this one chapter, Dr. Holden's book should find its way to the hands of those experts in Indian history who may safely be recommended to neglect the greater part of the volume. The general reader, however, especially if he has no knowledge, or only a hazy knowledge, of Indian history, will find the whole book entertaining and instructive, and incidentally will have the advantage of reading an exceptionally able and eloquent account of the Mogul court from the pen of the most eminent of living writers upon the history of India.

Our Edible Toadstools and Mushrooms, and How to Distinguish Them: A selection of thirty native food varieties easily recognizable by their marked individualities, with simple rules for the identification of poisonous species. By W. Hamilton Gibson. With thirty colored plates and fifty-seven other illustrations by the author. Harper & Bros. 1895.

In this finely printed book of more than three hundred large octavo pages, Mr. Gibson keeps the promise of the title of his work. Barring some idiosyncrasies, everybody might truthfully call the thirty species selected for illustration "edible." In a few very exceptional instances, persons of extremely sensitive organization might find some of the species which Mr. Gibson describes rather difficult of digestion, and therefore might just as well leave them alone; but this reservation applies equally to many articles of food which have to be approached cautiously, at least for the first time.

Mr. Gibson writes in his well-known striking and charming style, largely disarming criticism by his frank statement as to the limitations under which he has worked. He has succeeded in preparing a safe and, we think, a useful guide, which can be made of service in attracting to the examination of these interesting plants goodly numbers of people who possess ordinary caution. Our only fear is that the equally large numbers of people who have no caution at all will compare the fungi which they find in their strolls, altogether too carelessly with these plates. People, for instance, who ask the gatekeeper at what time the five o'clock train goes out, cannot be trusted to gather mushrooms. A distinguished expert in mycology, who has lent no small amount of aid to others in popularizing a knowledge of edible fungi, has said that if the good mushrooms were painted white and the poisonous ones black, there are some people who would be sure to eat the black ones. But perhaps it is as well to let such heedless folk consume the poisonous toadstools; possibly by natural selection we might have after a while only careful people in the world.

Mr. Gibson is perfectly right in sweeping out the rubbishy rules "for detecting poisonous toadstools" which still clutter up the corners of newspapers. If we say of ordinary rules that they have exceptions, it should be said of the general run of mushroom rules that they ought to have antidotes handy. Our author lays down a few simple hints which are probably safe enough for all practical purposes, and yet the hypercritical would perhaps ask him to be in a few cases rather more specific. However, the rules as laid down in the pages of Mr. Gibson's book touching mushrooms within our geographical limits are better than any we have before seen in book form. If the reader could add to what is there given the rules laid down by Prof. Farlow and by the late Dr. Curtis of North Carolina, every step in a saunter after mushrooms could be safely taken.

The highly artistic and satisfying character of Mr. Gibson's sketches in black, which are scattered through the book, makes us feel sure that the chromolithographer has hardly done full justice to the originals which Mr. Gibson must have given in color. But the colored plates are, after all, good enough for anybody who wishes to make serious use of them for purposes of comparing with the originals in the field.

Forty Years in China. By Rev. R. H. Graves, D.D. Baltimore: R. H. Woodward Co.

The crust of Chinese conceit and conservatism is thick, but that of American perversity is thicker. As usual, the Chinese ideograms stamped on the back of the above volume are upside down, and about one half of the illustrations have nothing to do with China, but are excellent pictures of things Japanese. The sterling matter of the book, however, redeems the slips in the mechanism. Dr. Graves, who has spent forty years in the empire, writes in simple, luminous style, and yet with deepest sympathy, of the difficulties that await the Chinese patriot and reformer. With sound practical sense and with a worldly wisdom not too common among the "professional converters" of non-Christian people, he acknowledges fully the good work done by diplomatists, merchants, journalists, and travellers in awakening China. As a missionary, he gained knowledge at first hand, but he writes as one who, besides being a true friend of China, has mingled among men of all sorts. His modesty is not too common among men who, because they partially know some one uncouth language, forthwith imagine they are scholars. Dr. Graves makes no show of learning. His discussion is of China's conservatism and of destructive and reconstructive forces.

With all mental initiative lost and with faces hopelessly set to the past, it is possible for would-be native reformers to win their countrymen to new ideas only by presenting these as revived or overlooked doctrines of the ancients. This mode of procedure is not unknown among orthodoxies in the West, but in the land of Confucius it is the only way to lay either pipe or rails for safe delivery from points beyond the Chinese ken. Among forces tending to destruction, Dr. Graves enumerates and clearly discusses opium, gambling, cruelty, untruthfulness, injustice, polygamy, and the dangerous classes. Among the forces tending to recreate are diplomacy and international intercourse, the maritime customs, travel abroad, residence in the United States, the war with Japan, education, medical and Christian missions, and Western and Christian literature. A frank chapter on hindrances shows that these are not confined to the Chinese.

Candor, judicial fairness, penetrating insight, and pleasantly and abundantly given information characterize this attractive book so full of hopeful views. Nothing less like a missionary report could be imagined, but the "problem of missions" will be powerfully simplified when denominational envoys become more numerously like the author.

Studies in the Evolutionary Psychology of Feeling. By Hiram M. Stanley. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

Mr. Stanley, in the agreeable essays which compose his chapters (and we are not yet become so German in this country as to hold that their readableness *per se* detracts from their scientific usefulness) limits feeling to pain and pleasure. We had almost said that he limited it to pain; for he makes pain so

much the more important that but a single step remains to be taken to pronounce pleasure to be only a specially adjusted pain. The great function of knowledge, upon his theory, is to bring about pain, or its supplement, pleasure. He will have the primitive consciousness to be a "pure pain." Pure pain is not an easy phrase to apprehend; the less so that we are accustomed to expect the first emergence of a new experience that does not burst out with too sudden a shock, to be pleasurable. Throes come later. Mr. Stanley, however, reminds us that both birth and death, to judge by appearances, are states of pain, and of almost undefined pain, at that. His remarks are decidedly worth reading. For the post of primitive emotion he nominates fear, defining it as "pain at pain." Instructive evolutionary analyses of despair, anger, surprise, and disappointment, retrospective emotion, and desire, supply materials for as many chapters.

In "Some Remarks on Attention," the author limits that term to the voluntary sort, and so inevitably fails to bring out its intimate connection with emotional association. He identifies attention with the effort to attend; and when he speaks of attention as essentially painful, he even seems to have in mind a more or less *unsuccessful* effort. For vigorous, effective attention leaves, we conceive, little room in consciousness for pain. Yet here, as elsewhere, we find acute observation. Self-feeling, including pride, shame, and the like—and we cannot help thinking our author's ideas would have had more systematic unity if he had made pride a special variety of shame—is considered as the main ingredient of self-consciousness. Æsthetic activity is defined as "an independent self-activity of some sense, or of perception, or of imagination, or emotion, impelled by a pleasure; this pleasure, being a distinct and new form, we term æsthetic." The self-activity of a mental faculty! What will Herbartians say?

We are happy to find in one of the last chapters an essay at a partial analysis of literary style. Some of the shortcomings of Herbert Spencer's theory are made manifest. The author does not pretend to afford a catalogue of all the psychological factors of style. Perhaps he might simplify the problem if he would hold fast to one of Spencer's points, namely, that the purpose of style is to convey ideas. Spencer himself, alike in his theory and in his practice, whatever he explicitly says, virtually assumes that to convey an idea is nothing but to state it. But the style of a real master is one which succeeds in immersing the reader in the fleeting part of thought, the liquid menstruum which flows around its rigidly objectified conceptions; and *that*, no statement, however perspicuous, can effect.

Without any astonishing power of thought, this book will do good service for that inquiry into the feelings which now so much engages the psychologists.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Tales. Franklin, O.: Editor Publishing Co. $1.
Aldrich, T. B. Later Lyrics. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Arnold, E. L. The Story of Ulla. Longmans, Green & Co.
Baker, Prof. G. P. The Principles of Argumentation. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Ball, Sir R. S. Great Astronomers. London: Isbister & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Balzac, H. de. Eugénie Grandet. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan.
Beyle, Henri. La Chartreuse de Parme. 3 vols. G. H. Richmond & Co. $7.50.
Boulton, Helen M. Josephine Crewe: A Novel. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Bouvet, Marguerite. A Child of Tuscany. Illustrated. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Knight of Liberty: A Tale of the Fortunes of La Fayette. Appletons $1.50.
Christian Unity and the Bishops' Declaration. Church Club Lectures. 1895. E. & J. B. Young & Co. 50c.
Clement, Clara E. Constantinople, the City of the Sultans. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.
Coolbrith, Ina. Songs from the Golden Gate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Culin, Stewart. K rean Games, with Notes on the Corresponding Games of China and Japan. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.
Dall, Mrs. Caroline H. Margaret and Her Friends; or, Ten Conversations with Margaret Fuller. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Dawson, J. W. London Idylls. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Deland, Ellen D. Oakleigh. Harpers. $1.25.
Dodge, Col. T. A. Gustavus Adolphus. [Great Captains.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Dowd, F. B. The Double Man: A Novel. Boston; *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Du Bois, Henri Pène. Princesses in Love. Brentanos. $1.50.
Dumas, A. The Three Musketeers. 2 vols. Appletons. $4.
Eastman, A. C. Poems of the Farm. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Edwards, Prof. C. L. Bahama Songs and Stories: A Contribution to Folk-Lore. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.
Ellis, J. H. Chess Sparks; or, Short and Bright Games of Chess. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Fields, Mrs. Annie. The Singing Shepherd, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Fontaine, C. Lectures Courantes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Galdós, B. P. Doña Perfecta. Harpers. $1.
Gilberne, Agnes. A Lady of England: The Life and Letters of Charlotte Maria Tucker [A. L. O. E.]. Armstrong. $1.75.
Goddard, F. B. Giving and Getting Credit: A Book for Business Men. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Gollancz, Israel. King Lear. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Gray, Prof. J. C. Restraints on the Alienation of Property. Boston: Boston Book Co.
Guerber, Miss H. A. Märchen und Erzählungen für Anfänger. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 60c.
Hampden-Cook, E. The Christ Has Come. 2d ed. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.
Harrison, Frederic. The Choice of Books. Macmillan. 25c.
Hurlbut, B. S. Defoe's History of the Great Plague in London. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85c.
Jackson, B. D. Index Kewensis Plantarum Phanerogamarum. Fasciculus IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $15.
Keith, Alyn Yates. Aunt Billy, and Other Sketches. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Kinkead, Eleanor T. Young Greer of Kentucky. Rand, McNally & Co. $1.25.
Lang, Andrew. A Monk of Fife: A Romance of the Days of Jeanne D'Arc. Longmans. $1.25.
Leaf, Walter. Homeri Ilias. [Parnassus Library of Greek and Latin Texts.] Macmillan. $2.
Maclaren, Ian. The Days of Auld Lang Syne. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Markham, C. R. Narratives of the Voyages of Pedro Sarmiento de Gamboa to the Straits of Magellan. London: Hakluyt Society.
Mills, Emma D. Typewriter Forms. Mills Publishing Co. $2.
Morley, Margaret W. Life and Love. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Osgood, W. N. Bug vs. Bug: A Brief Summary of the Principal Arguments of Silver Men and Gold Men. Boston: C. E. Brown & Co. 25c.
Otis, James. The Boys of 1745 at the Capture of Louisbourg. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 75c.
Otis, James. Neal, the Miller: A Son of Liberty. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 75c.
Otis, James. Jerry's Family: A Story of a Street Waif of New York. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1895.

The Week.

THE proposal to have the national Democratic convention of next year held in this city, possibly in Tammany Hall, can scarcely be called a friendly one to the Democratic party. The outlook for that party at present is none too cheerful, and if it were to enter upon next year's contest with Tammany Hall as a starting-point, its fate would not be uncertain. Mr. Hill would be its logical candidate for the Presidency in that case, and Croker and Sheehan its campaign managers. We observe that Mr. Campbell, the Jingo Democrat who was defeated in Ohio by something like 100,000 majority, finds encouragement for his party next year in the fact that Tammany carried New York city. Mr. Harrity, chairman of the national Democratic committee, thinks also that holding the convention in New York would create a great deal of enthusiasm here, and have a tendency towards harmonizing the Democracy throughout the State. Both these statesmen seem to be unable to realize the meaning of the last three elections in this State, with their Republican majorities of 100,000, 156,000, and 90,000. Those were popular verdicts upon the Hill-Tammany control of the Democratic party in the State, and if the next Democratic Presidential convention were to meet under the auspices of, and "harmonious" with, that discredited gang of political freebooters, it might as well not meet at all.

Though the Republicans carried their State ticket in Kentucky by a good plurality, the control of the Legislature still remains in doubt. The two old parties elected precisely the same number of members on a joint ballot, and there are two Populists, one of whom is Republican in his political antecedents and the other Democratic. A new complication has been added to the situation by the resignation of one of the successful Democrats, Mr. A. J. Carroll, which will cause another election in his (the Louisville) district. On this may depend the seat in the United States Senate that is to be disposed of by the Legislature. If the Republicans can elect their candidate, they will have a majority on joint ballot with the help of the Republican Populist, and can send a member of their party, for the first time since its formation, to the Senate. Senator Blackburn has nothing more to gain from the success of Mr. Carroll, who resigned from a sense of honor for re-election, than from the election of a Republican, for the former announces that he is "unconditionally, unreservedly, and unqualifiedly in favor of sound money, and opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver, and, if elected, will bend my every effort to secure the election of a sound-money Democrat to the Senate."

Congressman Cannon of Illinois, formerly and prospectively chairman of the committee on appropriations, joins Speaker Reed in favoring a do-nothing policy for the Republicans in the next Congress. He thinks the appropriation bills should be passed and necessary business done, and then that "full power" should be waited for before the Republicans set about blessing the country with perfectly wise legislation. Differing with the impetuous *Tribune*, he says that "the people know what they want and are willing to wait for it." He probably adds to himself that they will have to wait whether they are willing or not. One thing, however, Mr. Cannon is uneasily conscious that the people are not willing to wait for indefinitely, and that is some intelligent effort to provide them with a safe and rational system of currency. He thinks the whole difficulty may be met by authorizing the Treasury to issue short-time bills to meet emergencies—like the English exchequer bills. This would undoubtedly be a help, as we have often said; and so would a law authorizing the issue, in case of need, of 3 per cent. gold bonds. Probably one or other of these measures is the utmost we can hope for from the incoming Congress. For such relief the business world would give all thanks, but would take it, however, only as a payment on account. What it is going to demand in full, all in good time, is the withdrawal of the demand notes hanging over the Treasury and the markets known as greenbacks.

But an unexpected difficulty arises here, which is pointed out by the *Tribune* with its usual philosophical acumen. There might be some hope of the Republicans calling in the greenbacks had not President Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle advised it. Of course, that prevents the Republicans from doing anything of the kind, however wise it might be, however much they might want to do it otherwise. It is really the President's fault, and he shows a selfish disregard of the interests of the country in not urging wild inflation of the currency so that then the Republicans could consistently advocate contraction. Was ever such a thing heard of, complains the *Tribune*, as a President allowing his Secretary of the Treasury to urge in public a measure of sound finance which he knows will be made, *ipso facto*, repugnant to his political opponents? All the while it is in Mr. Cleveland's power to stop Secretary Carlisle by a word, and confine him to his legitimate business of counting the pennies in the Treasury. That is the worst of it, and is what is breaking the *Tribune's* heart. To be driven into financial madness just because your opponents are in favor of financial sanity, is truly hard. We know of nothing so pitiful or so mysterious since Pascal's Jesuit, who said of Arnauld's terrible heresies: "In any other mouth these sentiments would be strictly orthodox."

There is much affectation of zeal for the wool-growers just now among Republican politicians, and some of them talk of passing a bill to restore the duties on wool this winter. If they do so, it will be with the expectation that President Cleveland will veto it—an expectation which will, no doubt, be justified. But the probability of passing it at all is considerably lessened by two circumstances. One is, that wool cannot be dealt with alone in a tariff bill. If duties are placed on wool, there must be a readjustment of the duties on woollens, and this means a pretty large tariff bill, as anybody may see by looking at the wool and woollens schedule in the present law. Then, other interests will claim equal attention and favor. The tin-plate men are growing clamorous, the rise in steel billets having proved a damper on their profits. If tin plate is admitted, what can be rejected? Then there is the great sugar question. The Republican Senators refused to consider the discriminating duties against German beet sugar last year, on the ground that tariff legislation ought not to be taken up in detail, but only in a general revision. Moreover, the silver Senators of the trans-Missouri States have declared, over and over again, that they will not vote for a protective tariff on anything until silver is remonetized, or the buying of it by the Government is resumed. This is probably the only one of their threats that they will adhere to. If they do adhere to it, there will be no tariff legislation for a long time to come on wool or anything else. The Republican politicians know all this. They know that a little affectation of sympathy for wool-growers will do no harm. They will fix things beforehand, if they are not already fixed, so that nothing will come of the agitation. New England is becoming reconciled to free wool. She dreads another ten or twenty years of tariff changes, with all the uncertainties of politics hanging over her head. She is gradually becoming convinced, also, that the threats of the wool-growers are *brutum fulmen*, and this is the fact.

The account in the *Tribune* of the terrible things Platt and Lauterbach are

going to do to the Republican organization in this city gives the impression that these persons are a mysterious power of some kind, resistance to which is going to be very difficult even under the most favorable circumstances. They are apparently, according to its account of them, inventions of some outside enemies of the Republican party, who are bent, through their instrumentality, on incapacitating the party for the great work of national, State, and municipal reform which Providence has assigned to it, and they cannot be stopped except by appeals to their pity or their shame. They have to be remonstrated with much in the terms in which Roman municipalities at the fall of the Empire may be supposed to have protested against the sacking of their city by the barbarians. But what is the fact? Why, Platt is the creation of the Republican party itself, and Lauterbach is his lieutenant. Platt was produced, educated, and exalted by the party years ago. His power is due solely to the fact that the Republican voters elect members of the Legislature under his dictation, and the legislators legislate under his dictation. This is, from the moralist's point of view, twice as bad as anything he is going to do to the New York organization, but the party has let him do it many times over, with applause. If the Republicans do not like Platt, or disapprove of him, they can end him in a week, and Lauterbach along with him.

The collapse of Populism was one feature of the recent elections that has hardly received the attention which it deserves. Both in the South and in the West the leaders of the party were sadly disappointed at the result. In Mississippi the Populists had made a strong fight in two or three of the Congressional districts last fall, and their success in polling in these cases more than half as many votes as the Democrats, encouraged them to believe that they might make a strong showing in the local and State elections this fall. But as the canvass proceeded, their hopes fell, and a solitary member of the Legislature is all that they can offer as evidence that they made any fight. In Iowa last year the Populists polled 34,907 votes, and when this year's Democratic State convention voted down free coinage by an overwhelming majority, the leaders of the third party boasted that their ranks would be swollen by tens of thousands of "friends of silver" who could not stand a sound-money platform; but instead of getting two or three times as many ballots as twelve months ago, the Populist total shows a falling off of several thousands. Indiana held no election this year, but the signs of the times are so obvious there also that the Populist organs are suspending, the party organization is dropping to pieces, and the politicians have ceased to regard it as an element to be longer reckoned with.

The State of Colorado appears to be more prosperous than ever before, and the consequence is that people have to a large extent stopped talking about silver. The *Engineering and Mining Journal* takes notice of the fact that, at the recent "Festival of Mountain and Plain" in Denver, there were no references in the banners and placards to the legend of 16 to 1, and none to any phase of the silver question as a political issue. "This," says the *Journal*, "was the more striking since the parade of the first day was intended to be an allegorical representation of the development of Colorado and its industries. The fact of the matter is that the silver question is as dead in Denver as it is in New York. We do not mean to say that the people of the Western city are no longer interested in the price of silver, for the metal is one that they produce in large quantities, but, with the exception of the demagogues, every one has come to the conclusion that the cause of independent free coinage is hopeless, and no one pays much attention to the demagogues."

The Supreme Court of New Jersey is again the subject of a good deal of local criticism, the point of which amounts to the charge that the court is lazy. Its unpopularity among the lawyers of the State is admitted, and this is due to the fact that they find it extremely difficult to get their cases argued before that court in consequence of its inclination for adjournments and recesses. The popularity of that somewhat antiquated institution, the Court of Chancery, is due to the fact that it is always ready for business. On Tuesday week the Supreme Court judges had the whole list called, and, not finding the cases ready, adjourned for the term, when an adjournment until the next day would have found business proceeding regularly. It will be recalled that when the Assembly gerrymander was argued before that court in 1892, the court withheld its decision for months until after the election, and then almost threw the State Government into chaos by holding that the Assemblymen of each county must be elected on a general ticket. Again, last summer, months after the constitutionality of the elective-judiciary act had been argued before the court, the judges gave out that they would not decide the question until after the November election. They were forced from this position by the general denunciation of the proposed delay which went up all over the State. Reforms of the courts of New Jersey are expected to receive a good deal of attention from Gov. Griggs's administration. It will not be entirely beyond his power to infuse a little activity and enterprise into the Supreme Court.

The modest and well-behaved young Englishman who married Miss Vanderbilt a few days ago, and has since left this country, could not take from us anything that we would more willingly part withal, since he thus removes the most active provocation to snobbery that we have had "in our midst" these many years. It must be of advantage, also, to himself not to remain too long in the atmosphere of New York, for if his stay were much protracted, it would be necessary, as in the case of a monarch in the ancient world, to station a servant at the back of his chair to repeat to him every fifteen minutes the words, "Remember that thou too art a mortal." For the repeated exhibitions of bad manners and want of self-respect, crowding, pushing, and staring which were seen at the Horse Show whenever the Duke of Marlborough and his bride occupied seats there, the newspapers are mainly responsible. They have published page after page of matter respecting this titled individual and his bride. They have printed their portraits innumerable times, together with larger pictures representing them with their surroundings at home, in the church, at the Madison Square Garden, driving, banqueting, doing something and doing nothing; and when these remarkable persons were about to embark, we were favored with pictures of their stateroom on the steamer, with glimpses of the furniture, curtains, napkins, rugs, glassware, etc. These same newspapers dared to ridicule the people who rushed and crushed at the Horse Show in their eagerness to see the Duke, or, failing in that, to see the chair that had been once occupied by him, when in fact they had been the main cause of the rushing and crushing. If the notices of the marriage had been limited to the measure accorded to such events in the London *Times*, *Daily News*, and *Standard*, and the pictures omitted, the exhibition of vulgarity would have been no greater than might be expected at the Sydenham Crystal Palace or any similar place in England. It is idle to expect that the masses will be wiser than their teachers.

The commission to take testimony and award damages for the capture of sealing vessels in Bering Sea has been appointed and will soon go to work. We shall then know how many of the claimants were American citizens sailing under the British flag. This is one of the points raised by ourselves for the purpose of lessening the amount of the award. What kind of a "muss" we shall be in after we have established the American citizenship of a large portion of the claimants remains to be seen, since the question will at once arise whether British subjects should be paid for the loss they incurred, while our own, who were in the same business and who had just as good rights, are refused. It is a fact, which will have to be recognized sooner or later, that there was no law on our statute-book at the time when the seizures took place to prevent anybody, either our own citizens or foreign-

ers, from taking seals beyond a marine league from the shore. Therefore all such fishermen were exercising a right common to those who take codfish or mackerel at a distance of more than three miles from the coast of Newfoundland or Nova Scotia. It is a serious pity that Congress did not appropriate the lump sum of $450,000 to settle these claims, instead of going into a long investigation where we shall endeavor to prove that a considerable number, if not a majority, of the "poachers" were our own people, and then to refuse any pay to them, although they were following a lawful vocation. This would be washing dirty linen in public with a vengeance.

Gen. Miles's annual report on our military condition devotes a large part of its space to a subject which has singularly little interest for our Jingo friends, namely, our coast defences. We think he overrates the risk we run of an attack by some foreign power, but that there is some risk, and that it ought to be provided for, there is no denying. He shows that on the Pacific Coast there is $500,000,000 worth of destructible property within the reach of a foreign navy. He says that even a million of the bravest men we have would be insufficient to protect this in the absence of coast fortifications armed with modern guns. He shows that on the Atlantic Coast ten considerable cities, all reachable by a hostile naval force, are practically undefended. New York is the only one which has any defence at all, and this is only partial. He says that the notion that our harbors can be defended by torpedoes is a "delusion," and so is the notion that our coast of 4,000 miles long can be defended by a navy. The recent manœuvres in the British waters have shown that even the British fleets could not protect the British coasts. He thinks the principal service our navy would render in a war would be as commerce-destroyers and bombarders of foreign ports, and that, in the absence of land defences, ten days would suffice for the destruction of many of our most important cities. Gen Miles does not "anticipate war in the near future," but it requires years of time to construct the modern weapons of war, and we cannot begin too soon.

The general absorption and anxiety of all European governments about the Turkish business ought to remind Americans afresh of their great advantage in being free from such entangling alliances. Both public and private finances in all Europe are, at this moment, almost at the mercy of the Sultan. If he remains pig-headed and brings on a great religious war, the loss and ruin to thousands of investors will be incalculable. Moreover, the question of increased taxation is a most vital one to governments, too many of which have now to strain every nerve to keep their heads above water. The naval estimates to be laid before the English Parliament are said to be the greatest in amount known to history. Yet this is a peace expenditure. Even if war be averted, and the Powers left to arrange among themselves what is to be done with Turkey, the chances are so great of awkward dissensions in the negotiations, of quarrelling over the division of the Empire, that the nervousness of financiers and finance ministers is likely long to continue. In all this we, by our position and our traditional policy, have no direct concern. We are most happily "out of it"; and it will take the Jingoes a long time to persuade the business men, the farmers, the laborers of this country that it would be much better for us to thrust our heads into every European scrimmage of the kind.

It is impossible at this writing to say what the outcome of the concert of the Powers in Turkish waters is likely to be. What is plain is, that the Turkish Empire in Asia is given over to anarchy, or, in other words, is practically broken up, and that there is not the smallest likelihood that the Sultan can raise any force sufficient to restore order. It is the plainness of this fact which is probably causing the hesitation and procrastination of the united Powers. They have discovered at last that the Sultan can do nothing, and therefore coercing him at Constantinople will not affect the situation in Asia Minor. And yet all that they can do with the fleets is to coerce him at Constantinople. They can seize him, lock him up, or depose him, but the chances are that the news of this would inflame the fanaticism of the Kurds and Asiatic Turks still more, and lead to fresh, or, rather, more extended, massacres. Both the British and French and Austrian Governments are, therefore, shrinking from a naval demonstration, while the massacres continue, and the near approach of winter, which in that region is extremely severe, makes the prospect appalling for the families whose homes have been destroyed. Now it so happens that the only Power which can act on the situation, and can apply force where it will do the most good, is Russia. She has a large army just across the frontier, and could get right in among the murdering Kurds and Turks within a very few days. Thus far she appears to have taken little or no part in the discussions with the Sultan, but one does not need to be a prophet to hazard the conjecture that she is waiting for a "mandate" from the powers to occupy Armenia and restore order, which she is abundantly competent to do. If such a mandate were given her, it would be a close following of the precedent set by the Congress of Berlin when it gave Austria a mandate to restore order in Bosnia and Herzegovina, where the Mussulmans were then busy cutting Christian throats in the old Turkish fashion. The job was given to Austria because she happened to be nearest the scene of action, and within a very few weeks she had converted the most murderous Turks into peaceable citizens. But—and here is the rub—she has stayed there ever since, and, in fact, has annexed the two provinces. That Russia, if she got into Armenia, would hardly get out is pretty certain, and the Powers are probably asking themselves to-day whether they are prepared for this.

The decisive rejection by the Swiss voters, in the referendum of November 3, of the law passed by the Chambers for centralizing the military power of Switzerland was of more than passing significance. The law itself was something of an innovation, depriving the cantons as it did of certain military rights and functions, and tending to reduce them, for army purposes, to a condition very like that of a French prefecture; but opposition was based not so much upon the terms of the measure itself as upon its general tendency. The *Journal de Genève* said of it the day before the vote was taken: "It is destined to make us pass gently from the federal system to the system of prefectures. These military districts will speedily become insurance districts, banking districts, railroad districts, and so on." It was doubtless such arguments as these that led the State's-right feeling of the cantons, as we should call it, to assert itself in the large majority against the proposed law.

France has a boundary dispute with Brazil similar to that of England with Venezuela, and French publicists are naturally beginning to discuss what they call "la doctrine de Monroë." They know that Monroe is the great American god Terminus, who presides over boundaries, and that he must especially be placated when, as is the case in French Guiana, gold mines are said to exist in the disputed territory. But we are sorry to see that French jurists do not take Lodge's reverent view of the Monroe Doctrine. One of them, writing in the *Débats*, affirms that it "simply does not exist from the point of view of international law, or, rather, it exists only so far as it agrees with international law, but is justly ignored when it conflicts therewith." He adds that it is merely an interesting "historic document" of which some of the assertions "cannot be sustained." That is enough. We may not know what the Monroe Doctrine is, but we will sustain it in the teeth of the world. Wait till Congress produces that joint resolution "affirming" the Monroe Doctrine, which some of its leading intellects are now framing. Then this flippant Frenchman will see how proudly our country will rank itself alongside the old Scotchwoman who admitted that she did not know what the Solemn League and Covenant was, but defiantly exclaimed, "I'll mainteen 't!"

"POLICY" AND "HOLLER."

THE last news from Senator Lodge in London is more pacific, but is as obscure as ever. He now admits that the Monroe Doctrine is "not a proposition of international law, but a declaration of policy"; but he still refrains, as do all Jingoes, from saying exactly what the Monroe Doctrine is. The nearest approach to its meaning he allows us to make is contained in his assertion that for a European Power "to desire to acquire any additional territory in Central or South America would fatally infringe on the Monroe Doctrine." But, if this be true, it at once suggests the question, What Power is now desiring additional territory in Central or South America? Lodge declared war three weeks ago against some Power which, he said, was doing this. What Power is it?

"The question is now," in Lodge's language, "what was the true boundary between the Dutch and Spanish possessions? That question can be properly settled by arbitration." Well, the British Government has always expressed its willingness to settle it by arbitration. It says it is ready now to settle it by arbitration. This makes the recent Jingo uproar about Venezuela incomprehensible, unless we examine it on the theory that any dispute about a boundary line on the part of England is to be treated as a desire for more territory. All disputes about a boundary line arise out of a desire on the part of one of the parties to make it include more territory than the other thinks it entitled to. This really would seem to be the explanation of Lodge's mad career. You may submit your boundary dispute to arbitration, he says, but if it appears that you maintain that your line ought to run further north or west than the Venezuelans say it ought, you come under the Monroe Doctrine, and you must prepare for war.

Great Britain has from the beginning declared her willingness to arbitrate on the boundary line, but if the mere submission of a boundary line which Lodge dislikes will constitute a claim for more territory, of course she will not arbitrate. But while expressing her willingness to arbitrate, she has also said she must have reparation for the insult to the flag, and the injury to her officers, recently offered by the Venezuelans. We were under the impression that Lodge, while allowing that such reparation was due, would not permit Great Britain to exact it by force; that is, she might have reparation if the Venezuelans chose to make it, but if she sent her fleet to threaten them, or bombard them, or seize their custom-house, he would, under the Monroe Doctrine, declare war. But it appears that if he ever took this position he has backed out of it, for he says now:

> "The Monroe Doctrine, it should be remembered, is quite distinct from any question of reparation for injuries received by the subjects of foreign Powers at the hands of the governments or the peoples of Central or South American republics. With such questions we have nothing to do, but we cannot permit, under cover of a demand for reparation, or in any other way, new territory to be acquired by any European Power."

It does not appear that Great Britain ever desired compensation in land. She has always demanded it in cash. The notion that she was going to take it in land was a Jingo invention. The question of compensation for insults or injuries she will probably consent to arbitrate when we set her the example.

The great difficulty of all these international questions is, that the open discussion of them on our side is not carried on by men who are sincerely desirous either of settling them or of informing the public judgment about them; that is, as a rule, they do not talk international law, but politics. There has been a prodigious hubbub raging about Venezuela for several weeks, without the smallest foundation. Great Britain has never shown any desire to take more territory than fair arbitration would allot her. She has never said that the Venezuelans would have to make reparation in land for the insult to her flag. Both stories were invented by Jingo politicians, as a peg on which to hang inflammatory speeches. Not one man in public life has had the courage and patriotism to get up and state the naked facts of the case. Not the smallest contribution has one of them made towards the formal application of the Monroe Doctrine to the relations of the South American States to other Powers than the United States. We have made several appeals to the Jingoes to do so, but we get nothing in reply but attempts to show that the British are wrong in the boundary dispute. Lodge now substantially admits that he has been "hollering" for weeks about nothing. If the boundary dispute be capable of settlement by arbitration, and he, and Grout, and Bill Chandler "have nothing to do" with reparation for injuries inflicted by South American States on foreigners, there has not been the slightest excuse for the noise they have been making for some weeks.

The Monroe Doctrine ought to be formulated in some way which will make known to the European Powers the precise things they may do or not do to the South American States, and the exact nature of our relations to them. Lodge evidently thinks that it will do if we embody it in a congressional resolution, and that it need not be worked into international law at all. But this is part of the childishness which he occasionally affects. We cannot, for instance, carry it into practice without *pro tanto* diminishing the sovereignty and independence of the Central and South American States. Have they consented, or will they consent, to this? For instance, it would take away from them the power of ceding a port or island or patch of territory to any European Power. It leaves them the power to go to war with England, or France, or Germany, but would take away from them their power of making peace by a cession of territory or by a mortgage to secure a payment of money. It leaves quite vague the extent and manner in which we should protect them from aggression, or be answerable for their errors, and yet leaves European Powers in contact with them in Central America. All these things should be settled in consultation with the Central and South Americans. They should accept our protection, and submit to the conditions we should have to attach to it. It is far more injurious to our good name and influence to go "hollering" round the world about these things than to have a small navy.

THE LAW OF THE VENEZUELAN CASE.

A CAREFUL study of executive document No. 226 of the Fiftieth Congress, first session, wherein the President transmits to Congress the correspondence relating to the pending boundary dispute between Venezuela and British Guiana, discloses only a single issue; and this, in the clear light of international law, proves to be a very simple one, upon which no two intelligent arbitrators will be likely to disagree. The single issue is whether Spain, by merely discovering, without settling or occupying, the disputed Guiana coast, acquired such a title to the back-lying territory that every subsequent actual settlement of such territory by the Dutch became wrongful, and that only occasional armed protests by Spain, at intervals of years or centuries, were necessary to maintain her title, without any interval of permanent occupation by the Spanish from 1531 until to-day. In short, does discovery without occupation give title against those who permanently occupy, but had not the good fortune originally to discover?

In order to be assured that this is all there is of the Venezuelan question, it is to be observed that the diplomats who have at various times had charge of the case of Venezuela, do not deny the continuous possession of the disputed territory by the Dutch alone for three centuries, but actually charge it upon them as part of their fault, under the names of usurpation, intrusions, and aggressions. Nor do the Venezuelan diplomatists allege, except in the case of a few missionaries to the Indians between 1531 and 1580, that any Spanish residents or persons rendering allegiance to Spain have ever gone into the disputed territory, except as small armed expeditions coming by land or sea merely to drive out or capture the Dutch. The sole tendency towards settlement of the country in dispute has been from the direction of Georgetown and the Essequibo River. The historians, geographers, mapmakers, and publicists, from Raleigh to Humboldt, if they have carried the Dutch boundary westward to the Orinoco, the Moroco, or the Barima, have talked about the Dutch possession or occupation; if they have carried the Span-

ish line eastward to the Essequibo, have in no case declared it to be a Spanish occupation, but only a domain or sovereignty or supposed abstract right. And when (Ex. Doc. 226, p. 34) Lord Salisbury in 1880 writes to Señor Rojas that to recognize Venezuelan "proprietorship to the Essequibo would involve the abandonment of a province inhabited in 1880 by 40,000 British subjects, and which has been in the uninterrupted possession of Holland and Great Britain successively for two centuries"—we find Venezuela replying in 1882, through Señor Seigas (p. 32), that "to deliver up territories in which populations have been founded cannot help producing grievances; in that, all the world is in accord. But the convenient is not the right, neither can it be confounded with it. He who has occupied a thing not his own, remains with the obligation to restitute it whenever it is demanded of him, and to indemnify all the damages consequent upon the illicit act."

Inasmuch as the Venezuelan lawyers do not instance the building of a single town, or fort, or trade agency, or the occupancy by any Spanish settlers of the territory in dispute at any point, but confine themselves to recounting the encroachments and intrusions of the Dutch, the inference from the record is that no Spanish settlements occurred, and hence that the question is one between occupancy by one nation and naked claim of right to occupy without actual occupancy by another. The Venezuelan lawyers show that they cannot fortify their case by actual acts of occupancy, for they make a strained citation of Vattel, to the point that a country need not occupy the whole of its own territory, but can suit itself as to how much of it it will use. But this text (Vattel, Book II., ch. vii.) clearly refers to the case of a country having a master or government and established boundaries, within which some places are left unoccupied. Vattel places in another category a newly discovered continent in which rival countries are obtaining title by occupancy. Of such a country he says (Book II., ch. vii):

"If two or many nations discover and possess at the same time an island, or any other desert land, without a master, they ought to agree between themselves and make an equitable partition; but if they cannot agree, each will have the right of empire and domain of the parts in which they first settled. It may happen that a nation may be contented with possessing only certain places, or appropriating to itself certain rights, in a country that has not a master, and be little desirous of possessing the whole country. In this case another may take what the first has neglected," etc.

The Venezuelan lawyers declare that what is expedient is not necessarily just, and plead that the Spanish could, without occupancy themselves, treat the occupancy by the Dutch as usurpation for an indefinite period. Vattel, on the contrary, expressly bases the doctrine that territorial titles between nations can arise by prescription—*i. e.*, by lapse of time with possession adverse to the right—on the inexpediency of allowing old possessions to be ripped up, and settled populations to be compelled either to give up their settled homes or to come under a new allegiance. He says (p. 289):

"Nature has not herself established property, and in particular with regard to lands. She only approves this introduction for the advantage of the human race. It would be absurd, then, to say that, domain and property being once established, the law of nature can secure to a proprietor any right capable of introducing disorder into human society. Such would be the right of entirely neglecting the thing that belongs to him, of leaving it during a long space of time, under all the appearances of being property abandoned, or that does not belong to him, and of coming at length to deprive an honest possessor of it, who has perhaps acquired a title to it by burdensome conditions. . . . Were it permitted to have constantly recourse to ancient times, there are very few sovereigns who would enjoy their rights in security, and there would be no peace to be hoped for on earth."

What Vattel here condemns, namely, having recourse to ancient times to upset the effect of centuries of possession adverse to their claim of sovereignty, is exactly the case of the Venezuelans. During all the reigns from Philip II. to Philip V. of Spain, the Netherlands, which owned Dutch Guiana, were themselves under Spanish domination, as was also the present Venezuelan dependency. If Spain, when in full control of both parties to the contention, did not think it worth while to require the Dutch to retire behind the Essequibo, it would be a marvellous stretch of authority for the United States to disturb three centuries of possession, by the Dutch and their successors, at this late day.

THE SOLID SOUTH BROKEN.

THE full returns of the Kentucky election render the result even more significant than the earliest reports. They show that the Republicans carried the State on November 5 by a substantial plurality on by far the largest vote ever polled, even in a Presidential election, and that at least 20,000 former Democrats must have supported Bradley for Governor. We append the figures for this election, in connection with those for the last two Presidential elections:

	Rep.	Dem.	Pop.	Pro.	Total.
1888.....	155,134	183,800	622	5,552	345,108
1892.....	135,441	175,461	23,500	6,442	340,844
1895.....	172,436	163,962	16,911	4,162	357,471

Cases have not been infrequent in our political history where a party which has long controlled a State has finally lost an election in an "off year," through the disaffection of members who would not go to the polls, and allowed it to be beaten by the minority on a small vote. But it is almost without precedent for a State to cast a larger vote in a local than in a Presidential election; and, so far as we can recall, quite unparalleled for a State long dominated by one party to be captured by the other in a gubernatorial election that called out more men than were ever brought to the polls in a Presidential contest.

It will be seen that the Presidential vote of Kentucky aggregated nearly the same in 1888 and 1892, though quite differently apportioned between the parties, and that the total on November 5 was greater by nearly 13,000 than the largest previous record. The closeness of the contest caused a shrinkage of about a third in both the Populist and Prohibition vote, and the Democratic total sank nearly 20,000 below high-water mark, while the Republican was more than 17,000 greater than had ever before been secured. As the rise of the Populists in 1892 evidently injured the Republicans far more than the Democrats in that year, and as the free-coinage views of the Democratic candidate for Governor this year were calculated to draw back Populists of Democratic antecedents, it seems clear that 20,000 is a small estimate of the men who had supported Cleveland for President and yet voted for a Republican Governor on Nov. 5. It was, therefore, no "snap judgment" in an election which commanded small interest that gave Bradley his victory, but a clear expression of the popular will after a contest that had stirred the commonwealth like no previous campaign since the ante-bellum period.

The revolution in Kentucky was directly due to the treachery of the Democratic candidate for Governor, who received the nomination upon his distinct pledge that he would accept the verdict of the convention on the financial question, and then, after a sound-money platform had been adopted, went upon the stump to preach the free coinage of silver. But a greater cause was at work than the well-founded disgust of right-minded Democrats at such a breach of trust. This was the elimination of the sectional issue from our politics, and the consequent freedom of men who have long felt constrained to support Democratic candidates in the South, to vote as independently as men vote in the North. This same cause was also the fundamental one that operated in Maryland. Gorman's despotic bossism was the immediate reason for the recent election of a Republican Governor and Legislature, but it might have failed again, as so often before, if the removal of the sectional issue had not given voters in that State also a new sense of political freedom.

The course of the canvass in both Kentucky and Maryland showed conclusively the potency of this influence. When Hardin found that Bradley was pressing him to the wall on the silver question, he made desperate efforts to substitute the "nigger" as the issue, and tried to hold Democrats from supporting the Republican ticket by terrible pictures of the "negro domination" that would be involved in a Republican victory. The Gormanites resorted to the same policy in Maryland, and tried to frighten independent Democrats back into the ranks by pretending that the election of the Republican candidate for Governor would mean the appointment of a lot of "nig-

gers" to rule over white men. But in each State such appeals fell flat. Indeed, they provoked so much ridicule that the Democratic campaigners felt almost ashamed to keep up the talk before the end of the canvass. The repeal by the last Congress of the federal election laws had removed the one phase of the old sectional argument that was really powerful. So long as the Government at Washington could legally interfere with an election in a Southern State, and so long as one of the great political parties was committed to the policy of making this interference more intolerable, Democratic campaigners could successfully appeal to discontented members of their organization to stand by it as the only way of saving their State. But when the obnoxious laws were repealed by a Democratic Congress, and when the Republican party endorsed the repeal by summarily dropping further agitation of the subject, political campaigns were at once put on the same plane in the South as in the North.

Prominent Democrats in Maryland express the opinion that the Republicans may retain control of that State. They ought to if they give the people good government, and no reason appears why they should not. The Republicans will make a hopeful contest next year in Tennessee and Missouri, two other Southern States which they carried in 1894, for the first time in many years, as soon as the federal election laws were repealed. Even Kentucky, which forty years ago was a Whig State, can no longer be set down in the Democratic column as sure in a Presidential contest without a struggle. The solidity of the South is at last broken, and the gain from the elimination of the sectional issue will grow more plain every year.

MISSIONARY TEMPTATIONS.

Last Friday's meeting in the interest of Presbyterian foreign missions was the most impressive gathering of the kind seen in this city for several years. It recalled to many the enthusiasm of the old-time "May anniversaries," and the thrilling interest which multitudes used to find in the meetings of the American Board in the heroic age of foreign missions, when pioneers and scholars and saintly men like Calhoun and Goodell and Schauffler and Coan were present to report on distant and unknown lands. The world (and the church, too) has greatly changed since then, both in itself and in its way of looking at things; and the strong temptation of missionaries and advocates of missions to speak and act as if there had been no change at all, is one of the serious hindrances they encounter in their attempts to influence public opinion. Some of the forms of this temptation it is a good time frankly to point out.

One of them is the practice of holding one kind of language in public, and another in private, about the condition and fate of the heathen. The old phrases about "a lost world," and about the millions of pagans going annually to perdition because of never having heard the Gospel, are still used in missionary appeals and addresses, though they no longer represent the real beliefs of the church or of the very men who use them. They are inherited phrases, which our grandfathers made believe they believed, but which theologians nowadays do not believe, or else take in a non-natural sense. No great knowledge of the teaching and private conversation of eminent Presbyterian divines is needed to convince one that the doctrine of the damnation of the heathen is no longer held by them. Some of the stiffest and most orthodox of their thelogians, even of their theological professors, have been known, when pressed by troubled inquirers, to fall back on a pious willingness to "leave the heathen in God's hands," to trust in "the uncovenanted mercies," and so on. Of course, the Westminster creed teaches most explicitly the damnation of the heathen, but expert theologians can easily enough get around those clauses by appealing to the others which magnify the divine power to save men "when and where and how he pleaseth."

The truth is, the age makes men tolerant in spite of themselves, in spite of their protests that they are not. All churches have their form of the Catholic doctrine of salvation by belonging to the pale of "the invisible Church," and from that pale it is almost impossible to get a theologian, on cross-examination, to maintain that any particular person, savage or civilized, is hopelessly excluded. It may fearlessly be asserted that, even where the doctrine of heathen damnation is still preached, ignorantly or perfunctorily, it is no longer received by congregations, and no longer figures among the really powerful motives that lead people to contribute to missions. Those motives are now almost purely humanitarian. The educational, the medical, the civilizing work of missionaries, which in many countries has undoubtedly been wonderfully beneficent and fruitful—this is the great argument for missions. It is on this that the emphasis should be put, and we are sure that it would mean dollars in the mission treasuries if a franker stand were taken upon this rational and practical basis. Missions would get on better, as most people do, by taking one world at a time.

Another temptation of missionary orators is to ignore the strong light which travel and commerce and the study of comparative religion have cast upon the question of the condition in this world of non-Christian peoples. The missionaries used to have a monopoly of knowledge on this subject, but they have it no longer. The traveller, the resident merchant, the scholar, the educated native, have come into the field in increasing numbers, and their testimony must not be overlooked by honest men. We have learned not to smile so superciliously when we hear of Japanese contempt for our inferior civilization; if we are open-eyed, we must admit that it is inferior in many ways. Authentic accounts of the Chinese of inland and northern China—of their splendid fibre, physical and intellectual, of their wonderful civil and social virtues—make the despatching of emissaries of our civilization to them seem more than ever bizarre. And comparative religion, if it leaves the superiority of ideal Christianity incontestable, makes men very shy about affirming that actual Christianity is the best thing to be given at once to all races, and strongly reinforces the belief in the essential identity of religious instinct and aspiration the world over. If we have anything to give to the heathen, it is the things in which we are superior to them. These are not metaphysics, not always and altogether morals, but are the enlightenment, the amelioration of life, the higher development of the individual which that great complex called the progress of civilization has brought to us in larger measure than to them. It is these things that, having freely received, we are freely to give.

Exaggeration of results achieved, and "writing up" missionary experiences so that they will read well, are an old temptation of missionary reports and addresses. Passing these, we will refer to one other danger which besets missionaries and those who direct their operations. That is the danger lest, in unselfishly trying to do the greatest possible good, the good itself be made hateful and an evil in the process. If charity is hard to dispense so as not to do more harm than good, religion is doubly so. There are some things in this world that are better than abstract religion, such as courtesy, mutual respect and tolerance, delicacy of feeling, sympathy. To sacrifice these in the interests of abstract religious doctrine not only is a bad thing in itself, but is to make the doctrine repulsive and powerless. Wholesale abuse of the heathen is not a wise preparation of the Gospel—of this we have seen too much in recent months. But there is also a woful lack of the finer sentiments often to be found in the personal dealings of missionaries with the people they are laboring to convert. Years ago a missionary in Brazil was caught out on a tour and entertained by a Brazilian gentleman. He at once broached the subject of his host's religious errors. The latter courteously suggested that it was better to choose some other topic of conversation, but the missionary was inexorable, harangued and rebuked his entertainer, and wrote up a long and edifying account of his determined labors for home consumption. This is like the Duke of Argyll's adventure, when he was "snowed up" with Sir George Trevelyan on his Scottish estate for three days, and paid for his hos-

pitality with a six-column letter to the *Scotsman* denouncing Sir George's scandalous way of administering his property. We call that pure boorishness, and there is far too much of it in those who wish to ingratiate themselves with the heathen for their own good, and begin by accusing them of the gravest immoralities and crimes and threatening them with the direst punishments.

CARDUCCI'S READINGS FROM THE ITALIAN RENAISSANCE.

ITALY, November 6, 1895.

THE well-known firm of publishers Cesare & Nicola Zanichelli of Bologna have just issued the first volume of a new work by Italy's greatest poet and prose-writer, who deems that the best education for the youth of the present generation is a study of the writings and actions of the real makers of Italy—a study much neglected hitherto, but which bids fair to be thoroughly undertaken in the future. Some extracts from the author's preface may prove interesting to American readers, who have always sympathized with the Italian struggles, and who prove, by their translations and writings, that the literature of Italy is understood and appreciated by them even more than in the mother country:

"The history of the ideas and literature of our Renaissance consists in research into and exposition of the accords and discords between innovating initiatives and conservative traditions, tending to inaugurate and renovate the modern spirit and the national instinct in the products of sentiment and imagination; a history that is contemporary and in accordance with a similar inauguration or renovation of moral and philosophical doctrines, as well as political institutions and orders. This history commences in 1749 and ends in 1870.

"Italy, at the close of the Middle Ages, found no one capable of constraining her to a strong unity. A federal nation, she could not hold her own against the monarchical unities which surrounded her on every side, and which were compelled to expand themselves by conquest in order to make liberty forgotten. Hence, for a series of years (1494-1559) dominion was divided between France and Spain; from 1559 to 1700 Spain predominated. The times between 1700 and 1748 resemble those from 1494 to 1559. They commenced with the war for the Spanish succession, ended by the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt (1713-14), which excluded the Spaniards from the Italian peninsula, gave Naples, Sardinia, and Milan to the house of Austria, diminished the petty states, augmented the possessions and title of the House of Savoy. The war reopened by Spain, and the opposition of the quadruple alliance of France, England, Holland, and Austria in 1720, led to other changes. It left the Bourbons of Spain a footing in Italy, Don Carlos being invested with the imperial feudal territories of Tuscany, Parma, and Piacenza. It left Austria reinforced by the addition of Sicily to the kingdom of Naples, while Sardinia was given to the house of Savoy.

"Between 1730 and 1738, Austrian jealousies and the personal interests of Charles VI. produced fresh disturbances in Italy. Austria, by siding against France, Spain, and Sardinia for the succession of Poland, brought war into Italy, a war ended by the peace of Vienna (1736-38). Austria lost a portion of her Italian possessions; a Spanish Bourbon obtained Naples and Sicily; the King of Sardinia obtained Novara and Tortona from the Milanese territory. Austria, however, was 'compensated' with Parma and Piacenza, while Tuscany was given to Francis of Lorraine, husband of Maria Theresa, the future Empress of Austria. After the death of Charles VI. (October 20, 1740) the war for the Austrian succession was fought out in Italy, ending with the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in October, 1748, carried out in February, 1749—which is a sort of compendium and concordat of the struggles between Spain, Austria, and France for the dominion over Italy during the 16th and 18th centuries. To each and all a portion. . . . Of the ancient States one, Piedmont, was powerful and young; all the others, the Holy See and the republics, old and decaying."

This "instantaneous photograph" of Italy during these centuries, plundered and bartered among all the nations of the earth, who parted her garments among themselves without a "by your leave" to the rightful owners, Carducci gives us without a comment or lament. "Italy had found no one to unite her. *Voilà tout.*" Was this such a very lamentable fact? Her future, now that she is united, will alone furnish the answer.

"The history of the first half of the eighteenth century somewhat resembles the fourth act of a drama: all that has been announced, prepared, and developed in the preceding acts is re-enacted, entangled, and mingled. In the fifth act (metaphor apart), during the second half of the eighteenth century, all that remains of the old political system, of the old society, drifts, dwindles, crumbles, or shows that it is at death's door, and that a new order of things is at hand.

"Not that the spirit or thought of Italy has retrograded or been eclipsed. Her manners and customs are, alas, degraded; base and depraved her sentiments; but the genius of the land of Dante, of Michelangelo, of Galileo (more truly than the sun on the possessions of Charles V.), never sets. In the 14th century her artistic work was Tuscan, and when, in the 15th and 16th centuries, spread over the peninsula, it became Italian, the motive-power, the form, still remained Tuscan, or was at any rate consecrated by the great Tuscan writers. To the work of the Renaissance the other Italian populations contributed with the Latin and with the vulgar element, yet preserving in the form and soul of literature almost always the Tuscan sign and seal. In the 17th century, Italian prose, owing to the infusion of Galilean science and to the habitual and always better regulated classical imitation, still remains Tuscan; but poetry, starting with Tasso and meandering with Marino, takes its color from the South, and southern is the Arcady during the first half of the 18th century, whose sole true poet—the greatest poet of Italy and of Europe in those years after Tasso—is Peter Metastasio. This was because, by his æsthetic representation, he raised art. Obeying a necessary condition, foreseen and foretold at the close of the 16th century, he produced the idealization of poetry by music in the melodrama."

This was the typical work of the 17th century, the last poetic form of Italian invention, ending in perfection with the "Attilio Regolo," performed at the imperial theatre in Vienna in 1750. But the first half of the 18th century, unrecognized by the superficial explorers of literary history, who see only the Arcadians, was also occupied in the important work of critically examining the doctrines of history, the origin of institutions, laws, customs, and languages. These researches, promoted in the 16th century by Sigonio and by Vincenzo Borghini, were transferred in the 18th to Germany and Holland, thence returned home, and, in a truly Italian and original fashion, were carried on by Gravina (1664-1718), G. B. Vico (1668-1744), L. A. Muratori (1672-1750), S. Maffei (1675-1755), P. Giannone (1676-1748). What men, and how immortally modern!

"Vico revealed the science, the method of divining history to Germany through Herder, to France through Michelet, and is linked to our Renaissance by Giuseppe Ferrari's most homogeneous work.* Gravina transmitted to Montesquieu the fundamental maxim that 'The reunion of all the separate particular forces constitutes the political state of a nation.' Maffei, . . . a fierce iconoclast, . . . dared to present to the Council of Ten a plan of reform which perchance might have saved the Senate of Venice, but all in vain; and Muratori not only by his history set Italy on her future path, but gave serious admonitions to the Roman hierarchy anent its rapacities and iniquities, while also tendering wise advice to his Duke concerning good government and economy. Finally, Giannone, the champion of civil power, victim of two despotisms, ended with words and mind worthy of old Rome, by prophesying to the house of Savoy (which held him prisoner) its future destinies in virtue of discipline and warlike traditions."

With these preliminaries our author continues the history of the Renaissance, whose literature may be divided into three equal periods, from 1749 to 1789—forty years of peace, of reforms, of preparation; from 1789 to 1830—forty years of struggle, of confusion, of expectation; from 1830 to 1870—forty years of commingling, of development, of evolution. Here Carducci analyzes the conditions of the peninsula, setting forth the size and population of the several states and the influence of their respective writers, and dwelling on the power of the Jesuits, "who, up to the time when Pope Ganganelli expelled the company, had invaded all the fields of thought, all the forms of Italian literature. Nor did they confine themselves to sacred eloquence, to sacred writings, to philosophy and philology; they wrote tragedies, comedies, novels, romances, lyrics, satires, fables, criticisms, histories; they made and did everything." The literary product of all these priests and friars throughout the eighteenth century was as prodigious as it was increasingly degrading and degenerate. Meanwhile, lay thought was advancing: "a warning, this, that where lay civilization is attained, the clergy ought to quit the field of literature which, by their own declaring it profane, does not belong to them." Tuscany, Lucca, the Venetian republic are all passed in review; then Genoa, Naples, and Sicily, their writers and their writings being defined rapidly and clearly. Bologna, Ferrara, Modena, Reggio, Lombardy, and Piedmont follow. The student has here a chronological critical vade-mecum to aid him in his researches.

The second division of the preface thus concludes:

"Vittorio Alfieri (may his name be glorified immortally!) had, by his culture and education, felt Rousseau; he had read Montesquieu; but, by intuition and inherited consciousness, he faces with level front Dante, Petrarch, and Macchiavelli; renovates by his genius and passion a poetry for his country; conceives, imagines, follows up with burning thoughts, and thus virtually creates, Italy, one and free."

The French Revolution finds Italy with economic, legislative, and social reforms in progress, though not completed, with the avowed or tacit consent of new princes and an enlightened middle class, which kept in check the encroachments of a feudal aristocracy and the interference of the ecclesiastical order.

"The needs of the times were practical; jurisprudence and political economy were studied, and the so called philosophers were occupied in informing the princes of the wants of their people, in proposing innovations and ameliorations in civil and penal legislation, in the administration of public revenue, in commerce and public instruction. Thus poets and littérateurs were not in such high favor as in former centuries. Nor was this an evil: they became more independent and practical, feeding upon real thoughts and sentiments, and were transformed from courtiers and academicians into teachers of the people,

*Carducci alludes to Ferarri, the great historian and philosopher who wrote 'The Revolutions of Italy,' 'The Mind of Vico.' A Federalist and Republican, deeming France the teacher and leader of the world in all times and in all seasons, he was looked upon askance by the Monarchists on the one hand and the Republican Unitarians on the other. Member of the Italian Chamber of Deputies, his speeches from the extreme benches of the Left were paradoxical but powerful. He died a Senator in 1880, and now his works are coming into vogue, owing to the increasing abhorrence of centralization.

whom they inspired with lofty and noble sentiments."

Next follows a short, swift sketch of events —no tender lingering over the new kingdom of Italy, as with Cattaneo; just a thankful word that the "revolution came in time to save Italy from being absorbed by Austria." The Venetian, Ligurian, Etruscan, Roman, Neapolitan republics vanished like wind-driven leaves. Piedmont is annexed to France, and the unhonored exile of the Savoy Kings Charles Emanuel IV. and Victor Emanuel I. is prolonged (1799-1821). Not uselessly do French Kings Joseph and Murat reign in Naples, while the Bourbons, exiled to Sicily, learn there how to take oaths to the Constitution. "True it is that Bonaparte, Consul and Emperor, barters and rebarters other states as though they were his private farms, and ends by annexing to the French empire Genoa and Liguria (1805), Parma and Placenza (1808), Lucca (1806), and Tuscany (1807), even Rome (1809). What of it all? Moving from the foot of the Apeninnes down through the fertile plains, up towards the Alps between two seas, the seed is scattered, the flower buds, the harvest ripens, the forest rises."

Four more pages of pictorial history end thus: "So much Italianhood permeated the soil and the people that in regions called French, and hence French subjects, were born in those years the supreme athletes of the Renaissance—April 5, 1801, Vincenzo Gioberti in Turin; June 22, 1805, Joseph Mazzini in Genoa; July 4, 1807, Joseph Garibaldi in Nice; August 1, 1810, Camillo Cavour in Turin." Space prevents us from following the poet in the enchanting years between the proclamation of independence and its downfall, the next years of struggle when hope alternates with despair, the will of the few compelling the many to rise up and walk until Rome is entered and unity proclaimed. "Never was the unity of a nation wrought by the aspirations of grander or purer intellects, by sacrifice of nobler or holier souls, nor by fuller, freer assent on the part of the healthy portions of a people."

The writings chosen to illustrate the period commence with Pietro Giannone's address to the Italians, inciting them to virtue and to military discipline—that same Giannone who, after writing the history of Naples, was compelled to flee from province to province, and confined by the King of Piedmont in the Castle of Ceva at the instigation of the court of Rome, where he wrote his 'Discourses, Political and Historical, on Livy's Annals,' in 1739. Carducci rejoices that this first extract comes from a southern Italian, and also that Antonio Genovesi, also a southerner, first showed the necessity of Italian unity. The anti Papal literature is largely represented. Alfieri, Parini, Carlo Botta, Ugo Foscolo, are pressed into the service; Silvio Pellico, Atto Vannuci, Pietro Giordani, bring up the rear. Each of the sixty-six articles has a brief preliminary heading explanatory of the times and events in which the writers participated. This first volume ends in 1830, and next we shall have Joseph Mazzini and Young Italy on the scene.

J. W: M.

Correspondence.

A PLEA FOR THE STUDY OF LATIN GRAMMAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A survey of the methods of teaching Latin which have been in use in this country during the past fifty years is most instructive. Scarcely anywhere has "the folly of extremes" been so conspicuously shown; nowhere have the results of that folly been more lamentable.

Many readers of the *Nation* can well remember a time when too much attention was given to the study of the Latin grammar. The pupil was forced to commit to memory a great number of rules, although he often had but little conception of their meaning, and would have been quite at a loss if asked to illustrate them by concrete examples. In fact, as has often been remarked, the study of grammar was elevated into a kind of fetish, and everything else was made subservient to it. In some schools the grammatical discipline was so thorough that, as the writer can testify, the better students were expected to remember, not only the rules themselves, but even the *numbers of the sections* in the grammar where they were to be found! The teacher devoted his attention, not to the explanation of points of literary or historical interest, nor to the discussion of the public and private life of the Roman people as illustrated by the lesson of the day, but to propounding as many grammatical questions as the time would permit. A good example of the extent to which this was sometimes carried is given by the little book entitled 'A Method of Classical Study,' by Dr. Samuel Taylor of Andover. The most unhappy legacy which our ancestors received from the English schools—the study of grammar for grammar's sake—was thus perpetuated.

But this state of things could not long continue. The means could not long be suffered to obscure the end. The inevitable reaction came; grammar fell, and great was the fall thereof. Men justly asked: "What is the use of classical study if, after four or five years of training, a student cannot read a page of simple Latin or Greek without the aid of grammar and dictionary?" The immense importance of understanding an author in the original was pointed out, and the utility of reading at sight was strongly emphasized. The great preparatory schools quickly fell into line, and reading at sight became a regular part of the curriculum. This reform was largely brought about by changes in the admission requirements of Harvard and other colleges.

The reaction of which I speak has now been in progress for a number of years. Is it not time for us to halt and ask whether (like most other reactions) it is not going too far? Is there not danger that, as the dictionary and grammar become more and more neglected, all feeling for the finer shades of meaning will be lost —that the student will no longer be able to appreciate the subtle distinctions to which the Greek and Latin owe so much of their beauty and expressiveness?

Some facts which have come under the writer's observation may serve to illustrate this point. It will doubtless be admitted that a reasonable knowledge of the declensions and conjugations is essential to every one who would read Latin with ease and accuracy. Yet the ignorance of these displayed by the graduates of some of our most noted preparatory schools is simply appalling. In one of the Harvard entrance examination papers of last year occurred a simple imperfect indicative. This was translated in *nine* different ways, not including the right one. The number of men coming from our most distinguished schools who do not know the principal parts of common verbs, like *venio* and *audeo*, is considerable. I am not speaking of the dullards only. The freshmen who elect Latin composition at Harvard are presumably picked men, who have a special liking and aptitude for the study of Latin; yet mistakes like *ventus* for 'having come,' *curri* for the genitive of *currus*, *ut* introducing *oratio obliqua* after a verb of saying, *incepuerunt* as perfect of *incipio*, etc., etc., abound in their exercises. The result is, that the instructor has to do over again much of the work which should have been done in the preparatory schools.

Many men enter college every year who have never owned grammar or dictionary. Such students cannot, of course, do thorough and accurate work. Many of them have not even a conception of what accurate work means. They have obtained by practice a kind of knack of guessing at the meaning of a sentence; but in most cases they see it "through a glass darkly," often *very* darkly. This habit of "reading" (call it "guessing") at sight has, in the writer's opinion, done much to bring about that lamentable state of things which was described by Prof. Goodwin in a recent number of the *Nation*. The English which the students use is inexact and inelegant largely because they have no clear idea of what they want to say. Translation cannot become what it should be—an exercise in the use of English as well as in rendering the thought of the original—until more accurate methods of work are introduced. I do not wish to belittle the importance of reading at sight, which is a most useful exercise; I only desire to protest against the slipshod method of sight-reading which has become too common in our schools.

What is the remedy for this condition of things? Opinions may differ widely; but at least the grammar and dictionary must be rescued from the undeserved oblivion into which they have fallen; the student must be taught that, in the language of one of my colleagues, "reading at sight does not mean *guessing*"; above all we must inculcate the necessity of honest, thorough, and accurate work.

X.

November 15, 1895.

HALL AND COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The use of the words *hall* and *college* in America cannot, it seems to me, be quite understood without a definite understanding as to their use in England at the time of the founding of Harvard. And this, in turn, necessitates a clear conception as to the development of the English college system. The hall was the characteristic unit of university life in the middle ages: it was a democratic banding together of students for the purposes of residence merely—*i. e.*, food, lodging, and companionship. To certain of these halls were added, in the course of time, fellowships and professorships, and, presto! the modern English college. The terms *hall* and *college*, however, were never clearly distinguished. This was especially the case at Cambridge, where to this day two of the colleges are called halls—Clare Hall and Trinity Hall. If, now, a banding together of students for the combined purposes of study and residence could be called a hall, there is no good reason why a banding together of students for the purposes of residence should not have been called a college. I have not the slightest doubt that a reference to the archives at Cambridge will show that *hall* and *college* were at first used with little reference to the presence or absence of endowment and instruction.

In America, now, as is evident from Mr.

Brown's discoveries, the buildings in question were used for all purposes of residence. "Old College" contained "a Hall, Kitchen, Buttery, Cellar, Turrett [whatever that may have been] & five Studeys, & therein 7 chambers for students in them." Obviously this was a residential hall or college.

It is interesting to note that the final substitution of the word hall for such buildings as Hollis and Stoughton coincides roughly with the elimination of the kitchen and buttery. Those of us who are most eager to attempt to solve the residential problem in American Universities by adopting the English *College* system, ask no more than that we should revert to the original type of residential *halls*.

JOHN CORBIN.

36 GARDEN ST., CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Nov. 15, 1895.

FOOTBALL AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly allow me a few words in answer to a communication in your last issue entitled "College Rustication"? The writer was in error in supposing that the football team of the University of Pennsylvania was to be allowed an absence of two weeks to prepare for a game. The team has asked for leave of absence for four days—not two weeks—and the authorities have granted leave for but three days. This has been done, not because it is thought well that students should be allowed such absences on general principles, but because a precedent was urged, and it was desired to avoid the appearance of harshness by the compromise indicated.—Respectfully,

GEORGE STUART FULLERTON,
Vice Provost.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA,
PHILADELPHIA, PA., Nov. 18, 1895.

COUNTING THE COST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There seems to be some haziness still in the minds of many Democrats as to the profit that can be realized in carrying the group of anti-Administration Democrats. For such the account might be stated approximately as follows:

Cleveland majorities in 1892:		
Kentucky		40,020
Maryland		21,130
New Jersey		14,974
New York		45,518
Ohio (adverse)		—1,072
Net majority for Cleveland		120,570
Republican majorities, 1895:		
Kentucky	12,000	
Maryland	15,000	
New Jersey	22,000	
New York	90 000	
Ohio	114,000	
Total		253,000
Cost of carrying Harris, Gorman, Smith, Bill, and Brice, to balance account		373,570

F. W. L.

BOSTON, November 14, 1895.

"SEVERAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: By way of defining this word in its numerical acceptations, Dr. Johnson has: "Divers; many. It is used in [*sic*] any number not large, and more than two." Among Dr. Johnson's editors, Archdeacon Todd simply repeats this, as does Dr. Latham, also, except that he omits the introductory "It is used." Dr. Richardson recognizes nothing of the kind; and, so far as appears, he would have cashiered "*several* persons were present," however intended, as illegitimate English.

Agreeably to Dr. Johnson and his aforesaid editors, *divers* signifies "several; sundry; more than one"; *many* signifies "consisting of a great number; numerous; more than few"; and *sundry* signifies "several; more than one."

Several is, thus, assigned two senses, and these, for all Dr. Johnson's discrepancies and contradictions, occasionally wide asunder. The first need not detain us; but the second, whether strict or loose, which recent dictionaries mostly ignore, as if it were unprecedented, is observable. Though no explicit authority for it has been brought forward by lexicographers, it has warrant in literature, as is witnessed by the following quotations:

"This plain Narration of Calista's cruel, inhuman Usage will, I hope, prove effectual to set *several* fond Maids upon their Guard, who perhaps even now stand upon the Brink of Ruin." "I have lately received a Letter which I take to be very impertinent, and question not but *several* of my Readers will be of my Opinion." "There have, in all times, and in all Countries, been *several* Persons whom the Merit of their Learning has advanced to the highest Stations, without the assistance of other Friends than those their established Reputation had procured them." "I have conversed with Persons who, from a good choice of English Authors, with the Assistance of their own Natural Parts, reason and discourse more pertinently, on many weighty Topicks, than *several* pompous Scholars who are Masters of the learned Languages and have read over many bulky Folios of Science." *Free-Thinker* (1718–19), Nos. 13, 74, 87, 115. Similar instances of *several* occur in Nos. 23, 66, 86, also.

"The doctrine of absolute predestination is utterly subversive of all true religion and virtue; and yet it was a received doctrine among the heathen, the Mahometans embrace it universally, *several* Christians do the same, and you will meet with something akin to it in the Nine and Thirty Articles." George Jeffreys (1748-'9), in the Rev. John Duncombe's *Letters by Several Eminent Persons Deceased* (ed. 1773), vol. ii., p. 199.

"After all, we must not be surpris'd that this passion [ambition] hath so great influence on the mind of *several* women." "*Several* women . . . seem almost always excessive when they love and when they hate." L. M., Translation of Du Boscq's *Accomplish'd Woman* (1753), vol. ii., p. 26, 235.

"This excellent statute served to repress the desire of civil war; as *several* would naturally take arms in defence of that side on which they were certain of losing nothing by a defeat; and their numbers would intimidate insurgents." Oliver Goldsmith, *History of England in a Series of Letters* (1764), vol. i, p. 227 (ed. 1772). This is verbally repeated in Goldsmith's larger *History of England* (1771), vol. ii., p. 311, barring the substitution, at the end, of: "and numbers would thus serve to intimidate rebellion."

A generation earlier than the date of the first of the foregoing quotations, Guy Miege, in his *Great French Dictionary*, rendered, on his own authority, *beaucoup de fois* by "many a time, *several* times." Further research may establish that, in so doing, he represented the English of his contemporaries.

Formerly, as is now made obvious, *several* was, at least here and there, the equivalent of "many," and likewise of "not a few," "some considerable number."

Not unfrequently, as cases before me bear evidence, it is impossible to say whether *several* stands for "numerous, more or less," or for "different."

Very likely the usage which has been illustrated is a good deal older than I have shown it to be. But the time at or about which it first came up remains to be ascertained. At present, indeed, the age of *several*, as we employ it with reference to numbers, is, as well, a matter of uncertainty.

In the course of its history *several* has, then, had all the latitude of import attaching to *nonnulli* or *complures*. When importing more than "a few," but fewer than "many," it supplies us with a nicety of expression which may be peculiar to English; 'from four or five to ten or thereabouts, according to circumstances,' serving, perhaps, as its definition.

I have only to add that here in Suffolk, as in Great Britain generally, the obsolete literary signification of *several* still survives among the vulgar. Twelve or fifteen children of the same parents, a phenomenon of no remarkably uncommon occurrence in East Anglian families, one will hear spoken of as *several*; so, in the mouth of my gardener, are a hundred apples or pears; and so, in the dialect of a local shepherd, are five or six score sheep, or any tale short of what he calls "a great lot." *Several*, as practically made one with "many," or "not a few," must have been laid aside, by the educated, for its superfluousness—a defect with which the term, as they now accept it, is not chargeable.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, October 20, 1895.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & CO. issue directly 'Some Memories of Paris,' from *Blackwood's*.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately, in coöperation with the London publishers, the 21st edition of Haydn's 'Dictionary of Dates,' containing the history of the world to the autumn of 1895. The editor is Benjamin Vincent.

Additional announcements by Macmillan are 'Nineteenth Century Literature,' by George Saintsbury, newly made Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature at the University of Edinburgh, and 'Computation Rules and Logarithms,' by Prof. Silas W. Holman of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

J. Selwin Tait & Sons announce a new series of volumes of American verse, to be called "The Fleur-de-lis Poets," beginning with 'The Leaves of the Lotos,' by Col. David Banks Sickels, 'A Woman's Love Letters,' by Sophie M. Almon Hensley, and 'An Oaten Pipe,' by the Rev. James B. Kenyon; also, 'Scottish Folk-lore, or, Chronicles of Aberdeenshire from Pinafore to Gown,' by the Rev. Duncan Anderson.

Since our last note upon the Selden Society their edition of the 'Mirror of the Justices,' and their parallel texts of Bracton and Azo, edited by Prof. F. W. Maitland, have been distributed to subscribers. Members of the Society who have not received their copies, or persons wishing to become subscribers, and so to contribute towards the expense of the Society's endeavors to make the sources of the law available for scientific study, are requested to communicate with the Secretary and Treasurer for the United States, Mr. Richard W. Hale, 10 Tremont Street, Boston.

Those who last year found Dumas's 'Three Musketeers' too costly in the limited *édition de luxe* of Messrs. Appleton, may comfort themselves with the unlimited edition now put on the market by the same publishers with the same embellishments by Maurice Leloir. These are very handsome volumes at a moderate price, and, except for hoarding, as good a possession as their predecessors.

From the same house comes a fresh edition of 'White's Selborne' in two handy and very tasteful volumes, prefaced by John Burroughs,

and illustrated in a most interesting and exemplary fashion, by Clifton Johnson, as the title-page states. He may be not only the designer of the charming bird-drawings, but also the not less artistic photographer whose views of White's haunts are so admirably chosen and form such a mirror of rural England in its best estate. The total illustration is unusually harmonious, in perfect keeping with author and text.

It was well to gather together 'Dog Stories from the *Spectator*' during the past twenty years (Macmillan). The medium and the narrators (even when their names are not given) are a guarantee of more than usual authenticity for the tales. But many are signed, and such names as Colenso, Tait, De Morgan, Maxwell, Sturge, Alfred Ainger, Frances Power Cobbe, Hain Friswell, William Wallace, Sir John Lubbock, etc., carry conviction. One of the American contributors also belongs to a well-known family. Mr. J. St. Loe Strachey furnishes a lively introduction, summing up the mass of testimony to the intelligence, affection, humor, fidelity, etc., of the canine species as here presented. The dogs who do their own marketing selectively with coins whose relative purchasing power they understand, are perhaps the most striking, though the wonder may not be as great as it seems. Sir John Lubbock's experiments in teaching dogs to read by the word-method surpass all others in interest, but he did not carry them very far.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have brought out an American edition of 'Battles of English History,' by H. B. George, Fellow of New College, Oxford. The book is based on a course of lectures on history, in which, as the author says, "the informal division of labor which comes to pass in a university has led me to pay special attention to the military side of it." He has given us a series of compact and clear narratives of a long series of battles, from Hastings (1066) to Delhi (1857), in Europe, Asia, and America. These are interspersed with instructive brief essays on the progress of the art of war. Mr. George modestly disclaims writing for experts, but his book is one no expert would be ashamed of, and is additional evidence of the noticeable work in this line at Oxford.

The third and concluding volume of Dr. Sharpe's 'London and the Kingdom' (Longmans) covers the period from the accession of George I. to the passage of the first Reform Bill. The limitations of the work become only the more evident as it reaches modern times. It is not a history of the growth and development of the great social phenomenon known as "London"; it is but a record, by an official panegyrist, of the formal action of the "Corporation of the City of London." "The city of London," we are told in the concluding "Retrospect," "possesses a record *equal, if not indeed superior, to that of any other city in the universe, ancient or modern*, and its wealth and influence have *ever* been devoted to the cause of religious, social, and political freedom." This self-laudation is not only vulgar, it is misleading. If this is true, how comes it that the Corporation has failed to remain the real centre of London life, and that its place has been taken by the County Council? On the whole, Dr. Sharpe's work is carefully done; and the book will be of some use, especially on account of the appendix of hitherto unprinted letters belonging to the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. But we must repeat what we remarked on reviewing the earlier volumes, that in our judgment the Corporation of London and the great companies would consult alike their dignity and their interest if they regarded the documents under their charge less as ammunition against radical innovators, and more as material for the scientific historian.

The friends of the late Mr. William Dalton Babington have been well advised in publishing the papers, fragmentary and sketchy though they are, that make up the little volume entitled 'Fallacies of Race Theories as applied to National Characteristics' (Longmans). Mr. Babington sets the good example of subjecting to the criticism of common sense some loose ideas that have become widely current in modern historical writing under the influence of German teaching. That the Roman Empire fell because society was corrupt and needed to be rejuvenated by the rude virtues of the Teutonic invaders, is a proposition gratifying to Teutonic pride and furnishing a beautifully simple justification for the ways of Providence—as Kingsley has set forth. But Mr. Babington shows how remarkably scanty is the evidence adduced for it, and how susceptible that evidence is of another interpretation. To this he adds a very satisfactory examination of the well-known passage wherein Mommsen, apropos of Cæsar's conquest of Gaul, passes contemptuous judgment on the Celtic character in all ages. Most of the traits that Mommsen, with slight evidence, finds in the Celt, Mr. Babington with better reason finds in the Teuton of Tacitus. The last quarter of the book is rather thin in substance, and might well have been allowed to remain in manuscript; but the rest, if it does not go deeply into the subject, is at any rate adequate for its immediate purpose.

Mr. W. M. Griswold, Cambridge, Mass., whose latest index was the volume in his eminently helpful series of 'Descriptive Lists of Novels and Tales' dealing with the history of North America, was not satisfied with this labor. He has now completed on the same principle a 'Descriptive List of Books for the Young,' which, if it does not surpass all others, will supplement all. It is classified and minutely indexed, eighty pages being given to history, and thirty (with much discrimination) to fiction. The poetry section proper is meagre, and contains only one title, Sherman's 'Little-Folk Lyrics,' which deserves the name of poetry. Senator Lodge's present occupation of twisting the tail of the British lion ought not to have banished his excellent anthology of 'Ballads and Lyrics' to an appendix.

After a long wait, the Harpers add a volume to their "Odd Number" series of translations from contemporary novelists. Galdós's 'Doña Perfecta' is the work chosen this time, and its version by Mrs. Serrano is able to stand thorough testing as to both accuracy and adequacy. Mr. Howells furnishes an introduction, in which his account of Galdós's literary development is frankly confessed (as it should be) to be mostly guesswork.

Part four of the great list of plants and their countries, published under the name of 'Index Kewensis' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) completes the work. As we have more than once stated, this work had its origin in a wish expressed by Charles Darwin, shortly before his death, that some of the difficulties which had beset his path in studying plants should be removed from the pathway of others. He had experienced great embarrassment in accurately designating the many plants which he had taken under consideration and in ascertaining their native countries. It appeared to him, therefore, that an index which should give the names and authorities of all known flowering plants, and their countries, would be of service to biologists everywhere. To carry out this wish, he devoted a considerable sum to be expended under the direction of Sir Joseph Hooker. The task of compilation was committed to Mr. B. Daydon Jackson, and carried on at the Kew Herbarium. It is now finished, and the results are embodied in the 2,500 large quarto pages of the Kew Index. In the present chaotic condition of botanical nomenclature, such an index is a conservative factor of some importance, but its special value is found in the use which can be made of it by serious students in all fields of applied botany, such as economic and geographical. We can imagine that it made little difference to Mr. Darwin whether a plant was called by this name or that, provided it whispered to him its secrets of life; but he was anxious that some means of ready reference should be at hand for those who cared to repeat his experiments and observations, or who would enter on new ones. In this index, with its possible shortcomings inseparable from the magnitude and character of the work, such means of ready reference have been afforded, and by the generosity of the master himself.

The first number of an illustrated quarterly entitled *Bismarck*, and devoted to "Bismarck biography, German history, art, and life," has just been issued by Heuer & Kirmse in Berlin. The leading contribution to the present number is Hans Hoffmann's "Die grosse Woche von Friedrichsruhe," descriptive of the celebration of Bismarck's eightieth birthday. There are also poems by Wilhelm Jordan, Rudolf Genée, and Felix Dahn, called forth by the same anniversary and glorifying the octogenarian statesman.

A biographer of Bismarck, Karl Strecker, has been given the editorial charge of a curious enterprise, called 'Das Bismarck-Museum,' being no less than a legible reproduction of the honorary addresses and gifts of all descriptions showered upon the statesman not only for his birthday festival, but during his long career. The form will be folio, and the artistic execution sumptuous. The publisher is H. Jerosch, Berlin (New York: Westermann).

In the report for 1894–95 of the Observatory of Yale University, the chief point of interest is Dr. Elkin's account of work with the heliometer. He has closed his series of observations on the parallaxes of first-magnitude stars, and the series on distances of large proper-motion stars now comprises 99, practically all of which have been observed at two parallax maximum epochs, and in general upon three nights. To insure still greater accuracy, it is proposed to secure two farther epochs for each star. A series of observations upon Iris, one of the small planets, for a new determination of the sun's distance, has been forwarded to Dr. Gill at the Cape of Good Hope, for inclusion with his like investigations upon Victoria and Sappho. A new equatorial mounting, arranged for carrying four cameras, was used in August of 1894 for recording meteors. Prof. Barnard, Mr. Lewis, and Prof. Pickering have sent photographs of meteor trails to Dr. Elkin, who has already discussed them with interesting results, chief among which is the exceeding accuracy of these novel records.

The report of the Astronomer Royal to the Board of Visitors at Greenwich shows that, in spite of much unfavorable weather during the year, the staff was unusually active; the sun, moon, planets, and fundamental stars having been regularly observed on the meridian. The

annual catalogue of stars observed in 1894 contains no less than 3,057 stars. Additions to the buildings give greater space and freedom for work, a new shutter with more efficient wind-guards has been put upon the astrographic dome, the new altazimuth has been practically completed by Troughton & Simms, a new photographic telescope of 26 inches aperture (the gift of Sir Henry Thompson) is progressing, as also a spectroscope especially adapted to photography for the 28-inch refractor. Observations of certain double stars have been made at the request of Dr. See, measures of the planetary diameters and satellites, and of the rings of Saturn also, as well as the usual ones upon star occultations and comets, together with many photographic plates of the heavens. A fine record is shown in physical astronomy, as regards the sun in particular, nor are the elements in meteorology and magnetism neglected.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for October contains a report on the excavations at Jerusalem by Dr. Bliss, and the conclusion of the Rev. W. Ewing's account of his journey in the Hauran. A railway is being constructed from Damascus through this district, apparently along the old Roman road, now the "Haj" road of the Mecca pilgrims. Some twenty-five miles are in running order, so that the traveller can now go by rail from Beirut via Damascus into the heart of the till lately inaccessible trans-Jordanic region. The subject of the stoppage of the Jordan is continued from the previous number. That contained a passage from the life of Sultan Beybars I. of Egypt by the Arab chronicler Nowairi, to the effect that in the night of December 8th, 1267, at a certain place, "the waters of the river ceased to flow so that none remained in its bed." Riders sent up the stream found "that a lofty mound which overlooked the river on the west had fallen into it and dammed it up." "The water was arrested from midnight until the fourth hour of the day." The place where the landslip occurred has been located with great probability at a spot some fifty miles above Jericho.

The American Ornithologists' Union held its thirteenth annual congress in Washington last week, with about the average attendance, both of members and of the public. A new feature was a special memorial session, at which the late G. N. Lawrence of New York was eulogized by Mr. D. G. Elliot, and the late Thomas Henry Huxley by Dr. Elliott Coues. The regular scientific sessions were opened by an exhibition of unpublished water-color paintings by Mr. Louis Agassiz Fuertes, a student of Cornell, on whom some of the members seemed to think that the mantle of Audubon himself had fallen. W. T. Blanford of England was promoted from corresponding to honorary membership, and W. H. Hudson was admitted to the former. The only person elected to active membership was Mr. A. W. Anthony of California, but a batch of about ninety associate members was admitted. Mr. William Brewster of Cambridge succeeded Dr. Coues in the presidency, and the Union goes to Cambridge next year.

Mr. W. P. W. Phillimore of London concludes his notes on the English Garfields in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, but without success in discovering the connecting link between the mother country and the Massachusetts Colony. He shows that Garle and Garfield are identical names. Mr. Henry F. Waters, in his "Genealogical Gleanings from England," in the same number, prints a will of John Borrodale of London (proved Nov. 18, 1667), in which his sister Mrs. Margaret Mitchell figures as a legatee. From her is descended President Cleveland in the eighth generation. Other wills possess exceptional interest for the well-known families involved, but we cannot dwell on them. Incidentally Mr. Waters says (p. 483) that in his extensive researches among the probate inventories of Essex, Middlesex, and Suffolk Counties (Mass.), he has found the word *salver* almost invariably spelt "server" or "sarver." "In fact, I am not sure that, down to the period of our Revolution, I have ever seen the modern spelling 'salver.'" Hence he infers the ordinary pronunciation of the vowel of the first syllable to have been like that of the present English pronunciation of *e* in Derby; a subsequent change in the spelling without change of pronunciation to "salver"; and finally a change of pronunciation, *i. e.*, to "sal-ver." Some letters of Elbridge Gerry, edited by Mr. W. C. Ford, should not be overlooked.

M. Gaston Deschamps, who takes a somewhat despondent view of the decadence of reading in France—a sad state of things, which, oddly enough, he seems half inclined to attribute to the present rage for bicycling—is able to find a little satisfaction, as well as much chagrin, in some statistics of the circulation of certain periodicals published beyond the Rhine. The *Gartenlaube* has 250,000 subscribers, he says, *Ueber Land und Meer* more than 100,000, *Zur guten Stunde* more than 100,000, *Daheim* more than 100,000—that is to say, about 600,000 subscribers for what he calls the "Revues Protestantes." To these must be added the more than 60,000 subscribers to the Catholic reviews, *Deutscher Hausschatz* and *Die Alte und Neue Welt*. One factor in the problem, which may be either a cause or a result, seems to have escaped the notice of M. Gaston Deschamps: there is a great dearth in France of periodicals which are both good and cheap. The great reviews are admirable but costly. The periodicals sold at a lower price are, for the most part (like the various organs of "Les Jeunes"), dear at any price. The *Revue Encyclopédique* is not dear, but then it is not always of thrilling interest. Many learned reviews, in themselves of the greatest value, appeal to scholars only. Still, there are the *Revue Rose* and the admirable *Revue Bleue*, which may serve as exceptions to this general remark.

If M. Gustave Droz had passed over to the majority twenty years ago, the space devoted to his memory in the obituary columns of the newspapers would doubtless have been much greater than it now is. At that time he was perhaps the most in view of all the writers of light fiction in Paris. His books ran through ten, fifteen, twenty editions. He seemed almost to have discovered a new *genre;* at least he had a new touch. Now he is half forgotten. Droz was born at Paris in 1832, and began life as a painter. When Marcellin, the friend of Taine, founded the *Vie Parisienne*, he divined that Droz could write as well as draw, and obtained from him some light articles for his new venture. These were afterwards published under the title of 'Monsieur, Madame et Bébé,' and, both in the paper and as a volume, had an astonishing vogue. Then came 'Entre Nous,' the 'Cahier Bleu de Mlle. Cibot,' 'Babolain,' 'Un Paquet de Lettres,' and other books less well known. Droz offered himself as a candidate for the Academy in 1886, after the death of Edmond About, but failed of an election. He died, very suddenly, at Paris on the 22d of October last.

Prof. Heinrich von Treitschke has accepted the place of editor-in-chief of the *Historische Zeitschrift* (Munich: Oldenbourg), recently made vacant by the death of Prof. Heinrich von Sybel. He has also been elected to Sybel's seat in the Berlin Academy of Sciences, a rather tardy recognition of the merits of the distinguished historian, who has held a professorship in the Berlin University since 1874. In strict justice, this honor should have been conferred upon him after the death of Max Duncker, or of Ranke, or of Weizsäcker; but each time it was prevented by political antagonisms and intrigues which have now happily yielded to higher considerations. His election has been confirmed by the King of Prussia.

—The leading contribution to the October number of the *Preussische Jahrbücher* is an interesting article of fifty-five pages by the editor, Hans Delbrück, entitled "Das Geheimniss der Napoleonischen Politik im Jahre 1870," in which he takes direct issue with Sybel on the vexed question of the French Emperor's responsibility for the Franco-German war. According to Sybel, Napoleon was inveigled and finally forced into the declaration of hostilities, much against his will, by the machinations of Gramont and Ollivier, incited and sustained by the clamors of the Parisian populace. Delbrück maintains that the distinguished historian, now deceased, was in this respect "wofully deceived," and that this deception arose from placing too implicit reliance on the Memoirs of Count Vitzthum, a Saxon diplomat and confidential agent of Beust in the service of Austria. A still greater surprise for the reader is Delbrück's statement that the candidature of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen for the Spanish throne was the work of Bismarck. This view has been always entertained by the French, but rejected by the Germans, and Delbrück, although hitherto strongly opposed to it, now admits that it is correct. In the notes from the diary of the present King Charles of Rumania, the secret, so carefully guarded by the Foreign Office at Berlin, is revealed. We there learn that when, in March, 1870, Gen. Prim, the head of the provisional Government at Madrid, offered the crown of Spain to Prince Leopold, the acceptance of it was most warmly advocated by Bismarck, who, in a memorial addressed to King William, urged the many political and commercial advantages which would accrue to Germany from the occupancy of the throne of Charles V. by a prince of the house of Hohenzollern. These views were approved by a Hohenzollern "family council," which was convened on March 15, 1870, by King William, and at which Bismarck, Roon, Moltke, and other representatives of the Government were present. In the discussion which took place no one even suggested that the proposed measure might provoke the hostility of France. It was only afterwards, at the dinner in the royal palace, that one of the members of the council, who sat next to Moltke, remarked: "Suppose Napoleon should feel affronted, are we ready?" To which Moltke replied with a calm and confident "Yes." There is, however, no reason to suppose that Bismarck either sought or thought to give offence to France by this proposal, since Prince Leopold was a personal friend of the French Emperor, who ought to have preferred him to his rival candidate, the Duke of Montpensier, against whom Napoleon was known to entertain a strong antipathy.

—Fouillée, who is one of the best of the French psychologists—not the so-called psy-

chologists, like Paul Bourget, who pick up a sufficient smattering of psychological terms for literary purposes—has an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the degeneration which not Nordau only, but Féré, Janet, Sollier, and other recent writers find to be characteristic of the present race of Frenchmen. It is a degeneration, Fouillée thinks, which other nations are in danger of falling into as well, and which the French have become a prey to first only on account of their extreme nervous development and consequent susceptibility to the unfavorable influences (as well as others) of modern civilization. He does not take an altogether hopeless view of the situation, but thinks there is still sufficient energy and intelligence in the country to effect a change—that the destruction or the salvation of the nation is still in its own hands. The causes of this state of things he finds to be some of them inseparable from a high state of civilization, as the extreme tension of modern life, and especially of life in cities; and others dependent upon the stationary population of France (for the last three years there has been an actual excess of deaths over births among the native French), which has the effect of interfering with a natural selection, and even, since it is the lower classes who are chiefly prolific, to cause an inverted Darwinism—a "darwinisme à rebours." But the chief cause of the unsatisfactory physical condition of the race this keen and fearless critic finds to be the extreme relaxation of morals which prevails in France; there is nothing which is a more fatal source of deterioration in the nervous and also in the muscular system of mankind. And for the low state of morals he blames in great part a licentious press, demoralizing plays, the indecent *café chantant*, the open exhibition of vice in all its forms; and he urges an immediate and rigid repression by law of all these open incentives to loose manners with which Paris abounds. All those who appreciate the unique quality of the French character when at its best, will hope that the warning of this and of other prophets who have lately spoken with great freedom, will not have come too late.

—The third and fourth volumes of the co-operative history edited by Mr. H. D. Traill ('Social England,' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons) have recently appeared, and cover the periods 1509–1603 and 1603 to 1714 respectively. They carry out with unflagging steadiness the plan the editor has set before himself, and of the merits and demerits of which we have already more than once spoken. The contents of these, as of the previous volumes, may be described as the work of conscientious historical journeymen, writing to order; and if it seldom rises above mediocrity, it seldom falls below it. Original investigation is, however, not altogether unrepresented; for Mr. Traill has had the wisdom and courage to intrust the "Dissolution of the Monasteries" to Father Gasquet. Moreover, he has been fortunate enough to induce Mr. George Saintsbury—whom we take this opportunity of congratulating upon his recent appointment at Edinburgh—to undertake the Elizabethan and Stuart literature; and the too few pages from his pen stand out from among the rest with a charm and distinction all their own. Impartiality has been aimed at in dealing with the religious dissensions of the seventeenth century, and has taken the form of allowing both sides a hearing in the persons of learned and moderate representatives. Their very different utterances on the same themes will afford matter for consideration to the young student. We should like to suggest that, as the book is likely to be used for a good many years to come, the page that gives an account of the contributors might profitably be revised. The information is in some instances just a little lacking in proportion. We confess it does not commend a contributor's pages to us to be told that he has edited a play of Shakspere—"(for schools)," as is carefully added.

—Readers of Macaulay's well-known essay on Warren Hastings should welcome the appearance of 'The Private Life of Warren Hastings' (Macmillan). The volume is written by Sir Charles Lawson, for many years editor of the Madras *Mail*, and contains an anecdotic biography of the Governor-General, with notices of his friends, his enemies, his trial in Westminster Hall, and his later years. It is admirably illustrated with portraits and views and reproductions of contemporary caricatures, and forms a dainty and gossipy little book. The author is more deeply interested in the personality than in the achievements of his hero. He does not attempt to deal with the administration of Hastings in India or with his career as a public man. He holds, and rightly, that Sir James Stephen and Sir John Strachey have completely cleared Hastings from the worst accusations brought against him, and refers with justice to the recent volume by Col. Malleson as containing the most accurate and trustworthy account of Hastings's administration yet published. Sir Charles Lawson prefers rather to deal with personal details and to leave the higher flights of history to others. The pictures he presents of the neglected childhood of the future Governor-General, of the uxorious proconsul who sighed for his Marian at the height of his power, of the badly used saviour of India on his trial before the House of Lords, and of the Anglo-Indian recluse in his final home at Daylesford, supplement the account of the great man's government contained in the pages of the historian. Against one thing only is it necessary to protest. Sir Charles Lawson devotes a chapter to Philip Francis, the inveterate enemy of Hastings, and persists in regarding him as the proved author of the letters of Junius. Though he is still the favorite candidate for the doubtful honor, it has not yet been proved that Francis was Junius; it is even safer to say that it has been disproved.

—The next generation can scarcely have the good fortune of possessing many pleasant letter-writers. The charm of a letter lies in its *personalness*, in its unconsciously expressing the personality of the writer to the personality of his friend. A letter that could have been written by any other person, or addressed to any other person, is, just in so far, a less "good" letter than it might be, and the most delightful letters are written in a language intelligible to only two souls in all the world. Meantime, everything is being done to make men (and in this case "men" unfortunately includes women) address their letters to the public instead of to individuals. The hand that has held the pen is scarcely cold before the tenderest feelings of the heart and the shyest thoughts of the brain may be read in all the newspapers, and may be commented on by careless strangers. And as a consequence (a consequence that foreruns the cause) these tenderest feelings and shyest thoughts, when committed nowadays to the keeping of a letter, are too apt to have a note of artificiality produced by possible publicity. A somewhat similar injurious influence comes from considering excellence in letter-writing too much as an accomplishment—as something external. An excellent letter can come only from an excellent mind. Flaubert's saying, "I try to think well in order to write well," is an admirable formula of the art of writing. Miss Callaway, the compiler of a volume just published, entitled 'Charm and Courtesy in Letter-writing' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), has echoed this truth, but has failed to exemplify it. Her selections have an eccentric heterogeneousness which gives the book a character of kaleidoscopic puerility, and her own observations are flavored with the very artificiality we deplore in nineteenth-century letters.

—M. André Hallays only the other day—it was on the 19th of October—was complaining, as a hundred critics before him have done, of the ravages wrought, under the name of restorations, by Viollet-le-Duc and others upon some of the noblest works of mediæval architecture. On the very same day a cantata was performed at the annual public séance of the Académie des Beaux-Arts which presented a restoration of 'Clarissa Harlowe' quite as astonishing as anything ever seen in architecture. A French roof and at least half-a-dozen tourelles were put upon the simple construction of Richardson. The three scenes of the piece pass in the neighborhood of London, around a pavilion wherein *Clarissa*, shut up by her family, bewails the treason of *Lovelace*. *Lovelace* appears and calls to her. At first she rejects him, but soon softens and, yielding to his words of love, prepares to fly with him:

"Ah! malgré moi je cède au charme qui m'enivre.
Si ta bouche dit vrai, si ton cœur ne ment pas,
Emporte moi!—je suis à toi—je ne veux vivre
Que pour aimer et mourir en tes bras."

At this point *Col. Morden* appears at the threshold of the pavilion and provokes *Lovelace; Clarissa*, exhausted by this last emotion, dies in the arms of her seducer, invoking the clemency of her family for herself and for him. *Morden* does not at all agree with her view of the situation, and the duel with *Lovelace* follows. It is, as will be noted, a much restored, or even a quite new, Clarissa which has been prepared *in usum Delphini*—for the heirs of the republic.

ARISTOTLE'S 'POLITICS.'

The Politics of Aristotle: A Revised Text, with Introductory Analysis and Commentary, by Franz Susemihl, Professor in Greifswald, and R. D. Hicks, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Vol. I. Books I.—V. Macmillan & Co. Pp. 689.

THIS is the first instalment of a new edition of Aristotle's 'Politics,' containing five of the eight books, with valuable introductory matter. A new edition of the 'Politics,' especially one bearing the name of Susemihl, was sure to be hailed with delight by all classical scholars. Susemihl had already connected his name closely with the 'Politics' by his three standard editions published in Germany. In 1872 appeared his elaborate critical edition, based on a complete collation of the most important manuscripts, and containing a revised text of the Latin version made by William of Moerbeke in the thirteenth century, which is older than any complete Greek manuscript of the 'Politics' now extant. In 1879 he published the Greek text with critical notes, and a German translation on the opposite page; and a second volume contained explanatory notes. He also edited the text for the Teubner collection, and a revised edition of this was published

in 1894. In the present edition the English editor, Mr. Hicks, has undertaken (as he tells us in his preface) to reproduce in an English dress Susemihl's edition of 1879. It is, however, by no means a mere reproduction. The text has been carefully revised by Susemihl, who has further made "comprehensive changes" in his notes: these notes all bear Susemihl's signature. Large and valuable additions have been made to the commentary by Mr. Hicks, who has had the help of various Cambridge scholars, especially that of Dr. Henry Jackson, who, since the death of W. H. Thompson, has been the chief representative of Greek philosophy at Cambridge. The announcement of a new edition of the 'Politics' thus equipped was especially welcome at this time, when the discovery of Aristotle's long-lost work on 'The Constitution of Athens,' the chief chapter in his monumental work entitled 'The Constitutions of 158 States, Democratic, Oligarchic, Aristocratic, and Tyrannic,' has interested all scholars in the Stagirite's doctrines of government. Two large volumes of F. W. Newman's elaborate work on the 'Politics,' one containing the Introduction, the other Essays and the text of Books I. and II. with critical and explanatory notes, were published in 1887, offering much matter for thoughtful consideration. On all this new material the mature judgment of a veteran like Susemihl was awaited with deep interest.

Under these circumstances, it can hardly be expected that scholars should conceal their disappointment when they find that 460 pages, or two-thirds of the present volume, were printed at least eight years before the volume was published—that is, before the discovery of Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens,' before the publication of Newman's volumes, and before Susemihl's final revision of the text. Almost all that the volume has drawn from these three sources must be found in the *Addenda* and *Corrigenda;* and everybody knows too well what this means. The apologies of both the publishers and the English editor in the preface deplore, but in no way explain, this most unexpected disappointment which awaits the reader. We must therefore accept this volume as in great part an English reproduction of Susemihl's edition of 1879, with careful revision and correction, with supplementary notes and essays, with the notes beneath the text, and without the translation, brought down to the year 1886 (or earlier), with additional matter added in an appendix. For this we should be exceedingly grateful if our expectations of something far better had never been roused; and with these qualifications we may allow the work to be what its preface claims, "more adequate than any of its predecessors to our existing material and means of information." There is certainly no other edition of the 'Politics' which can be compared with this for comprehensive thoroughness, or which will be so useful to the general student. Nevertheless, there still remains a rich harvest for its successor.

The indiscriminate enthusiasm sometimes lavished on Aristotle's 'Politics,' and its high position at the English universities, are apt to mislead students as to its character and its peculiar merits. It is in no sense a systematic or complete treatise on government. It is not even complete in itself, but has come down to us in a very unfinished state. No ancient work bears more plainly on its face the marks of ancient editing. The scientific works of Aristotle stand in a peculiar position in this respect, compared with other classic writings. However sceptical we may be about the editorial revision of other works of ancient literature, there can be no doubt here. The well-known story, that the library of Aristotle, bequeathed by him to Theophrastus, descended to a family which kept the manuscripts buried in a cellar in the Troad about a century and a half, that they were restored to Athens just in time to be carried to Rome by Sulla with the booty of Athens in 86 B. C., that in Rome they fell into the hands of Andronicus of Rhodes, is the basis of the early history of our text of Aristotle. The distinction, based upon this story as told by Strabo, between the scientific works, which alone have come down to us through Andronicus Rhodius, and the popular works, which were best known to the two centuries before Christ, is strongly and unexpectedly confirmed by the newly found 'Constitution of Athens,' which is the only work of Aristotle known to us which undoubtedly belonged to the popular class and was found in the ancient libraries. The style of this new comer is as simple as that of the 'Anabasis,' and as different from the hard, technical style of the scientific works as it is possible to conceive. While this difference in style at first inclined some to doubt the genuineness of the new book, it appeared to others one of the strongest proofs that at last we had a real "exoteric" work of Aristotle.

Andronicus undertook the difficult task of arranging and editing the mass of manuscripts which came to him at Rome. The moths and worms of the Troad had done a work almost as effective as that of some modern expungers in destroying or obliterating the words of the philosopher. The writings were also in great confusion, so that much skill and learning were needed to restore them to anything like their pristine form. The different state of preservation of different works still testifies to their long burial. While some favored works, like the 'Ethics,' are almost faultless in their text, showing that they had a safe inside place in the pile, others, like the 'Poetics,' show equal traces of an exposed outside place. The 'Politics' had a moderately exposed place, not out of reach of the worms. This treatise, moreover, was left by the author in an unfinished state; and some of it still remains in the form of material which was collected but never worked into shape. We can see this, for example, in chapters 4, 5, and 6 of Book vi. (iv. of the old order), where we have first an enumeration of five kinds of democracy and four of oligarchy, immediately followed by another of four kinds of each, with enough of repetition to show that the two schemes are based on the same general principle, and enough of difference to show that the second is not (as it is sometimes called) a mere "recapitulation" of the first. Both were evidently made by Aristotle at different times; both were found among his papers on politics, and both were allowed to stand. Other cases show similar want of consistency in different parts of the treatise, indicating that the work as a whole was never finally revised by the author.

The most serious gap in the work is the want of Aristotle's account of the constitution of his ideal state. Internal evidence shows that the last two books of the traditional order belong directly after the third, and they are so placed in all modern editions. We thus have, after three introductory books, the beginning of the development of the ideal state and its constitution. After discussing the size and position of an ideal city, which is his limit of an ideal state, the nature of its citizens, the tenure of land, the supply of water, and other matters of this class, he provides for the most careful rearing and training of the youth, and then begins to treat of the best education. After briefly stating the regular subjects of public education—reading and writing, gymnastics, music, and perhaps drawing—he enters unexpectedly on a detailed account of the uses and value of musical training, in the midst of which the fifth (formerly the eighth) book suddenly breaks off, and we have no more of the ideal state or its constitution. Andronicus probably assumed that this obvious break marked the end of the portion of the treatise which was preserved, and arranged the books accordingly. Following this fragment on the ideal state, which was a mere introduction to the real subject, we have two books (now numbered vi. and vii.) of rather loosely connected discussions, and finally in the eighth book a connected essay on the various dangers to which different forms of government are liable and the means of protection against them. The work comes to no natural end here, but there is no reason for thinking that Aristotle ever extended it further. Susemihl ends his Analysis, which fills 37 pages, with the remark: "The third main division of the work, treating of Legislation, is entirely wanting." If the account of the ideal state had been finished on the scale on which it was begun, it would have filled at least four or five books.

The chief value of the 'Politics' to modern students is to be found not in the work viewed as a connected whole, but rather in the general good sense and sound judgment which pervade the discussions, even those which lead nowhere, and in the pithy and often humorous remarks which enliven every part. Of no book is it more true that we are often most instructed by arguments which lead to no practical result or end in absurdity. It may be interesting to trace Aristotle's view of slavery as it appears in various discussions in different parts of the 'Politics.' He accepts slavery as an "institution"; but when he attempts to defend it by arguments which would appeal not merely to the fourth century B. C., but also to the nineteenth century A. D., he tackles a problem to which even the father of logic was not equal. He evolves the state from the family through the village community, and he bases the family on two natural relations, that of male and female and that of ruler and subject. The state, being thus evolved from natural relations, is itself a natural product, so that man is a "political animal," and "an ἄπολις ['a man without a country'] would be either a beast or a God." This is in opposition to Plato's theory of a social compact, made by four or five men, who were not members of a state, for their mutual advantage. The relation of ruler and subject he sees in men and animals, in soul and body, in the higher and lower parts of the soul (*i. e.*, in intellect and appetite), in male and female; in fact, it pervades all animate (to say nothing of inanimate) nature, and whenever there is a reversal of this relation, the plan of nature is frustrated and calamity ensues. "Now," he says, "whenever any men are so far inferior to others as body is to soul and beast to man, these are natural slaves, and it is for their good to be slaves." "A natural slave is one who is by nature not his own but another's, and is still a man; and he belongs to another because nature has made him capable of belonging to another." He illustrates his idea of a "superior race" by an interesting remark, which shows how the youth from Stagira was impressed by the wealth of art in Athens:

"This is plain, that if men should be found as superior to common men merely in body as

are the statues of the Gods, all would agree that their inferiors ought to be their slaves. And if this is true of the body, all the more just is it to make this distinction in the soul; only, beauty of soul is not so easily seen as beauty of body."

He would not allow Greeks, but only "barbarians," to be slaves; Greek birth being a patent of nobility "everywhere recognized." He quotes Helen's proud claim to unconditional freedom in the tragedy of Theodectes: "Sprung as I am from a double race divine, who will dare to call me a slave?"

The weakest point in the whole argument is the want of a tribunal to decide whether a given man is or is not a natural slave. "Nature," he says, "intends to distinguish the bodies of freemen from those of slaves; but sometimes the bodies and the souls of freemen are found in different persons." Aristotle says of a tendency of nature which is not always effective, that "Nature wants to do this, but sometimes she cannot." No higher court of appeal than Nature is even suggested. He mentions a man who once opened a school in Syracuse to teach slaves their duties (or "the art of slavery"); and he suggests cooking-schools and similar institutions as likely to be useful. He adds that there is also a "master's art," which few learn; for most slaveholders who have the means hire an overseer to manage their slaves, "while they go into politics or philosophy."

Though the discussion of slavery in the 'Politics' leads to nothing tangible, at least for us, it is yet obvious that Aristotle looks upon slavery rather as a necessity in Greek society than as a good. This appears when he bases his grand distinction between good and bad governments on his doctrine of slavery. When he founds the household on the two natural relations of male and female, ruler and subject, he calls the rule of the head of the family over his wife and children, "a household government" (οἰκονομικη); he rules his wife like a statesman (πολιτικῶς), and his children like a good king (βασιλικῶς). On the other hand, he governs his slave by "a slave master's rule (δεσποτικῆ)." The intellect governs the appetites by "household" rule; the soul governs the body by "slave-master's" rule. The former aims at the common interest of the ruler and the subjects; the latter at the interest of the ruler alone. On this principle he recognizes three forms of household government (all good) which are administered in the common interest of the whole state and only incidentally in the interest of the rulers (in so far as the ruler is one of the state), and three forms of slaveholding governments (all bad), which are administered in the special interest of the rulers and only incidentally in the interest of the subjects. The three former are the good monarchy (βασιλεία), aristocracy (government of the few best men), and polity (government by the whole people for the common good). The three latter are tyranny, oligarchy (government by the rich), and democracy (the rule of the lower classes in their own interest).

Aristotle's "despotism" is therefore nothing but government administered on the slaveholding principle, either by one man, by a few, or by the multitude. There is no more instructive passage in the 'Politics' than that in which he shows how the rule of an irresponsible majority can be just as despotic as that of a single tyrant. He defines this extreme democracy as that "in which the majority, and not the law, is supreme"—in other words, "when decrees of the people, and not the law, govern." By "law" is meant a fixed code of statutes, which cannot be changed or repealed by the ordinary legislative power. The latter can pass only decrees in conformity to the fixed code, which thus corresponds to our written constitutions. Such absolute power, Aristotle says, makes the people a monarch (ἕνα ἐκ πολλῶν, *e pluribus unum*), and finally a despot refusing to be subject to law; and "such a democracy is analogous to tyranny." Both have the same character, for "both exercise a slaveholder's rule over the better citizens"; in one we have decrees, in the other edicts; in one demagogues are in authority, in the other flatterers. When a dispute arises, the cry always is, "The people must settle it," and everything is determined by the momentary will of the supreme multitude. From this state of things the wisdom of our fathers has saved us, and the Supreme Court of the United States decides questions of constitutional law with far more wisdom and dignity than its predecessor, the popular court of Athens. It is not strange, however, that our English friends feel anxious when it is proposed to remove the protection which the House of Lords now affords against what Aristotle calls "the rule of the majority without law." For England has no "law," in Aristotle's sense, which its legislature cannot repeal or change.

In the absence of Aristotle's direct treatment of the constitution of the ideal state, we must base our judgment of what this would have been upon his incidental remarks. Of these none is more significant than the saying that "the government which is administered by the best men is best," which seems to mean that under different circumstances any one of the good governments—a wise monarchy, an aristocracy, or a constitutional government of the people—might be best for a state. Nevertheless, the experience of his life and the tendencies of his age made him look with more hope to some form of true aristocracy, or government of the few best men, varied occasionally by the single rule of an exceptionally wise and good man, whom all would agree to obey and who would be "like a God among men." To such rare men Aristotle applies words which St. Paul gives us in two separate passages: "As regards such men there is no law, for they are a law unto themselves." Such men may be made kings for life, but on no account must they transmit their power to their descendants. In discussing oligarchy, Aristotle refers to the common argument, that a man who brings only one-hundredth of the capital into a partnership should not have the same voice in managing the business as one who furnishes all the rest; and he remarks that this would be a sound argument if the state were a business partnership, but as its real object is to change mere existence into a better life, the man who brings the most capital into this firm should have the chief voice in its management.

We must refer, finally, to Aristotle's brief statement of the origin and the true function of money, which contains in a nutshell all that now passes for sound doctrine on this subject. Mill's elaborate account of money, in his 'Political Economy,' contains little which Aristotle does not say or imply. Especially distinct is the principle that money must be a "commodity," something useful, which has a value in itself that makes it universally desirable. It must also be portable, for convenience, that it may save the transportation of bulky commodities for purposes of exchange. This needs nothing but a few obvious corollaries to adapt it to the soundest doctrine of a convertible paper currency. Nothing can be a stronger protest against such wild dreams as those of the late B. F. Butler on the "American dollar," for example: "I want that dollar stamped upon some convenient and cheap material *of the least possible intrinsic value*." "I desire the dollar so issued shall never be redeemed." But it is again depressing, after reading these sound views of Aristotle, to find him unable to grapple with further questions which are equally simple to us, and objecting to lending money on interest and to the accumulation of wealth by trade.

If the new edition of the 'Politics' calls new attention to the valuable lessons for our own day which the work contains, it will not have been published in vain.

THE LITERATURE OF THE KITCHEN.

The Spirit of Cooking. By J. L. W. Thudichum, M.D., F.R.C.P.Lond. New York: Frederick Warne & Co.

The Century Cook Book. By Mary Ronald. The Century Co.

European and American Cuisine. By Gesine Lemcke. D. Appleton & Co.

The Murrey Collection of Cook Books. By Thomas J. Murrey. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

Francatelli's Modern Cook. By Charles E. Francatelli. Philadelphia: David McKay.

THE attention now accorded in this country to cookery is emphasized by the great quantity of literature devoted to the subject. Hardly a year elapses without the appearance of many treatises relating to it; moreover, almost all the daily and weekly journals, secular and religious, conduct departments that treat of it either exclusively or incidentally. Then, again, many educational institutions maintain cookery schools; and finally, in most of the larger towns, such schools are established for the training of women, who, taught by means of lectures and practical demonstrations of culinary processes, learn to steer clear of the perils that hover over a household where badly cooked food may well arouse latent antagonisms.

Dr. Thudichum, in the preface to his 'Spirit of Cookery,' says with much truth that culinary literature attained its highest excellence about the middle of the last century; but since then a distinct retrogression is perceptible, "as shown by compromises with the demand for excellence in all its branches, and diagnosed at once by humanists accustomed to what one of its greatest exponents has termed the manly and elegant style of magiric art." Dr. Thudichum asserts that, in the manuals of cookery that have appeared during the present century, there is no systematic attempt to express the acquired knowledge in the shape of general rules such as would result from a codification of principles. The great mass of detail seems to have stood in the way. Dr. Thudichum has sought to overcome this obstacle in his 'Spirit of Cookery.' He treats of the culinary art in the light of history, science, practice, ethical and medical import, and of the objects, results, and evolution of cookery. Under the last-named heading he advances the novel theory that it is through native confectionery that the state of culture of any nation may be estimated, even when little is known of its cookery, inasmuch as confectionery is the most advanced and refined part of cookery, and thus "enables the expert to draw a conclusion backwards regarding the kind of cookery out of which it originated." He applies this test to the natives of India, and concludes that they possess no proofs of ancient civilization, as the so-called confectioneries made by native Hindus in the Indian and Colonial Exhibition in

London, were either indifferent to flatness, or simply repulsive. English proficiency is exemplified by Dr. Thudichum from 'The Complete Housekeeper,' by Mary Smith, printed in England in 1772, in which she speaks of Sauce Robert as "Roe-boat-Sauce," of an omelet as "A Hamlet," and of a Queen Soup as "Soupe à la Rain." His chapter on the "Historic Literature of Cookery" is most interesting. It calls up the early Greek, Roman, French, Spanish, Italian, German, and English writers on cookery as well as those of modern times. He by no means accepts these authors at their own valuation. In his notice of Brillat-Savarin, author of 'Physiologie du Goût,' he states that Savarin's qualities "were generally constructed by biographers out of this book, but were very different according to the testimony of contemporaries." Dr. Thudichum quotes Carême, who, in his Memoirs, says: "Neither M. Cambacérès nor Brillat-Savarin has ever known how to eat properly. Both liked strong, vulgar things and simply filled their stomachs." Dumas says: "Savarin was neither a gastronomer nor a gourmet, but simply a vigorous eater." An intimate friend, M. Pages, says: "One nowhere heard better talk and nowhere ate worse dinners than at Brillat Savarin's table." Possibly, the by no means classical gastronomic methods of Savarin were the outcome of a three-years' residence in this country, partly in Boston and in Hartford, Conn., where he earned a livelihood by teaching French and playing the violin in orchestras.

The remaining chapters of Dr. Thudichum's 'Spirit of Cookery' are devoted to an analysis of all culinary processes. He gives recipes, or what he calls "prescriptions," only when they are necessary to elucidate his meaning or emphasize his statements. A complete and valuable dictionary of culinary terms forms part of the volume, from which we take in parting one more quotation, namely, from the chapter on the "Qualifications of Authorship in Cookery." Our author says, speaking of women, that they "can cook very well, and ought to do so, and actually do so all over the world, but that the greatest amount of practice is not capable by itself to produce the truly philosophical qualifications which are essential to effectual authorship. A collection of recipes, even such as that of Cato of Utica, has no philosophical character, however meritorious it may be as a means of conservation, and however useful it may be in the limited circles to which it appeals."

To criticise 'The Century Cook Book,' by Mrs. Ronald, as a mere collection of recipes, would not be wholly just. It is more than that. Typographically and pictorially it is the most attractive book on cookery so far published in this country. In these directions it marks an immense advance upon its predecessors. The merit of the illustrations resides in the fact that they are process reproductions of photographs of the dishes, utensils, and table decorations described in the text. Apart from the recipes, which are lucidly explained, the book contains much other matter that will prove invaluable to inexperienced housekeepers unexpectedly confronted with problems inseparable from modern social functions. The "New England Recipes" and "Distinctively Southern Dishes," however, are disappointing.

Mrs. Gesine Lemcke, author of 'European and American Cuisine,' is known as a very competent and successful teacher of cookery. This should inspire confidence in the collection of recipes of which her book is composed. The day for absolutely original formulas in the preparation of aliments is passed. All that can be hoped for is that conservatism will not be abandoned in the search for the unattainable. Mrs. Lemcke is to be commended in that she has strictly adhered to classical traditions, and an intelligent and exact interpretation of her recipes can hardly fail to be productive of satisfactory results.

Mr. Murrey's cookery books, now gathered into one volume, have from time to time appeared in separate covers. Their success may doubtless be attributed to the simplicity of the recipes and the ease with which they may be concocted. His collection is one that appeals especially to amateurs.

'Francatelli's Modern Cook,' of which we have the twenty-sixth edition, is a standard work of recognized value. It is more suitable, however, for use in large establishments than in private houses, except such as are provided with exceptional culinary equipments and in which cost of material need not be considered.

British Birds. By W. H. Hudson, C. M. Z. S. With a Chapter on Structure and Classification by Frank E. Beddard, F.R.S. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895. Crown 8vo, pp. xxii, 363, with 8 colored and 8 plain plates, 100 figures in text, and 3 photographs.

Wild England of To-day and the Wild Life in It. By C. J. Cornish. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xvi, 310, with 16 plain plates from drawings and photographs.

Books on British birds are extremely numerous, British ornithologists are sharp critics of one another, and one who now adds to the number of systematic treatises must compete with such standard works as Newton's fourth edition of Yarrell, and those of Henry Seebohm, R. B. Sharpe, J. E. Harting, and Howard Saunders, unless he is content to occupy a more distinctively popular field. Mr. Hudson's work is systematic, in a proper sense, having the merit of simplicity and directness in treating the life-histories of all the species which are residents or regular visitants in the British Islands, with entire subordination of the technicalities to the main object he has in view, viz., of furnishing readable and reliable biographies. The book is compact, of convenient size, handsomely printed, very fully illustrated with neat and telling pictures, and thus well suited to the requirements of most readers. Beddard's excellent preliminary chapter furnishes all that they need to know of structure and classification in order to use the work with profit and pleasure. Mr. Hudson writes well, and there is every probability that the struggle for existence in this case will not be a hard one.

The qualifications of a bird to be considered "British" seem to be peculiarly subtle and delicate, if we may judge by the ardor and even acrimony with which they have been discussed in many cases, to an extent of controversial writing which seems to us out of all due proportion to the importance of the point at issue. The theory or unwritten law would seem to be that every known bird must be either a British bird or some other sort of a bird; woe to the impious author who fails to admit every one of the former to full communion, and out upon him whose fellowship is with any one of the latter! Mr. Hudson must have felt the full force of this dilemma, as he adjusts his introduction to the seriousness of the case. The British Ornithologists' Union's List, whose canonical character is indisputable, enumerates 376 "British" species, of which 211 are residents or regular visitants, and 165 are qualified as "occasional visitants." Mr. Hudson thinks that of these 165 about 55 or 60 "deserve that description," since they actually visit the British Islands at irregular intervals, but that "all the others are accidental stragglers." Referring to Seebohm's total of 222 species, as the number "fairly entitled to be considered British," he demurs a little, and would say that "in round numbers there are 200; at the very outside, 210." His criticism of what may be called the ragged edge of British ornithology is couched in the following terms:

> "It has long been the practice of our ornithologists to regard as 'British' any species of which one specimen has been found in a wild state within the limits of the United Kingdom. As a result of this excessive hospitality we find in the list about 43 species of which not more than three specimens have been obtained; in a majority of cases only one. We also find that there are not fewer than 45 exclusively American species in the list. . . . It is highly probable that some of the American, Asiatic, and European waifs that have been picked up in these islands were birds that had escaped from confinement; but whether brought by man or borne on the wings of the tempest to our shores, the fact remains that they are not members of our avifauna, and the young reader should clearly understand that only by a pleasing fiction are they called 'British.'"

On this understanding Mr. Hudson proceeds with his biographical sketches of some few more than 200 species he considers indisputably British, while his conscience allows him to mention but not describe the irregulars and even the tramps or ticket-of-leave birds. Perhaps some future author will discover or invent a means of alleviating the distress of these unfortunates. The worst of them might be gazetted as incorrigible, and the best of them brevetted as British, or invested with that sort of "honorary citizenship" which Gätke has conferred upon so many of his feathered friends in Heligoland.

Mr. Cornish's handsome volume consists mainly of papers which appeared first in the *Spectator;* but they have been rewritten to some extent, and others have been added to the original series. It belongs to the large class of "outing" books which, when well written, are sure to find many interested readers, for whom the aspects of nature, and especially of animated nature, have irresistible attractions. The chapters are grouped in what seems to the author to be their natural order, "as they deal with larger or smaller areas of wild England of the same type," but have no necessary sequence, each being a picture in itself. Bird life is prominent in most of these scenes, and forms the subject of most of the illustrations. "'Kiting' on the Downs" introduces something so novel, to an American at least, that one must read the chapter so headed to discover that it is a method of shooting partridges when the birds rise so wildly, and are likely to fly so far, that an artificial kite, resembling a bird of prey, is flown over them to scare them into lying close, or make them drop into the nearest cover.

A main motive for the book appears to have been the question how wildness of scene and wild life have been so generally preserved in such a densely populated country as England. Some places seem to be self-protective in their ruggedness; others are preserved from change in the possession of great landed proprietors; but the conditions of the problem are almost as various as the localities themselves. Some tracts seem likely long to endure as they are now; but many others must, before a great while, be surrendered by nature into the hands

of art for eminently utilitarian purposes. Meanwhile, it is well that books like this one should portray so well, for a given period, the aspects of incessantly shifting scenes.

A School History of the United States. By Susan Pendleton Lee. Richmond, Va.: B. F. Johnson Publishing Co. 1895.

MRS. LEE does not flatter herself that her history will be adopted in Northern schools, but she hopes that it may not elicit "harsh criticism" from Northern readers. It will at least cause them no astonishment. A second and yet a third generation since the close of the rebellion may not reasonably expect a Southern text-book of American history to have any other motive than to justify American slavery, and secession and civil war in defence of slavery. The most that Mrs. Lee will commit herself to, respecting the "peculiar institution," is to say (p. 30) that when the United States came into existence, as afterwards, "the difficulty was to know how to get rid of it without perpetrating equal if not greater wrong.' These two "wrongs"—of slavery and emancipation—presently make a "right." On page 315 she wonders "that men so noble and chivalrous and women so pure and gentle and true as were those of the Southern States did not see more clearly the evils inherent in their system"; but adds that when these evils were pointed out by the abolitionists, "self-respect seemed to require that they [the Southern States] should insist on maintaining a right so constantly assailed," while the knotty problem of emancipation "made them more resolute to claim their constitutional right to continue and extend their domestic institutions in the southern part at least of all the new territory."

The rest may be easily imagined. All the old arguments, from Scripture and history, are adduced to divert the pupil's mind from the inherent sinfulness of slavery; the old blasphemy of evangelizing the victims of the slave-trade is again pressed into service, in spite of Mr. Bryce's pronouncing the evangelized blacks "in their notions and habits much what their ancestors were in the forests of the Niger and the Congo," and scarcely more fit for citizenship. The old euphemism glozes over the iniquitous and barbarous incidents of the long struggle for slaveholding ascendancy. Brooks's "chastising" of Sumner "was a most unfortunate affair," not in itself, but because it "stimulated evil passions everywhere" (p. 327). Throughout, it is the Northern wolf and the Southern lamb. The author's candor, which we will not dispute, cannot be relied on to tell the truth of history. The passage of the Nebraska bill is made to appear to have a national sanction because "at this time the Southern States were largely outnumbered in both houses" (p. 326); but the *Slave Power* was not outnumbered then nor so long as the Democratic party kept up the supply of Northern doughfaces—John Randolph's "white slaves." Helper's 'Impending Crisis' did not "threaten the Southern people with fierce punishment" (p. 336); it threatened only Southern *slaveholders*, in behalf of the far more numerous non-slaveholders, the class to which Mr. Helper himself belonged, and to which he especially appealed.

We shall say no more except by way of protest against the cant of charging 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' with being the medium of "slanders," "caricatures of Southern life," and "overdrawn statements" (p. 336). It is high time that this were stopped. Mrs. Lee is a Virginian, but she would not dare to print in an appendix Jefferson's arraignment of slavery in his 'Notes on Virginia.' Still less would she make room for the following authentic narrative of the awful atrocity perpetrated by one Lilburn Lewis, a son of Jefferson's sister. The place was Livingston County, Ky., near the mouth of the Cumberland; the date, December 16, 1811; the narrator, a clergyman who related the story to the Rev. John Rankin, a native of Tennessee, who published it, in his 'Letters' addressed to a slaveholding brother, in 1824. Lewis was a hard master, whose slaves frequently ran away. One, "an ill-grown boy about seventeen," "just returned from a skulking spell," had the misfortune to break a valuable pitcher at the spring. His master thereupon at night summoned all the slaves into the most roomy negro house, built a rousing fire and barred the door. Then, calling up George—

"He bound him with cords, and, by the assistance of his younger brother, laid him on a broad bench, or meat block. He now proceeded to whang off George by the ankles. It was with the broad-axe! In vain did the unhappy victim scream and roar. He was completely in his master's power. Not a hand amongst so many durst interfere. Casting the feet into the fire, he lectured them at some length. He whacked him off below the knees, George roaring out, and praying his master to begin at the other end! He admonished them again, tossing the joints into the fire. He again lectured them at leisure. . . . And so off the arms, head, and trunk, until all was in the fire. Still protracting the intervals with lectures, and threatenings of like punishment in case of disobedience, and running away, or disclosure of this tragedy."

Incredible? slander? caricature? Well, here is confirmation of it in two recent events at the South, in the same month, but in two widely separated regions. On October 16, 1895, while the South Carolina Constitutional Convention was wrangling over the amount of negro blood—whether less than one-eighth or none at all—that should be allowed to intermarry with pure evangelized white, this was what was going on in Braden, Tenn. One Jeff Ellis, a black man who had assaulted, without killing, a seventeen-year-old white girl, was snatched from the authorities by a white mob. We quote the New York *Herald's* despatch (issue of October 17):

"Ellis was . . . taken to a point about 150 yards from the . . . house [of his victim], where a huge fire had been built, and told to prepare for death. A . . . man pushed through the crowd, brandishing a knife, and yelled, 'Kneel down and pray, you dog; I'm going to cut off your ears.' The negro knelt, but did not pray, and the man began cutting off his right ear. . . . Then members of the mob yelled, 'Give me his other ear!' 'I want a finger!' The negro's other ear was severed from his head, after which each of his fingers was cut off. He was then mutilated in a horrible and unmentionable manner. A member of the mob favored roasting the negro alive. . . . He was strung up to the telegraph-pole, . . . and while his pulse still faintly beat, he was lowered to the ground and decapitated with a pen knife. . . . The bloody head was placed in a sack . . . [and] sent to the family of a little girl living in Mississippi, whom Ellis [had] attempted to assault."

On October 29, 1895, at Tyler, Texas, Henry Hillard, a black man, assaulted and then murdered a white married woman, and a mob took him likewise out of the hands of the officers of the law. We quote again from the *Herald* (issue of October 30):

"It was unanimously decided to burn Hillard, and it was agreed that he should suffer his penalty in the public square in this city. Twelve thousand persons were assembled there. Large crowds of women and children were spectators. A scaffold was erected in the centre of the square, and kindling-wood, coal-oil, and straw were placed in position. The negro was lashed to an iron rail that extended through the platform, and Mr. Bell, the husband of the murdered woman, applied the match. The flames shot upward, enveloping the man in sheets of fire. He begged for mercy, but was not permitted to burn at once. The fire was frequently quenched, and, after the lapse of a few minutes, started again. From the time the match was applied until his death, was fifty minutes."

We owe an apology to our readers for printing, even with omissions, such horrible and sickening details. The collocation of these examples of the unchanged spirit of slavery will, we fear, appear to Mrs. Lee to be "harsh criticism." But—with a new application of Helper's flout at 'Uncle Tom's Cabin'—"it is all well enough for women to give the fiction of slavery; men should give the facts."

Die Moderne Oper. Von Ferdinand Pfohl. Leipzig: Carl Reissner.

HERR PFOHL, one of the best-known and most talented of the younger German writers on musical topics, has chosen for his latest volume the title of Dr. Hanslick's most popular book; but that, apart from the clear and vigorous style, is the only thing the two works have in common. Whereas Hanslick discusses the famous operas written between the time of Gluck and Wagner, Pfohl devotes most of his four hundred pages to operas composed since Wagner's death. From one point of view, accordingly, the operas which he discusses are more modern than those analyzed by his predecessor; yet it is safe to say that ten years hence Pfohl's volume will have a merely historic value, as an instantaneous photograph of transient phenomena, whereas Hanslick's will remain useful as a guide to operas which, as works of genius, will continue to be "modern." Pfohl's list includes the names of Nessler, Brüll, Abert, Heuberger, Meyer-Helmund, Kaskel, Reinecke, Arensen, Erlanger, Ritter, H. Hofmann, Neitzel, Chabrier, Messager, Mascagni, Leoncavallo, Franchetti, Tasca, Puccini, Catalani, Goldmark, Tchaikovski, Smetana, Cornelius. Of all these, it is to be feared that only the last four have been able to endow some of their works with the quality of "immortality," even in the ephemeral operatic sense of that word.

Our author is under no illusions regarding the transitoriness of the fame which he is chronicling; nor, perhaps, would he contend that the remaining modern opera-writers whom he has reserved for a second volume—Rubinstein, Draeseke, D'Albert, R. Strauss, F. Weingartner, etc.—would materially modify the general verdict. Indeed, he distinctly admits that "the music drama of Wagner constitutes modern opera," and that in Germany, at any rate, there is no modern opera apart from Wagner. Nessler, Brüll, Reinecke, and others have indeed attempted, not without transient popular success, to write non-Wagnerian operas, but Herr Pfohl cannot, with the kindest of intentions, find much besides melodic commonplace and cheap sentimentality in their works: "The German composers who undertook to write popular operas were either wrecked in the shallows of triviality (like Nessler) or they were dashed to pieces against Wagner, like ships whose bolts and nails were drawn out by the terrible attraction of the magnetic mountain."

There is hardly a page of Pfohl's book in which this fatal power of the Wagnerian magnet is not brought to mind. "Wagner," he

declares, "is the oxygen, the atmosphere in which modern opera breathes." Goldmark's "Queen of Sheba," for instance, "succumbs to the powerful Wagnerian attraction," while on his "Merlin" "Wagner's style has exerted a positively fatal influence." In Messager's "Two Kings" the whole first act "stands in the constellation of 'Die Meistersinger.'" In Chabrier's "Gwendoline" "whole passages from 'Tristan' and 'Götterdämmerung' could be easily pointed out." Indeed, of all the French composers "Bizet alone speaks his own language." In Tchaikovsky's operas, too, we meet friends from Bayreuth. As for the "young Italian school" and its German imitators, their operas simply bristle with Wagnerisms. Even Verdi, whom Pfohl considers, next to Wagner, the greatest and most interesting dramatic composer of this century, has had to pay his tribute to Wagner. In his early operas the drama was a mere side-show and the aria was everything. No matter what the hero and heroine do—whether they make love, or quarrel, or die, or polish their finger-nails—they always do it to the tune of an aria. Far otherwise the later Verdi, after he had learned from Wagner that "the play's the thing." In his "Otello" and "Falstaff" the music follows the words and the action as conscientiously as it does in Wagner's last dramas. "Verdi," exclaims Pfohl, "understands the art of ever learning without ever being a pupil. He has learned much of Wagner; the freer treatment of discords, the richer harmony, the glowing orchestral coloring, the modern melodic style of his 'Aïda'—all these he owes to Wagner. And yet, in thus learning, he did not give up his individuality: for that his personality is too strong."

In saying that "among the younger composers of Italy Verdi stands like a giant among pigmies, like a musician among music-makers, like an artist among artisans," Herr Pfohl tersely sums up his opinion of the new Italian "school" of opera concerning which there was so much ado a year or two ago. If he devotes his longest chapter to this so-called "Veristic" school, it is only because of the great vogue which these trivial and vulgar little operas had for two or three seasons, eclipsing for a time even the standard favorites, Wagner included. Pfohl does not attempt to belittle what was really good in this alleged new operatic movement, especially in Mascagni, its originator. This composer's merits are brevity, a disregard of conventionality, eclectic ingenuity in appropriating the effective elements of various national styles (*à la* Meyerbeer), and an undeniable dramatic *verve* in some situations. But these are more than counterbalanced by his shortcomings and vices. He has little melodic originality, but attempts to secure the appearance of it by means of odd, ungrammatical harmonies. He is ignorant of the art of symphonically developing a theme, and called his most popular piece an "Intermezzo sinfonico" without a shadow of justification, since there is absolutely nothing symphonic about its style. Though pretending to write operas, he indulges in trivialities which the popular operetta composers would be ashamed of, and there is something comically hysterical in his fondness for superlatives and unexpected explosives, "like bombs bursting in a bed of flowers." Though not without talent in instrumentation, his treatment of the brass is brutal and ignorant. His second opera, "Amico Fritz," is somewhat more refined than the "Cavalleria," but his third, "I Rantzau," is devoid of all originality.

The greatest harm done by Mascagni was this, that the extraordinary success of his first opera called into being a host of imitators in Italy and Germany — composers eager to "write after recipes of success." All their operas seemed to be "written with a dagger." Their eternal theme is adultery, jealousy, and murder, and their music is equally brutal. The writers of these operas called themselves the "Veristic School," under the ludicrous delusion that only vulgar, coarse feelings are true to life. Possibly these writers were aware that to refined people refined emotions are as "veristic" as coarse feelings are to the vulgar; but the latter happening to be more merchantable, they took only peasants, clowns, assassins, and libertines for their operatic heroes. Probably the most detestable of all these works is the one which ranked in popularity second only to "Cavalleria"—Leoncavallo's "Pagliacci," the extraordinary success of which Herr Pfohl justly characterizes as a disgrace to Germany. Not only is it essentially vulgar and disagreeable, but there is not a single original musical idea in the whole score.

Summing up his conclusions on the "Veristic School," our author declares it to be "a degenerate form of modern art," and prophesies its speedy disappearance—a prophecy which is already practically fulfilled. Again Herr Pfohl exclaims, "Modern opera, apart from Wagner's art, is an empty word, a phantom. It does not exist." He excepts, however, in other chapters, the works of the German Cornelius and the Bohemian Smetana. Both these masters were ignored during their lifetime, but now their operas are coming forward more and more. The chapters on these two masters, with that on Verdi, are the most valuable ones in Pfohl's book, the chief lesson of which, however, lies in its demonstration of the extent to which all modern operatic art is saturated with Wagnerism. He aptly points out that if Wagner's imitators have failed to achieve success, this does not prove the incorrectness of his principles any more than the inferiority of a new kind of rifle would be proved by the failure of a blind man to hit a mark with it.

It must be said that Herr Pfohl wastes rather too much space on operas which never had the faintest chance of living more than a season. He apologizes for this on the ground that to young composers the failures of others are quite as instructive and suggestive as their successes. Young composers will also find a number of useful miscellaneous hints scattered through these pages. Attention may be called especially to page 9, where our author discourses on the folly of supposing that the sonata form is eternal, and to page 156, where the translators of opera texts are belabored for their extraordinary folly in habitually sacrificing sense, accent, and rhythm to the silly kling-klang of rhyme, which is utterly useless in music. "A rhythmically arranged, poetically inspired prose is and remains the best working material for a composer."

Our Western Archipelago. By Henry M. Field. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. 8vo, pp. xii, 250. Illustrated.

Alaska: Its History and Resources, Gold Fields, Routes, and Scenery. By Miner W. Bruce. Seattle: Lowman & Hanford Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 129. Ills. and map.

Dr. Field is a veteran traveller whose letters to a well-known religious weekly, from all parts of the world, have filled nearly a dozen little volumes and given pleasure to many readers. In the present instance the author made the widely advertised journey by the Canadian Pacific Railway to Vancouver, the round trip on the Alaska tourist steamer, and came home by the Northern Pacific, making a brief visit to the Yellowstone Park on the way. The book records his impressions of travel and personal experiences in a pleasant and readable fashion, though it contains nothing to detain a geographer, and is too subjective to serve as a guide-book. It is probable that the audience originally addressed by the papers now gathered into a volume, is not familiar with the numerous "tourist books" which have covered the same ground so many times in the last few years, and may have found profit as well as pleasure in the reading; but for most people the value of the book resides in the manner rather than the matter of the story and in the excellent illustrations.

The first impression of the reader who opens Mr. Bruce's book at the frontispiece, where a Samoan girl hugging a palm-tree is labelled "An Alaska Indian Girl," is decidedly uncomplimentary to the author. So transparent a trick can deceive only the most inexperienced, and the only mitigation resides in the fact that the Samoan girl is undoubtedly prettier than any Alaskan is likely to be. An examination of the text, however, shows that this may be useful in its way if due allowance is made for a "reportorial" tendency to overestimate and exaggerate. Mr. Bruce has spent several years in Alaska, and is an enthusiast who takes the most optimistic view of everything in the Territory. The book is intended apparently for sale to tourists and as a guide to parties bound for the Yukon placers. There is a fairly good account of the route, with some excellent "process" reproductions of photographs and sketches of the portage, and a useful map. A chapter is given to the introduction of reindeer, with which enterprise the author has been personally connected, and another to the boundary dispute. Although Mr. Bruce is decidedly over-sanguine in many matters, and neither his history nor his ethnology is above severe criticism, it may at least be said that his book is measurably free from the errors into which some others of its kind have fallen as to recent matters of fact. The illustrations, from a variety of sources, are very good, and the book is well brought out, though it would be the better for an index.

Patriotic Citizenship. By Thomas J. Morgan, LL.D. American Book Company.

The object of this book, as the author declares, is to stimulate patriotism and promote good citizenship. Probably he regards these phrases as synonymous; but, taking his definition of patriotism, it is impossible to accept this view. It is one thing to awake and strengthen a love of country in the sense of "an enthusiastic devotion to American institutions"; it is quite another thing to stimulate citizens to discriminate between good and bad institutions and laws. So far as we have been able to discover, Mr. Morgan is prepared to accept the motto, "My country, right or wrong," as containing the whole duty of the citizen. It is true that he says that "patriotism, to be fruitful, must be intelligent," and adds some platitudes of similar purport; but the body of his work is composed of incitements to emotion at the sight of the American flag, at the report of military achievements, and at the contemplation of the magnitude of our land. Patriotism,

he tells us, is to be cultivated by visiting the national capital, Niagara Falls, and noted battlefields; by the singing of national songs and the reading of patriotic utterances. Americans have especial reasons for loving their country because "the territory occupied by the United States is continental; its shores are washed by the two great oceans; its mountains, plains, lakes, and rivers are among the most magnificent in the world; it has great diversity of scenery and climate, has boundless resources, and can support in comfort, even luxury, a population of many hundred millions."

It is impossible not to ask, upon reading such precepts in a book intended for the young, "What shall it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul?" If the private morals of a people are dissolute and their government corrupt, it matters little that every prospect pleases. The only legitimate ground for patriotic pride is to be found in character. If the American people are virtuous in their lives, if they select upright rulers, and maintain justice between man and man and between their own and other governments, then we may heartily thank God, and sing patriotic hymns, and listen to patriotic utterances; otherwise, fasting and humiliation more become the good citizen. So with devotion to American institutions. We have some good ones and some bad ones. Some of the good ones are perverted, and all of them tend to be unless they are incessantly defended. It is essential to good citizenship—to true patriotism as distinguished from false—that the moral standard in national feeling should be supreme. We need apprehend no foreign attack upon our government, no outside interference with our institutions. No stain will spot our flag unless put there by our own hands. It will never lack defenders in any cause, whether honorable or dishonorable, and if it is exalted into a sacred emblem, it is thereby degraded into a fetish. The notion that the national welfare is promoted by encouraging blind enthusiasm at the sight of the flag, and by penal laws compelling its display on every school-house and public building, is nothing but mischievous humbug. It is a device of the politicians to distract attention from the need of reform. It serves the same purpose that a foreign war has often served in the case of despotic misgovernment. No one can seriously maintain that boys taught in school-houses over which a flag waves will make better citizens than those elsewhere instructed. We doubt if even Mr. Morgan believes that the character of the legislators of New York, for instance, is perceptibly improved by hoisting the American flag over the Capitol at Albany.

As to the method in which Mr. Morgan inculcates patriotism a word may be added. His book is in the form of a catechism, the questions and answers being of his own writing, but supplemented by voluminous quotations from a large number of writers, some of whom must be surprised to find themselves in such company. Many of these quotations are excellent, in both sentiment and expression; many are commonplace and without literary quality. Mr. Morgan attempts, in addition to teaching patriotism, to present the leading facts in American history, as well as much other information on social topics, in this catechetical form; but we do not think that he has succeeded well. He has tried to do too much, and he does not appear to us to be qualified to discuss in an edifying manner the subjects with which he deals. Upon the whole, we must say that we are altogether unable to share the author's opinion that his book is adapted for use in public and private schools, in families, and in reading circles, and that it "may be studied profitably by any person, native or foreign-born, who wishes to know the significance of the flag and to understand the privileges and responsibilities of American citizenship." We should regret to see it employed for any such use, and should regard it as a waste of time for any person to study it at all.

Hedonistic Theories, from Aristippus to Spencer. By John Watson, LL.D. Macmillan. 1895.

Dr. Watson has a swift pen. It is not many weeks since we were studying an abstruse treatise by him; and now, almost upon the heels of it, comes another. Are they turned out by machinery? He should remember that there are other philosophers to whom a student must allot some portion of his attention. In its general method this work is precisely like that of a hundred other products of the Hegelian and semi-Hegelian schools—namely, it examines what has been said by writers with scientific affiliations, and, by successive modifications, made separately, each one slight, endeavors to show that those writers have conceded the essential point in the idealistic contention.

Hedonism, the doctrine that pleasure is the sole motive to human action, is one of the old sects of metaphysics, as unscientific in the grounds of it as all the rest. Two features, however, recommend it as a scientific hypothesis. The first is its simplicity. The maxim called Ockham's razor, that a theory ought not to suppose the existence of things of a radically different kind from any that, upon other grounds, must be admitted to exist, if such a supposition can possibly be avoided, is not exclusively a nominalistic doctrine, but must be accepted by every scientific logician, be he nominalist or realist. Theories so suggested have a claim to be the first provisionally adopted; for should they not prove sufficient to explain the phenomena, the sincere endeavor to make them do so will, at any rate, bring to light the pathway to be pursued in modifying them. The other scientific virtue of hedonism is that its solutions of ethical problems are definite and can be compared with facts. It has, indeed, already been applied to many questions, public and private, and its practical effects have been uniformly salutary. Practically, then, it proved itself better than the legislation and conduct, based on mediæval and older ideas, that it replaced. But an hypothesis may be, as a matter of scientific method, proper to be adopted provisionally, without being in itself probably true; and there never was but one brief period, some forty years ago, when there seemed to be a fair prospect that rational thinkers might unite in the definitive acceptance of hedonism. At present the outlook is quite unfavorable for it.

Dr. Watson's arguments have a pretty uniform, machine-made character. Any one will serve as a specimen of all. When Bentham remarks that the intensity of a pleasure depends upon the special susceptibility of the subject, Dr. Watson argues that this is to admit that pleasure is relative to *the idea of* self, although Bentham would not seem necessarily to admit that there was any quite unitary self, and still less that *the idea* of such a self was an ingredient of pleasure. But, after allowing a few sentences to pass by, during which the last formula is allowed to simmer, the critic takes it up again, and now maintains that the virtual admission is that pleasure is the satisfaction of an *ideal self;* and presently urges that we act for self-realization. With this summary method of criticism one can conceive that a book may be written with speed.

Whether or not there is any contradiction between saying that man's motive is pleasure and saying that he acts for the sake of realizing his ideal self, is not made clear to us. The latter phrase seems to be vague, especially in reference to any calculation of precisely how a given neighbor of mine will act in a given contingency. We will not deny to it a certain value; but its value seems to be of so different a kind from that of the hedonistic formula that it is irrelevant to criticise the one from the standpoint of the other.

Dr. Watson does not seem to have received all the laudation he expected from critics of his former works; for, speaking of the Sophists, he says that they were not so bad as the modern reviewer, who, after a glance at the preface and table of contents, blames without stint a book which has cost its author years of labor. But, in fact, those who notice a book without much examination are apt to write favorably of it. What often happens is, that a reviewer, who has probably burnt as much oil as the author over the subject of the book, spends much more time over it than can bring any recompense in instruction (and *a fortiori* more than he can otherwise be remunerated for) in his desire to treat a fellow-worker with generously measured equity; and if he blames it, he only does so in fulfilment of his fiduciary relation to his readers. He is not surprised to meet from the author, instead of acknowledgment, only petulance, exaggeration, insensibility to the requirements of justice, and naïve self-betrayal.

Two Seasons in Switzerland. By Dr. Herbert Marsh, R.N. With Illustrations from Photographs by O. Williamson. Dodd, Mead & Company. 1895.

People have written about the Alps in a great variety of manner, but we venture to state that Dr. Marsh has struck out a new line. As it is not likely that he will find many imitators, we may as well indicate the nature of his individuality. It consists in a frank disregard of the restraints which most authors put upon themselves in matters of style. Dr. Marsh takes the public into his confidence as though it were his bosom friend. If he wishes to write a paragraph of slang, he writes it without stopping to reflect that he is doing anything unusual. And such slang! On every page he speaks in two voices. One is of the sea, and with it he talks quarter-deck slang; one is of the mountains, and with it he talks mountaineering slang. Furthermore, he is a grammatical sinner. Like Robert Montgomery, his genius is too free and aspiring to be shackled by the rules of syntax. We wonder, as we pass from chapter to chapter, whether he will not tire of this unchartered freedom and condescend to write like other people. But the book closes without any tribute whatever to conventionality.

We subjoin a few passages which are neither better nor worse than the rest:

"This proved my last expedition at Zermatt, for next day I found I must give my foot a rest, and so became a fixture in the garden until the raising of the tariff on the 1st of July caused my sister and I to beat a retreat to Zinal."

"Immediately after leaving the shoulder we passed another party, though not until we had asked permission, of course, for the same etiquette prevails, or should do so, on a mountain as at golf, and presently stopped for a tot of wine and a biscuit, and by Führer's advice

left our axes, though I noticed he stuck to his own."

"At first we thought of descending on to the Col du Mont Rouge, but the rocks seemed very rotten, so we skirted along on the edge searching for a feasible route, and at last on reaching a tiny stream found a practicable gully, down which we slithered at a deuce of a pace, frightening a small herd of chamois feeding just below nearly out of their senses."

And yet Dr. Marsh, by reason of his enthusiasm—though not by reason of the looseness which he seems to consider a virtue—has succeeded in writing a book which is readable. An invalid lady once said to Augustine Birrell on laying down the 'Bible in Spain,' "I feel as if I had been gesticulating violently for the space of two hours." One need not be an invalid to feel out of breath after chasing Dr. Marsh over the Alps. We should never think of comparing him with Borrow in any respect save energy, but his energy is unexcelled. He rushes from one big mountain to another, scurries up, "cols" it, and so on to the next. We follow as fast as we can, but only to find that he is always in advance and singing that scornful refrain of the guides—

"Langsam voran! Langsam voran!
Damit der letzte Mann nachkommen kann!"

Dr. Marsh has the good taste not to apologize for his performance. It is the record of two summers' hard climbing and thorough enjoyment. Both the exercise and the enjoyment make themselves felt in spite of the untutored style to which we have referred. A few names will show that the mountains ascended were of the first class: Matterhorn, Weisshorn, Dom, Zinal Rothhorn, Dent Blanche, Bietschhorn, Grand Combin. Dr. Marsh is evidently fond of racing, and tells us what he can do. Four thousand feet in an hour and twenty-five minutes is a record which will stand a deal of beating. Athletically this may be a feat to boast of, but the true mountaineer—*e. g.*, Mr. Dent—is not so precipitate. Mr. Ruskin's charge against climbers, that they view the mountains in the light of greased poles, is not altogether untenable when restricted to such a particular case as the above. Yet Dr. Marsh survived, and was preparing to return to the Alps in the spring of 1894, when his plans "were completely upset by the following paragraph among the naval appointments: 'Staff-Surgeon H. E. Marsh to the *Northampton*.' So with a heavy heart I stowed away my axe, rope, and sack, and returned to duty."

Thus ends the book. It will never be placed on the same shelf with 'Peaks, Passes, and Glaciers,' 'The Playground of Europe,' and 'Scrambles among the Alps,' but it deserves to find readers among those who regard the Alps as the best open-air gymnasium in the world.

Das Liederbuch des Königs Denis von Portugal. Herausgegeben von Henry R. Lang. Halle a. S.: Max Niemeyer.

We cannot but lament that we must welcome this work of a Yale professor in German garb from the press of a German publisher. We should have been glad to think that at last the conditions of scholarship in America were such as to justify one of our own publishers in issuing a production of so true learning and so real value. Unhappily, our body-politic of scholars is still comparatively limited, both in numbers and in the variety of its interests. In only a few fields can we count upon a quick appreciation of the importance of every real contribution to knowledge that may appear. The Germans still have an immeasurable advantage over us in the range, if no longer in the thoroughness of their studies; and, despite our outcry against Germanism, it is hard to to see how we shall avoid going long to school to a people that can so truly say that its motto in scholarship has been and is, "Humani nil a me alienum puto."

The task which Prof. Lang has set himself is of decidedly greater significance than the title of his book would give us to understand. His main purpose was, indeed, to collect from the great Portuguese *cancioneiros*, in which the earliest lyric poetry of Portugal is preserved to us, the poems of the famous patron of poets, a poet himself, King Dionysius (r. 1279–1325), and to edit these with the care that modern scholarship demands. In accomplishing this the editor has fully justified his reputation as one of the most competent of living students of Romance philology. His text everywhere shows the exactness and range of his acquaintance with early Portuguese; and the philological apparatus which he subjoins is marked by entire competency. This is not the place for a minute study of this part of his work, or for a discussion of the many interesting questions he raises. Suffice it to say that he has given us a very valuable contribution to philological science. What we should like, however, briefly to bring out is that in this book and in these studies there is an interest beyond the mere specialist's in clearing up an obscure corner of his subject.

We must admit at the start that as poetry the verses of King Dionysius and of his fellow-lyrists are not very interesting. They sin above all in having for the most part but little to do with reality. To such an extent are they deliberate works of conscious art that they leave upon us the general impression of monotonous artificiality. Love is here, as in all lyric poetry, the chief theme, but love on such terms as to seem to us hardly love at all. We cannot avoid the suspicion that in reality these courtly versifiers differed little in practice from the slightly earlier Frederick II. in Italy, whose Sicilian harem did not prevent him from composing amorous appeals to an unnamed and misty *madonna*. Some feeling of resentment inevitably rises in us as we see the most interesting of the passions thus played with, used as a mere *corpus vile* for artistic experiments.

It is not, then, as being the adequate expression of certain human emotions and experiences that this early Portuguese verse is significant. Another source of interest must be sought in it; and this will be found in the fact that we can obtain from it most valuable evidence as to the manner in which the modern European world became the cosmopolitan world it is, and in which that body of sentiments, ideals of conduct, and imaginative forms out of which modern poetry as a whole has been largely made, came to be for all Europe essentially the same. The Portuguese lyric poets did not invent, they did not draw much upon their own experience; but all the more clearly for this very reason do they show us the influences that were at work upon them and their art. We are able to determine with exactness the sources of their ideas and of the diversities of the forms they employed for the expression of these ideas. And as students of the evolution of the material upon which the imaginative life of modern times has subsisted, we can find in them much of value, even where æsthetic enjoyment is reduced to a very low point.

There is no more interesting study, nor any more essential to a real understanding of the nature and value of all poetry, than this of the imaginative formulation of sentiment and conduct, which is the stuff of poetry. And it cannot be too insistently declared that for us moderns this formulation took place in the period of the Middle Ages. By this fact alone we are sharply parted from previous periods of the world—the classical, for example. Mill's famous statement that three-fourths of what is valuable in modern culture comes from the Greeks is of doubtful interpretation; but if Mill meant that the best of the moral and imaginative life of the modern world comes to us either through unbroken, though devious, descent from the Greeks, or from the study of the classics during the Renaissance, he was assuredly mistaken. In both these ways we undoubtedly have received much from the Greeks; but the fact still remains that in what is most fundamental in our imaginative lives—the forms of our feeling, the models which unconsciously we set for our emotions and our conduct, the modes of our expression—we are children of the Middle Ages, and not of Periclean Athens.

The beginnings of the evolution of the new forms of feeling and expression are naturally very obscure. They were certainly considerably later than the Germanic invasions of the Roman Empire, but also considerably earlier than the first signs of them we can discern. One thing is certain, that it was in France, north and south, that the first expression of them in art was attained. From the troubadours of Provence we get the first clear and conscious utterance of those ideals of life which distinguish the modern world, as well as the first settled models of modern poetic art. Northern France, however, quickly took up the cry; and during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries these countries set the pattern in these matters for the rest of Europe. Hence the supreme interest of Provençal and Old French literature for all those who would rightly understand the phenomena of modern society and modern literature. Innumerable traits in both are intelligible only to him who has gone to this period of origins; and any assessment of the value of these traits is impossible without this preliminary study.

Here, then, is a process every step in which is instructive. It is important for us to know both the history and character of Provençal and Old French poetry, and also the exact manner in which each of the other European nations received this poetry and adapted it to its own use. How much of it could each assimilate? How completely did each fall under the spell of it? What modifications of it did local traditions and conditions produce in each? These are all questions of moment. And it is in answering these and similar questions for Portugal that Prof. Lang has done us the greatest service. In his admirable introduction he has studied with fine and accurate scholarship the essential elements of the Provençal and Old French lyric poetry, and has shown to how great an extent these reappear in the verse of the Portuguese troubadours. He has noted both the characteristics and the deficiencies of the latter that seem to be due to the peculiar and national influences under which they wrote. The task was in some ways not so extensive as the application of the same method to literatures ampler and richer than that of Portugal. Nevertheless, Prof. Lang deserves the credit of having accomplished it with greater clearness and precision than any scholar has yet succeeded in attaining for any other portion of this great and interesting field.

College Sermons. By the late Benjamin Jowett, M A., Master of Balliol College. Edited by the Very Rev. the Hon. W. H. Fremantle, M.A., Dean of Ripon. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THOSE who have followed Jowett as the interpreter of Plato and Thucydides, as the expositor of St. Paul's letters to the Romans and the Thessalonians, and as the writer of occasional essays, including one of the most famous of the century (in 'Essays and Reviews'), will be glad to go with him along this bypath of his mind. Indeed, there is attraction here for many who have not been drawn to him by the energy of his severer tasks. Those who like sermons generally may find these little to their taste, they are so different from the common run of sermons. They are literary products, which sermons seldom are, and they deal with the realities of experience, which sermons frequently do not. So much would probably have been true of them under whatever circumstances they had been produced, but the actual circumstances of their production were extremely favorable to the qualities which they possess, namely, reality, simplicity, straightforwardness; good, honest dealing with the problems which were peculiar to the men addressed. For these were college men, Jowett's pupils at Balliol. No audience could be better calculated to force a preacher back on his reserves of absolute sincerity. It will stand no nonsense, no sentimentalism, no rhetorical effusion. Jowett recognized the situation, and adapted himself to it the more easily because he was to its manner born. "The language is as direct and simple as possible. Where a plain, short word will serve to express his thought it is always used. His only rhetoric lies in taking the shortest way possible to reach the understanding and the heart. . . . The peculiar charm and force were always the same, . . . the consciousness that each sentence expressed a genuine and original conviction." It is no wonder that the men who heard these sermons were urgent for their publication. It would seem that many other college men and young men generally, however indifferent to sermons ordinarily, must find something here to which their better natures will respond.

The absence of rhetorical effusion does not imply the lack of careful writing. "He was extremely careful, even fastidious, in the expression of his thoughts; and in this, as in every other part of his work, he gave himself incredible pains." To bring his manuscript to a perfection that would justify its publication was a painful business, and he shrank from the labor of revision. On one manuscript he wrote: "This is the eighth time I have tried to rewrite this sermon and failed." In the sermons as they stand, there are probably many expressions which did not satisfy his exigent ideal. Only those preached at Balliol are included. Others dealing with theological or more general questions and the characters of eminent men are reserved for another volume, but a foretaste of their quality is given here in every kind.

The Broad Churchman is particularly evident in the critical introductions to the sermons, which are so pleasant that wherever one is wanting it is distinctly missed. If much in these is from the common stock of modern criticism, all of them have the accent of the writer's individuality. They use without restraint the liberty demanded for the scholar in the celebrated essay of 1860 on the Interpretation of Scripture. Some of them, where the subject is peculiarly tempting, as when a text from Ecclesiastes opens into a general consideration of the book, are quite elaborate. There is no waste of time in wilful obfuscation, no putting of new wine into old bottles, or plastering of the new bottles with old labels, or disguising of their newness with ingenious dust and mould. The majority of the sermons are purely ethical, and their homely prudence may to some people seem lacking in elevation. There are sermons on "The Husbanding and Use of Money," "Study," "Conversation," "Eating and Drinking," "Going to Church." There can be no doubt that often the preacher looks into his own heart and writes. His sympathy with shyness and his returns to this subject impress us with the feeling that he must have suffered from this habit. There are generous tributes to Lewis Nettleship, John Addington Symonds, and others. He speaks of Symonds as one of the kindest men he ever knew. There are noble sermons on the history and function of the college. Sometimes, where theological questions are touched, we feel that Jowett is using language more symbolical from his side than from his hearers'. But in general the dealing with religious matters is extremely frank. In one sermon he exhibits what is defective in the liturgy of the Church of England in the clearest light, and has, moreover, a good word for "thoughts unruly" wandering from the service into private paths. Everywhere the tone is genial, kindly, earnest, sympathetic with real troubles and anxieties, and there have been few volumes of sermons published since Bishop Butler's that may be read with more pleasure and advantage.

The Beginnings of Writing. By Walter James Hoffman, M. D., of the Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution. With an introduction by Prof. Frederick Starr. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. 12mo, pp. xiv, 209. $1.50.

UNDER such a title as this, one might naturally expect to find a treatment of the earliest known vestiges of the graphic systems of the various languages whose sounds have been symbolized in written characters, or at least of the incipient steps in a process which has known many varieties. Undeniably the field is one of great difficulty as well as of great interest, and the number of those thoroughly qualified to accomplish the task of setting forth the matter in detail is exceedingly small. In many cases the "beginnings" are lost, and scarcely a hint of the course of previous development is given by that which has survived from a later period. In the case of the Egyptian hieroglyphs it is a curious fact that the earliest known writing of long texts in the pyramids of the fifth and sixth dynasties was more purely phonetic than at any later time, but the first steps of the development are lost or not yet discovered. The case is somewhat different with the Babylonian wedge-writing, since its seemingly arbitrary signs can be traced back to prototypes which are more or less clearly instances of picture-writing. The same is also true of the Chinese. We are not yet come to an understanding of the significance of the Hittite signs, but their form is certainly as pictorial as that of Egypt. The derivation of the graphic systems of the Hebrews is a matter of much uncertainty, and there are many and ominous gaps in the theory propounded by De Rougé of an Egyptian origin for the Phœnician characters. The ultimate derivation of the forms of Greek and Latin letters presents some serious difficulties.

But with these problems Dr. Hoffman deals only incidentally or in most meagre fashion. The little that is said is derived almost exclusively from Taylor's work on 'The Alphabet.' His interest is American ethnology, and his book deals principally with the pictured remains left by the Indian tribes of North America. Occasionally he illustrates his meaning or his thesis by an example taken from Oriental systems of writing, but, strangely enough, when he cites the hieroglyphs of Egypt, he has had the ill fortune to happen almost invariably upon signs which did not by any means belong to the period which for us constitutes the "beginning." His remarks, too, upon the significance of Egyptian signs are sometimes ludicrously mistaken or antiquated, and it would have been as well to omit them entirely.

The author's mistake was in giving his book a misleading and a too sweeping name. He might better have clung closely to the true theme of his volume, and then dealt, as he has done, with pictographs and their interpretation, with symbols, gesture-signs, and attitudes, with mnemonic signs and the growth of conventional signs, with comparisons and with phonograms, as these illustrate the subject announced in the title, without subjecting himself to needless criticism. At the same time he might have made a volume which would have constituted a distinct contribution to a dark subject. As it is, one feels that only the edge of the matter has been touched, and that even here the treatment is unsatisfactory. The transitions are violent, and the reader is jostled about from Alaska to Peru and from tribe to tribe in most unceremonious and uncomfortable manner. This results from an apparent lack of system, which leaves the reader without any very distinct impression as to the whole, but with a variety of sensations about the particulars. There is also a sort of cocksureness as to the meanings of collections of signs which provokes the question as to how the author knows so much, since he does not deign to explain himself. He evidently has a large fund of information, but he has failed to put it in a shape most available to others.

Life in the Tuileries under the Second Empire. By Anna L. Bicknell. The Century Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 279.

Le Journal de la Belle Meunière. Le Général Boulanger et son Amie. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: Brentanos. 12mo, pp. 525.

THE Napoleon fever would seem to have reached its last stages in recent publications concerning the Second Empire, and to have gone even a step lower when the reading public has thrust upon it a book about so grotesque a failure as Boulanger. Miss Bicknell's recollections of Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugénie have already made their appearance in the *Century Magazine*, and are quite up to the standard of current popular magazine literature. They are written in a flowing, easy style, and make the agreeable impression that one receives from the conversation of a well-bred person who knows the value of discretion. The view they present of the Emperor and of the Empress is the favorable one that would naturally be entertained by a loyal-minded inmate of the palace, who had daily occasion to observe their kind and considerate bearing to those about them, rather than their conduct as important public personages. That the book makes no pretensions to serious value may be inferred from the fact that the publishers, although fitting it out in a sufficiently sumptuous garb so far as paper, printing, and

binding go, have not thought it worth an index.

The little book about Boulanger is something of a literary curiosity. It purports to be an extract from the diary kept by the landlady of a small summer hotel at Royat, where Boulanger and his well-beloved made their home at various times between 1887 and 1891. It bears every evidence, however, of being what our newspaper slang denominates a "fake." A great part of it is taken up with descriptions of the love-making going on between a married man of fifty and a woman of thirty-two who is not his wife, but has a husband of her own somewhere. The descriptions might be in place in a French novel of the *fin de-siècle* type, but seem to an American reader in bad taste, especially when we are asked to accept them as emanating from a peasant woman who can hardly be supposed to entertain the emancipated views of a *boulevardier* or a dweller in the Latin Quarter. The book has neither a literary nor an historical value, although it is distended by the insertion of puerile extracts from French newspapers of the time. It is not even entertaining, and it is hard to guess for what purpose it was printed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Brooks. The Law of Civilization and Decay. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Adolphus, F. Some Memories of Paris. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Allen, Grant. The British Barbarians: A Hill-Top Novel. Putnams. $1.
Andersen, H. C. Ein Besuch bei Charles Dickens im Sommer 1857. Henry Holt & Co. 25c.
A New Alice in the Old Wonderland. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Baldwin, James. Old Greek Stories. American Book Co. 45c.
Baldwin, James. Fairy Stories and Fables. American Book Co. 35c.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. The Beads of Tasmer. New York: George D. Hurst. 75 cents.
Bates, Prof. Katharine L. A Midsummer Night's Dream. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Benjamin, Park. The Intellectual Rise in Electricity: A History. Appletons.
Birkbeck, W. J. Russia and the English Church during the Last Fifty Years. Vol. I. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Blackmore R. D. Slain by the Doones, and Other Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Brandt, Prof. H. C. G. Lessing's Nathan der Weise. Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Burke, Edmund. Reflections on the French Revolution. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
Burton, Prof. E. De W. The Records and Letters of the Apostolic Age. Scribners. $1.50.
Byerly, Prof. W. E. Problems in Differential Calculus. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80c.
Campbell-Praed, Mrs. Mrs. Tregaskiss: A Novel of Anglo-Australian Life. Appletons. $1.
Campbell, Prof. D. H. The Structure and Development of the Mosses and Ferns. Macmillan.
Castlemon, Harry. The Missing Pocket-Book. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Child, F. S. An Old New England Town. Scribners. $2.
Dasent, A. L. The History of St. James's Square. Macmillan. $5.
Dawson, W. J. The Making of Manhood. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Dembitz, L. N. A Treatise on Land Titles in the United States. 2 vols. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Dole, N. H. The Hawthorn Tree, and Other Poems. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
D'Ooge, B. L. Selections from Urbis Romæ Viri Inlustres. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85c.
Drake, S. A. The Campaign of Trenton, 1776-'77. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50c.
Drumgoole, W. A. The Heart of Old Hickory, and Other stories of Tennessee. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Ehrenberg, Richard. Hamburg und England im Zeitalter der Königin Elisabeth. Jena: Gustav Fischer.
Elmer, Prof. H. C. P. Terenti Phormio. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Fortescue, J. W. A History of the 17th Lancers (Duke of Cambridge's Own). Macmillan.
Garbe, Prof. Richard. The Samkhya-Pravacana-Bhasya. [Harvard Oriental Studies.] Boston: Ginn & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 28, 1895.

The Week.

A FRIEND of General Harrison's has explained why the ex-President was not able to give us a war with England in 1890. Such an explanation is, of course, intended to show that Mr. Harrison presides over foreign-missionary assemblies and conducts prayer-meetings only as a bit of by-play, and that he is really just the warlike and death-dealing candidate for the Presidency that the times require. If he is, why did he not jump at the chance of killing thousands of men, for the sake of thousands of seals, when it was so temptingly offered him five years ago? Well, says Gen. Harrison's friend, he was ready to jump; he was fairly aching for a war with Great Britain; and had fully made up his mind to have one, but he sounded the Senate first and found, to his deep disgust, that it would not back him up. So he had to retreat the best way he could, consent to arbitration, with its humiliating results, and sadly resign all the carnage and glory. This may be true, but the Bering Sea correspondence of 1889-'90 easily lends itself to another interpretation. On September 12, 1889, the British Government wanted to know if any more British ships were to be seized in Bering Sea. Two days later Mr. Blaine defiantly refused to give "a categorical response," and, by January 22, 1890, had worked himself up to a point where he spoke openly of "forcible resistance," to which the President felt "constrained." In due time came a notice that England would protest against any more seizures of her vessels on the high seas. This instantly changed matters, and Lord Salisbury was urgently besought to agree to a single closed season, and informed that the United States Government was most anxious to negotiate, and deprecated "untoward events." But Sir Julian Pauncefote insisted upon getting a "categorical response" about the seizures, and, when it was not forthcoming, left with the State Department on June 14, 1890, a formal notification that "her Britannic Majesty's Government must hold the Government of the United States responsible for the consequences that may ensue from acts which are contrary to the established principles of international law." After that all was peace and politeness, and arbitration was speedily arranged. On this war record we do not see how Mr. Harrison can hope to be elected President. Mr. Roosevelt would have had a war on the spot, Senate or no Senate, and international law be hanged.

Gen. Alger's reply to Senator Sherman's charge that he had bought the "poor negroes" in the Republican convention of 1888 may lack something of conclusiveness as to the main issue, but it shuts, or ought to shut, the Senator's mouth completely. Whatever may have been the facts, and whatever Senator Sherman may have thought about them at the time, he wrote a letter to Gen. Alger four years later in which he said: "I assure you that, since our interview on the cars last summer, I cherish no prejudice or unkindness for the incident of the national convention of 1888." He must have forgotten the existence of this letter when he wrote in his book in 1895: "I believe, and had (as I thought) conclusive proof, that the friends of Gen. Alger substantially purchased the votes of many of the delegates from the Southern States who had been instructed by their conventions to vote for me." How could he still "believe" this in 1895 of a man to whom he had written in 1892 that he cherished no prejudice or unkindness on account of this charge, which he then must have thought unfounded? The inference most flattering to Senator Sherman which people will draw is, that his powers are failing, and that he is a fresh illustration of what Rochefort says, at the beginning of his own recently published memoirs, that a man does not undertake to write his reminiscences until it is certain that he is good for nothing else. Meanwhile, the ease with which Gen. Alger spikes the gun aimed at him ought to encourage Gen. Harrison to come forward and refute the charge that he became President by signing himself away in advance as Platt's man.

The *Tribune's* citations of history are occasionally as peculiar as its political economy. It is deep in the mire on both at present, through its pathetically urgent efforts to prove that currency inflation has nothing to do with our present monetary complications. "The national policy of protection," the *Tribune* observed on Thursday, "kept the Treasury fortified with an adequate revenue and reserve down to the hour of President Cleveland's election." Did it? What, then, was the meaning of Secretary Foster's apologies, in his Treasury report covering the year ending June 30, 1892, for his failure to fulfil by $9,000,000 the annual requirements under the sinking-fund law? So far were the revenue and reserve from being "adequately fortified" in this period, before the nomination of Mr. Cleveland, that even the deficient payment of $40,570,000 for the sinking-fund was provided, not from the surplus of the year—this was only $9,914,000—but from $16,200,000 appropriated from a trust fund in the Treasury, and $14,400,000 taken from the surplus of other years. "If this demand [for gold]," wrote Secretary Foster again in his report for the year ending June 30, 1892, "should prove to be as large the coming year *as it has been for the past two years*, the gold in the Treasury would be diminished to or below the reserve line." "The past two years," it will be observed, exactly cover the period following the enactment of the silver-purchase law of 1890, "fortified" by the "national policy of protection" as embodied in the McKinley tariff act.

The simple truth is—and Senator Sherman understands it, whether his feeble echo in the *Tribune* does or not—that the financial ruin of the past five years is traceable unmistakably to the performances of that astonishing Congress. McKinley, Reed, and Harrison came into office with an overflowing treasury, inherited from the first Cleveland Administration. For a year before their accession, the Government had paid out $32,000,000 surplus in redemption of bonds not required by the sinking fund. What did the McKinley Congress do? It found the Government a great banking institution, dependent for its credit on limited outstanding obligations as well as on a sufficient revenue. It deliberately went to work, and by 1892 had cut down the federal revenue 13 per cent., increased expenses 23 per cent., and expanded demand obligations 20 per cent., imposing at the same time an annual increase, in the floating debt, of $50,000,000. The strongest private corporation would have gone to wreck under such amazingly reckless policy; it is hardly surprising that the Treasury was forced to ask the aid of bankers. In Government finance nothing parallel to this has been witnessed since the financiering of the French Revolution. The *Tribune* and Senator Sherman coöperated to encourage and applaud this labor of destruction. And yet to-day both have the audacity to affirm that "the intelligent national policy" which "fortified the Treasury," was reversed only by the election of 1892. A more monstrous piece of political hypocrisy our national history fails to show.

Touching the renewal of work on the Panama Canal, some facts were recently published showing that the French company in charge of it has 1,800 men now actively engaged, and is collecting 2,000 more from Jamaica and other West Indian islands, intending eventually to increase its force to 6,000 men. Information which we consider trustworthy is to the effect that the money to finish the work on the present plan has all been pledged, and that nothing can prevent the opening of the canal at the appointed time except accidents or obstacles not now an-

ticipated. The expectation of the managers is that the work can be completed in six years, *i. e.*, some time during the year 1901. This announcement has staggered the promoters of a Government subsidy for the Nicaragua Canal not a little, and their spirits will not be raised by the report of the Nicaragua Canal Commission. That document had been heralded in advance as an invincible argument for the subsidy. The *Herald's* telegraphed synopsis of it says that it points out "that it is neither practicable nor advisable to attempt the construction of the Nicaragua Canal upon the data at present available, and that the undertaking would be fraught with hazards too obvious to disregard."

The heads of the report are these: There ought to be a survey much more complete and thorough than any now existing, before the work is seriously taken in hand. Such a survey will cost $350,000 and will require eighteen months' time. With the data already in hand the Commission makes a provisional estimate of cost of $133,500,000, which is nearly double that made by the canal company itself. One of the differences of detail between the company's estimates and those of the Commission relates to the "rock-fill dam" on the San Juan to hold the lake and river of that name at a navigable elevation. The company estimated the cost of this dam at $977,273. The Commission puts it at $4,000,000, and says that the feasibility of it at any cost has not yet been demonstrated, since there have been no borings made of sufficient depth to show what kind of foundation the dam would rest on. This dam, it should be remarked, is the key to the whole enterprise. Until the feasibility of this dam is proved, the Commission would not advise the doing of any work other than that of survey. The Commission also finds that the entrance to the harbor at Greytown as proposed by the company is in the wrong place. It should be moved eastward a mile and a half, and the whole harbor should be dredged to a depth of thirty feet below low water. The entrance to the harbor at Brito, on the Pacific side, should be changed also. There is a lamentable want of detailed information all along the line, and particularly in reference to the rainfall and its effects upon earth-work, the height of rivers and lakes at particular seasons, etc. It appears that all plans have been based mainly on the Childs report of 1852, even the reports of the present Maritime Canal Company being in line with that of Childs, whose maps have been accepted without revision and published as those of 1885.

The Boston Home Market Club's dinner last week was attended by 500 strong and enthusiastic protectionists. Such were needed to sit through Warner Miller and Charles Emory Smith, and to live to tell the tale. While those sons of wind were speaking, Senator Frye was telling the York Club at Biddeford, Me., that he thought the woollen mills would hardly survive two years longer, but that they could not get any tariff relief within that period in any case. This makes it all the stranger that the Home Market Club did not have a lot of New England woollen-manufacturers present to demand a duty on wool at once. If what we hear is true, some such manufacturers were invited, but replied that they were quite willing to risk surviving two years, or even longer, under free wool. Many of them, moreover, are saying openly that if the Republicans want to cut their own throats, the most expeditious way to do it will be to go to ripping up the wool and woollens duties again. The business world cannot and will not stand it, they say. Senator Frye must have heard talk of this kind, and hence have refused to locate the Republican millennium anywhere within the "next fifteen years." But a millennium fifteen years off cannot prove a very powerful political motive with voters who know that half their number will be dead by that time. All true millenniums are due just after the next election. Ask Mr. Chauncey Depew about that.

The most encouraging thing about the recent municipal election in Baltimore is not the fact that a Republican was elected Mayor. There would be little gain to the people in the substitution of one party for the other if the new Mayor intended to run the government for the benefit of the Republican machine. The promising feature of the change is the apparent mastering, by the successful candidate, of the idea that the administration of public affairs in a great city is properly not a matter of party politics at all. In his inaugural address Mr. Hooper laid down these sound principles:

> "In my letter of acceptance I stated that my conception of the corporation known as the Mayor and City Council of Baltimore is that it is a corporation chartered by the Legislature of the State of Maryland for the purpose of conducting the municipal affairs of the citizens of Baltimore. I stated then, and I say now, that the Mayor of this corporation has duties similar to those of the president of any other corporation; that the members of the City Council bear a relation similar to that of directors in other corporations, and that the citizens are the stockholders. If this conception is a correct one, and I believe it is, then the affairs of the Mayor and City Council of Baltimore must be conducted on principles similar to those of any other business corporation. I know that this position has been and will be criticised adversely by many who do not take this view of municipal government, and yet I have at this time reiterated it, so that my platform will be clearly understood and my actions in the future be interpreted upon this basis."

Of course it remains to be seen how nearly Mr. Hooper will live up to this platform. But it is an immense gain to find a candidate for Mayor of a large city laying down such excellent principles in his letter of acceptance, and then emphatically reiterating these doctrines as the ones by which he will be bound, when he takes the oath of office.

The official canvass of the vote for this city shows that the first estimate, made immediately after election, as to the number of men who stayed away from the polls after registering was a great deal too high. Instead of being nearly 40,000, the actual number was only about 20,000. There were about 10,000 blank and defective ballots cast, and this fact was not disclosed till the official canvass was made. This accounts mainly for the mistake in the early estimate. As a matter of fact, the difference between the total vote and the registration was unusually small, showing that the interest in the election was maintained till the last. We shall have to admit, therefore, that Tammany carried the city on a square stand-up fight, and that they won because the respectable people of the city did not care to make the necessary effort to defeat them. The registration this year was 27,000 less than that of last year, and was fully 40,000 less than what it would be if the entire voting population were to register. Tammany always gets its full strength out, but even then it never musters much over a third of the voters of the city. This third wins because the two-thirds are too indifferent, or too partisan, or too lazy to combine in the interest of decent government and the good name of the city.

Mayor Strong revealed one of the chief beauties of Tammany government, in his speech at the Chamber of Commerce banquet last week, when he described the condition of our municipal buildings as disgraceful to our civilization and in many instances "detestable." That is the simple truth about them. As the Mayor said, the Tammany policy of Grant and Gilroy was to keep down the tax-rate in order to make the people content with Tammany rule. Accordingly all repairs were voted down, and the public buildings were allowed to go to ruin, until, as the Mayor said, "there is not a building in the city of any public nature that has not been neglected, reduced almost to absurdity." Not only have we a Hall of Records which is in danger of tumbling down, but we have our police and firemen lodged in buildings nearly all of which are literal death-traps, many of them being actually without fire-escapes; several of our court-rooms in which the City Magistrates sit are totally unfit for human habitation; of our charitable buildings on Hart's, Ward's, and Riker's Islands, as the Mayor said, "just one is fit to have a human being in it"; and the Tombs and Ludlow Street jail are in like condition. The Mayor estimates the necessary outlay in this direction alone at $3,000,000.

Some of the features of legislative reform reported to have received favorable consideration by the commission appointed by Gov. Morton are in successful operation in Connecticut legislative practice. It is the rule in that State that newspa-

per publication must be made, in advance of the assembling of the Legislature, of an intention to introduce any measure which might affect a particular interest, such, for instance, as a bill for a street-railroad franchise. During the legislative session advance notices of committee hearings on all measures are printed in a legislative bulletin, copies of which are accessible to all parties in interest. A further obstacle to snap-judgment is the legislative rule that all bills, public or private, which are favorably reported, must be printed, and that final action on any such measure cannot be had, except with unanimous consent, until a printed copy of the measure has been on the desks of the members for at least one legislative day. In addition, there is a printed daily legislative calendar, giving a list of bills and resolutions reported from committees, with the nature of the report, and with an announcement whether the bill is ready for action; and, finally, there is no way in Connecticut legislative practice to smother a measure in committee, as all matters, no matter how insignificant or foolish, must be reported by the committees in some form at some time. While these Connecticut legislative practices by no means prevent legislative evils, they are efficient, in the hands of vigilant observers of legislative procedure, to prevent snap-judgment.

There is nothing odder "in our midst" to-day than "the Woman's International Maybrick Association." Mrs. Maybrick, who gives her name to it, is confined in an English jail on a conviction for murdering her husband. The sentence was commuted, Judge Fitzjames Stephen (who tried the case) says in the recently published life of him by his brother, to imprisonment for life, on account of his opinion that it was not clear that the husband died of the poison the wife administered to him; but die he did. A number of women in this country have heard an appeal from the conviction, and have overruled the Judge, the jury, and the English Home Secretary, and have pronounced her innocent, and have now been laboring for years to procure her release. She has some connection with the United States, through her mother or other relatives. Therefore they say she ought to be released on the demand of a properly constituted American Association. But trouble has now arisen in the association itself. Unfortunately Mrs. Maybrick had a lover, and some of the stricter members of the association are unwilling on this account to testify in one of their resolutions to her "womanly integrity." The controversy on this subject is fierce and interesting. One of her champions insists that she might have a lover and "yet be in thought and purpose a clean-souled woman, and therefore possessed of the same womanly integrity common to the best women of the world." How is this? Until it is settled by the society one way or the other, we predict that the brutal English will never let Mrs. Maybrick out of jail. It is very foolish to complicate the question of her guilt or innocence of murder with the other question of the "cleanness" of her wifely soul. But truth will win in the end.

The Canadian copyright muddle is straightening out, if we may trust Mr. Hall Caine's assurances. He asserted on Monday night at Ottawa that he, in his capacity as envoy extraordinary of the English Authors' Society, had succeeded in persuading the Canadian Government to withdraw the obnoxious act of 1889, still awaiting imperial sanction. That law, compelling, like our own, simultaneous and separate publication in order to secure copyright, will not again, Mr. Caine says, be offered to the Canadian Parliament or sent to England for approval. In its stead a new measure is to be introduced, allowing foreign authors to secure copyright in Canada at any time within sixty, or, in the discretion of the authorities, ninety days after publication. Moreover, the right to publish a non-copyright book can be exercised only under a Government license, such license to be given to but a single firm, while, pending its issuance, the author is to have yet another chance to apply for copyright. It does not appear whether separate publication is to be required, but this seems probable, as Mr. Caine speaks of "concessions" which had to be made on both sides. Even so, the compromise bill will be a distinct advance over the old one in the recognition of literary property, and will probably suffice to keep Canada within the terms of the Berne convention.

One of the most remarkable events ever known in the financial centres of Europe was the tumble in stocks in the Berlin and Vienna Bourses on the 8th and 9th of November. It came like thunder out of a clear sky, the very best dividend-paying securities falling from 5 to 20 points, with few buyers even at the decline. The panic was caused by the political crisis in Turkey. It began on the Vienna Bourse, which, being the nearest to the scene of the expected conflict, would suffer most in the event of a general reopening of the Eastern question. Austria is now next neighbor to Macedonia by virtue of her suzerainty of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and there is no knowing what might happen there or in Servia and Bulgaria, which are also her near neighbors. When the panic struck Vienna, she sought to unload on Berlin. The two bourses are in such close touch that any breath of excitement in the one is communicated to the other immediately. The fall in prices was not restricted to the securities common to both, but ranged over the entire list in varying degrees. After scenes of excitement during these two days unparalleled during the past twenty years, the two bourses righted themselves and found that there was no harm done except a rather reckless transfer of property between individuals, where the losses and gains were presumably equal. The affair shows faintly what would be the consequences of a real European conflict. It must make a profound impression on the capitalist class, prompting them to use their influence more than ever to preserve the peace. War means the ruin of thousands and tens of thousands of men before the armies are mobilized, and even before a formal declaration is made.

The Sultan's letter to Lord Salisbury was somewhat pathetic, as coming from probably the last ruler of a race which has made a great figure in the world. But it indicates absolute helplessness and despair. Of course his "word of honor" to carry out the reforms is of no value, as he has not the power, even if he has the will. Turkey is perishing for want of a decent official class more than anything else. The Mussulman peasantry are a stalwart, honest, simple-minded race, who make some of the best troops in the world when well led, but the supply of respectable officers for the army as well as for the civil service has been steadily declining for two centuries, and, as it declined, the boundaries of the empire have receded. The truth is, that the class from which public servants are usually drawn is in Turkey ruined by the harem. Its men are worn out or have their characters wrecked before they are twenty-five, and the sovereign is seldom much better than they are. Mahmud II., who exterminated the janizaries, is the only man of real vigor the Turks have had since they were defeated before Vienna. The others have been feeble and suspicious tyrants. Of late years, since Europe began to meddle in their affairs with a strong hand, they have been gentle, capricious, childish, and delicate. The present one is no better than his predecessors, in spite of Lord Beaconsfield's ludicrous eulogy on him after he brought back "peace with honor" from Berlin. Lord Salisbury made some remarks after reading the letter, which, however, held out no hope of an immediate interference. In the meantime there is but cold comfort for the Armenians who are being massacred, in the reflection that their fate is likely, in the long run, to bring down the vengeance of heaven on their oppressors. Lord Salisbury's philosophic observations on this subject at the Lord Mayor's dinner must have sounded humorous even to a man whom the Kurds were preparing for death. Considering the accounts which are coming in from Armenia, the general accuracy of which is not denied, the remedial movements of the fleets about Salonica are really droll. But the truth is, no power can do anything but threaten the wretched Sultan except Russia, and she is doubtless biding her time.

THE COMING SESSION.

Gen. Henderson, the veteran Republican ex-Congressman from Illinois, is reported as saying that if any financial recommendations should be made by the President in his coming message, they ought to receive prompt consideration and action, even if they do not altogether correspond with Republican ideas of currency reform. "The country," he thought, "should be regarded first and the party afterwards." He thought, also, that it would be unwise and a mere waste of time to attempt tariff revision during this Congress.

In the same tone and temper as Mr. Henderson's remarks is an editorial article in the leading Republican organ of Iowa, the *State Register*, which says:

> "The Republicans will have a large majority in the House, where legislation of the most vital character must originate. The Senate is neither Republican nor Democratic. The Populists hold the balance of power there, and above either house of Congress stands a hostile President. Under the circumstances the Republican members must carefully guard their legislation. They must show to the country that they are wise, conservative, constructive, and patriotic in their legislation. . . . Republicans will serve their party best by serving their country first and above all."

These words of caution are directed against the tariff extremists and also against those who would precipitate the country into needless foreign complications. What the Republican party needs now is to avoid anything that can disturb the *status quo* as regards the tariff. If they are content to drift with the tide, their prospects of reaching the haven of their desires are bright.

There is one question, however, referred to by Gen. Henderson that will not wait for solution. It is the question of currency reform. The gold reserve is again running down, and it may soon reach a point where another bond issue will be necessary. To stand back and rail at the bankers, and shout that something else ought to be done, is of no more avail than to push with one's hands against a glacier or to blow with one's breath against a tornado. The Secretary of the Treasury has no option to do this thing or that thing. The claims upon him are various and imperative and ceaseless. They roll and beat against him like the waves on the shore, and they will continue to roll and beat against his successor, whoever he may be and whatever party he may belong to. The first and most important of these is the payment of the Government's demand notes. Other claims may be postponed for a little; these cannot wait at all. Failure to meet them is bankruptcy.

No political party and no public man dares to face national bankruptcy. If the Republicans expect to elect the President next year and to take the responsibility of the national finances, they are more concerned in an early adjustment of them on a sound basis than the Democrats are. Mr. Cleveland and Mr. Carlisle can go on as they have done. They can sell more bonds, they can offer a higher rate of interest, or they can sell bonds below par. The only thing they cannot do is to allow the Government to go to protest. The law under which the last bond sale was made is ample for the purpose, so long as the Government has any credit at all, and the President will surely execute it to the last day of his official term, the objurgations of blatherskite newspapers and Congressmen to the contrary notwithstanding. These will pass by him like the idle wind which he regards not.

The export of gold from New York last week aggregated about $7,500,000. It is worth while to note that this heavy movement is going on in the face of the most strenuous efforts of the exporting bankers to avert it. The syndicate-bond contract expired nearly three months ago, and with its expiration ended all obligation on the part of the contractors to continue lart summer's expedients and "protect the Treasury of the United States against the withdrawal of gold." Yet the contractors have voluntarily united, ever since October, in continuing exactly the policy of last summer, and straining their foreign credit to postpone actual gold shipments. To this there had to be some end, as to all artificial expedients based on credit, and within the last week several firms have been compelled to satisfy their requirements in the London discount markets by gold remittances. As to the cause of this situation, nobody has now any excuse for doubt. Mr. Harrison's Secretary of the Treasury saw and officially described this working of currency inflation, as far back as 1891; the business community had it forced on their attention in 1892, in 1893, and in 1894; and the most powerful financial combination ever formed to withstand a law of nature failed, in 1895, to stem the current. There is not to-day even the somewhat confusing factor of a European demand for gold, which intervened in 1892. Last week's shipments went out at the normal export level of exchange. The business men, the bankers, and the administration have alike done all that human power can do to avert or palliate the mischief. To-day the logic of the situation points inexorably to the law-making branch of Government.

To argue, as some people do, for "voluntary resumption of gold payments" by both the banks and the Treasury, is as visionary as the meaningless aphorism of Horace Greeley in the older greenback days, that "the way to resume is to resume." The banks have at intervals, during the last three years, coöperated to supply the Treasury with gold in exchange for notes, and the Treasury's own balances of to-day show how little use there was in such "reimbursement." We have no wish, however, to indulge in further controversy on the subject. Our regret is that anybody should turn aside from the serious problem of the hour to deal with makeshifts and nostrums which are utterly impracticable in the eyes of all experienced bankers, and which would not constitute a permanent remedy even if they were practicable.

The real question, and the one which ought to be taken up at the coming session, is how to get the Government out of the banking business altogether. It is now evident that a shortage of revenue is not the whole of the difficulty which confronts us. The Treasury has a very large cash balance—much larger than its average of the years preceding the passage of the Sherman act of 1890—yet that does not prevent the drain of gold. The element of distrust is still active. Want of confidence still shows its paralyzing effect, notwithstanding good crops, increased railroad earnings, and all the usual elements and factors of prosperous times. It cannot be too strongly impressed upon the Republican leaders in Congress that if they expect to win next year, they ought to do something now to restore confidence in the currency. If they do not, their victory will turn to ashes very soon thereafter.

SECRETARY CARLISLE'S SPEECH.

Gratifying as it was, of course, in our present extremity to have such a speech as Mr. Carlisle's before the New York Chamber of Commerce last week, from such a source, it is impossible, from one point of view, to read it without a certain honest shame. That a Secretary of the Treasury, not in Carácas or in Managua, but in the second greatest commercial city in the world, should have to gather its leading merchants around him and lay before them, with earnestness and eloquence, a string of elementary truths which in all other great commercial cities are as familiar and as well established as A B C, is surely a little humiliating. If Sir M. Hicks-Beach were to get the London merchants together and say, "My friends, the Government ought not to try to do a banking business; it ought not to keep a large body of demand notes afloat as legal tender in time of peace, because such notes drive away the gold in which they are payable; it is ridiculous to be borrowing gold in order to redeem them and then issue them again; it is ridiculous to call them money when they are really only promises to pay money; bankers are not public enemies, but necessary agents in the distribution and exchange of products; they are dependent for their prosperity on that of the community; it is the stability of our currency which makes London the financial centre of the world; the nature of the currency should not be settled at each election, and there should not be one kind when the Liberals are in office and another when the Tories are in office; 'cheap money' is a ridiculous phrase, and financial 'crazes' unsettle business"—how long would the audience listen to such preaching? About ten minutes. What would they say to the

orator? They would say, "Sir Michael, we are astonished that you should summon us from our business to listen to such platitudes. You are anything but complimentary to our intelligence. Bye, bye."

Of course Mr. Carlisle's audience at the Chamber of Commerce dinner knew the speech was really not addressed to them, but to that immense public whose habitation begins about one hundred miles back from the coast and runs nearly to the Pacific, which pays so little attention to human experience that each generation has to learn everything about finance from the very foundations. A large portion of it never learn it without passing through two or three "crazes." In fact, to some of our people, "crazes" are nearly as necessary as measles or whooping-cough to children. They can never grasp financial principles till they have had one or two. And yet the leading and fundamental doctrines of finance are accessible to nearly every man, by merely questioning himself. Nearly all financial errors are based on the notion that the "other fellows" will be the easy victims of some sort of humbug. If a man will only ask himself, and answer honestly, the questions, "Which would I sooner have—gold or silver, or paper, for myself? Do I like to lend money without security that I can readily turn into money? Do I like to lend money without knowing exactly in what way my debt will be paid? Should I like to work for a salary the exact value of which at the end of a year would be uncertain?" a great deal of financial light will get into even the most darkened mind.

Secretary Carlisle exhibited a complete theoretical mastery of the subject he was called upon to discuss, and a facility of treatment which could not possibly be surpassed. It is seldom that those who have sat at dinner at Delmonico's for two hours, and have then listened to a speaker for half an hour, ask him to go on when he shows an inclination to stop, especially if the subject is the currency question. No tribute to the speaker's powers could be higher. Yet this is what happened when Mr. Carlisle was near the end of his discourse. Not only was the applause of the listeners hearty, but the demand that he should go on was nearly unanimous. It was possible to see, also, what chords struck by the speaker were most in unison with the thoughts of those whom he addressed.

First of all was the demand that the gold standard be preserved at all hazards, and that there be no more dodging and ducking, no more double-dealing in platforms and public speeches. Upon this point there was no dissent, but, on the contrary, an outburst of applause that was really vociferous. Not less hearty was the assent given to Mr. Carlisle's proposition that the Government was never intended to do a banking business, and has no machinery for doing it; that consequently it ought to abandon it at the first possible moment. Of course this means that the Government's legal-tender notes ought to be withdrawn, and that when once redeemed they ought to be cancelled and burned. That this was Mr. Carlisle's meaning he affirmed repeatedly and emphatically, and this opinion was emphatically approved by the audience. No particular method of accomplishing this result was sketched, but the general plan of leaving to the banks the business of furnishing a paper currency to the community was indicated, and this too met the views of the great majority of those present.

Now the question that comes to the mind of every thoughtful person, in view of what occurred at this notable dinner, is this: How will political parties divide on the question of taking the Government out of the banking business? Will the Republicans go one way and the Democrats another way, or will the line of cleavage run through both of them nearly in the centre? As there will certainly be differences of opinion, as there have been on the silver question during nearly twenty years, it is desirable that the division should run through both parties, so that neither of them should consider that its existence or its success depends upon the support of one or the other policy. The question ought to be treated as a business proposition in which Republicans and Democrats and men of no party are equally interested. There is nothing in the question which is necessarily more the concern of one party than of the other. It is a question of how the exchanges of the country, domestic and foreign, can be carried on with the least friction. It is hard to see how one party can have an interest in it different from that of the other, or how one can get the advantage of the other in dealing with it.

Yet it is to be apprehended that the Republicans will look upon the greenback as a "war measure," and will be inclined to resent any attempt to retire it as an attack upon one of the policies of the party. Senator Sherman must have thought that he was "striking the keynote" when he made his speech at Massillon a few weeks ago. Yet it is a fact in our history that the first vote taken by the Republicans after the close of the war on a financial question (December 18, 1865) was a vote to retire the greenbacks, and that it was nearly unanimous in Congress. It is a fact, also, that Secretary Chase, who has been called the Father of the Greenbacks, condemned them in the severest terms from the bench of the Supreme Court. His successors in office, Fessenden and McCulloch, were equally opposed to them, the former having voted against the legal-tender act in the first instance, and the latter having repeatedly urged their retirement after the close of the war. In short, more Republican authority can be found in opposition to Government legal-tender notes as an instrumentality of peace than in favor of them. The ground is open to any member of the party to take either side, and it is much to be hoped that reason and not war-cries may decide the question. It should be borne in mind, too, that whatever sacredness attaches to the greenback as a battle-scarred and blood-stained relic, no such reverence belongs to the later device called Sherman notes based on silver bullion, and likewise endowed with the legal-tender property. Nobody is committed in any way to that illegitimate brood whose issuance was the undoubted cause of the panic of 1893.

THE CONFIDENCES OF SENATOR SHERMAN.

THE morning newspapers of Thursday last contained interviews with Senator Sherman which are rather interesting by reason of his frank expression of opinion concerning contemporary statesmen. Among the persons thus favored are Garfield, Blaine, Harrison, Platt, Alger, and Elkins. These interviews read as though they had all been prepared from one copy, and had been afterwards trimmed by the editors to suit the columns of their respective newspapers. Thus, the stab under the fifth rib by which Blaine kept Sherman out of Garfield's cabinet is published in the *World* and *Tribune* in very nearly the same words, but the latter omits an unfavorable comment on Garfield that he had "a lack of moral steadfastness and depth of conviction." The essential facts in this matter, as stated in the interview, are that Mr. Sherman was Secretary of the Treasury under President Hayes, and was then engaged in refunding the national debt, and would have preferred to remain in that position until this work was finished, if not longer, and that Garfield was inclined to keep him there, but that Blaine made the suggestion to the new President that "it might be regarded as bad taste to select one of the Hayes cabinet without taking them all." Then the interview, as printed in the *Tribune*, continues:

> "This struck Garfield's plastic mind as right, and he spoke to me about it. I told him that I was not a candidate for the place of Secretary of the Treasury, and was perfectly satisfied to go to the Senate. This relieved him, but many people thought I ought to have remained at the head of the Treasury Department, at least until the refunding operation was finished. My election to the Senate was unanimous, but it was generally thought among influential Republicans until that time that I should remain at the Treasury, and that Charles Foster would have Garfield's seat in the Senate."

It was a matter of general surprise at the time that Mr. Sherman was not retained in the Treasury Department. So far from being a matter of embarrassment to Garfield to take one member of the Hayes cabinet and not to take all, it would have been the most natural thing in the world, because Garfield had headed the Sherman forces at the Chicago convention and had carried away the nomination for himself. This was an un-

expected result to both of them. It led to some feeling or belief that Garfield had intrigued against Sherman—which was not true. Garfield was not an intriguing man. He was morally weak and unsteady, but he was not a plotter and schemer. Under the circumstances he was bound by the rules of comity and good taste, if nothing else, to offer Mr. Sherman the best place in his gift, which was the one he already occupied. No other member of the retiring cabinet had any such claim, or any claim at all. Instead of being an embarrassment to retain Mr. Sherman and not to retain the others, the embarrassment was all the other way. It was awkward to dispense with Mr. Sherman's services. It was very hard to find a man to take his place. This difficulty was finally solved by choosing Mr. Windom.

The plasticity of Garfield in this matter was not more characteristic than the adroitness of Blaine. The latter had been a candidate for the nomination which fell to Garfield, and "once a candidate always a candidate." This was true of both Blaine and Sherman. Blaine thought his future prospects would be improved by keeping Sherman out of the cabinet. Hence the cunning suggestion to Garfield that he might avoid embarrassment by not retaining Sherman as Secretary of the Treasury.

Among other confidences imparted by the Senator in his interview we are told that, at the convention of 1888, Steve Elkins "had in his pocket a written promise from Mr. Harrison engaging that ex-Senator Platt should control the federal patronage of New York State in case of his nomination and election. That may have had something to do with it [meaning the sudden turning of the vote of New York to Harrison]." How this came about is stated in the interview as follows:

> "I was in close touch with everything that happened during the convention of 1888. The famous dinner of the New York delegation was given Saturday night, and the delegation then voted to swing their strength to my column. It is Mr. Miller's recollection that there was no change in this attitude until after the diners had separated. Some time during Sunday, Elkins and other of Harrison's friends persuaded ex-Senator Platt and other men of influence in the New York delegation to go to Harrison for one ballot only. No one thought that this would be the decisive ballot. After it they were to join my column, and this would have nominated me. Gen. Harrison's friends did such efficient work with other delegations that the convention took the matter into its own hands and nominated Harrison Monday morning."

It is a pretty serious charge to make against a public man of Mr. Harrison's prominence and dignity that he gave a promise in writing beforehand that certain offices should be bestowed in exchange for certain votes. We think that unless some denial of this charge is forthcoming, there will be an unsettling of public opinion in reference to Elder Harrison—more especially since the public offices in New York *were* bestowed in exactly the way that such a bargain implied. The interview goes on to say that it was Platt's ambition to be Secretary of the Treasury (horrible thought!), but "I do not believe that the convention engagement carried any explicit promise as to a cabinet place. It undoubtedly went no further than the distribution of federal places in New York, and in that respect President Harrison stood to his bargain. He never seriously considered Mr. Platt's demand for the cabinet place."

INTEROCEANIC CANALS.

THE college magazines are performing valuable service in affording the men who can speak with authority opportunities for correcting the insanities of a portion of the daily press. The premonitory symptoms of one of these insanities, known as the canal insanity (*furor canaliensis*), are already making their appearance, and they find the patient in a very weakened condition, owing to three previous attacks of a somewhat similar malady. An article, therefore, in the last *Yale Review*, from the pen of Prof. Theodore S. Woolsey, on precedents relating to interoceanic canals, will do much good, not only in clearing the brains of our own people, but in showing foreigners that we still keep the lamp of civilization trimmed and burning. He anticipates a canal or canals across the Central American Isthmus as a certainty in the near future, and the problem he treats in his article is how to make it "a sure passage-way for the flags of all nations, unblocked in war, secure from the vicissitudes of semi-tropical politics." What he undertakes to show is, that "the neutralization of such a canal, under the guarantee of the chief commercial Powers, is the status most in accordance with precedent and history and our own policy."

We have ourselves dealt with this question in three treaties, one with New Granada, in which we guarantee perfect neutrality to a line of railroad across the Isthmus; a second with Great Britain, in which we guarantee the neutrality of any Nicaragua canal that may hereafter be constructed; and a third with Nicaragua, guaranteeing the same thing. In all of these we commit ourselves unreservedly to the principle of neutrality to be guaranteed by all nations. Now, this principle happens to rest on the reason of the thing. A waterway furnishing communication between two oceans or great seas, like the French canal connecting the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, may run through the territory of a Power like France, which owns both ends of it and also the banks; and the right of such a Power to control it—that is, to open or close it, and impose conditions on the foreign use of it—cannot be contested. But when it runs through the territory of a Power like Egypt, or Nicaragua, which could not itself construct it, and could not keep it open for a week against any leading nation interested in obstructing it, it can obviously be made of use to the world at large only by a general agreement not to obstruct it or allow it to be obstructed; and it is only by being of use to the world at large that it can be made to pay for its construction, or pay its expenses, or prove a contribution to civilization.

A canal which would be exposed to attack in time of war not only would be a poor investment, but might be closed for years or totally destroyed. Hostile fleets might block either end—for the blockade of one end would close it—and obstructions might be sunk at its mouth, and in either case its usefulness would cease. It would take two enormous fleets to keep it open against any considerable hostile force; and, even if thus kept open, merchant vessels would not risk becoming objects of contention between men-of-war in narrow waters. These things were all considered when the Suez Canal was constructed through the territory of the Khedive, who was notoriously unable to protect it. Accordingly, in 1873 it was agreed between the European Powers that the canal should be open to all transports and ships of war. This agreement was embodied in a more amplified and detailed convention at Constantinople in 1887. The neutrality of the canal in peace and war is now absolutely guaranteed by all the great Powers.

There is a party among us which proposes that we shall depart from all these precedents and principles, first by constructing a canal in foreign territory with our own money; then by ousting the jurisdiction over it of the local sovereign, not for the purpose of placing it under the protection of the civilized world, but for the purpose of "controlling" it ourselves—that is, closing it when we please to all other nations, either by obstructing it or having fights about it at its termini. There are various influences behind this programme. One is mere Jingoism—that is, a vague desire that any interoceanic canal on this continent shall be our private property, even though running through foreign soil, as a contribution to national "greatness," as Jingoes understand the term, and as affording use for a large navy, which would have to do some fighting about it with foreigners. With this class the canal would serve its purpose, even though blocked to commerce, if it led to naval battles and newspaper "extras." Another is the commercial consideration, that it would call for such large expenditures as to make a high tariff seem reasonable and even necessary, and, though last not least, that it would be the beginning of a process of annexation of the "Dago" countries.

It is safe to take for granted, however, that no such programme will ever be carried out. In our day reasonableness generally triumphs in the long run, and a canal as something to fight about is not likely to stand discussion in a commercial community. No matter who constructs it, the desire to make it pay by means of tolls will be overwhelming, and this will be impossible unless it is secured against the risks of war. Nothing can be more

vulnerable than a canal. If we were at war with any naval Power, and the canal were our property, we should never be able to send a ship or a man through it. A large load of stones would block it, and a large fleet at the eastern end would keep all ships out of it unless we conquered in a great naval fight, for which we are not likely to have sufficient force for twenty years. Moreover, even if we had as large a navy as the wildest Jingo dreams of, it would not be more than sufficient to watch and protect both ends of the canal against the fleets of a single European Power; and we should then have no ships left with which either to protect our own ports and coasts, or to do any bombarding in foreign parts. In truth, it is only the training we have had in debating with silver-men and Populists which enables us to argue about canals with Jingoes with even a semblance of seriousness. Their state of mind is not a new one, and, no matter what subject it plays round, it exhibits the same characteristics, and we can hardly better describe it than by calling it a mixture of childishness and unsoundness. When Mr. Crisp said that a nation of 70,000,000 could surely make silver circulate all over the world at 16 to 1 in gold, he displayed exactly the same mental peculiarities which make other men want a hundred-million-dollar canal in a foreign country, as a kind of national ornament, to be used solely to tempt the cupidity of foreigners, and thus form an excuse for giving them a sound thrashing.

"*HEALERS*" *IN AN AGE OF SCIENCE.*

"We love to deceive ourselves," said Goldsmith, and self-deception, resolute, invincible credulity, will seem to many the only words to be applied to the remarkable occurrences at Denver during the past few weeks. The personality of the "healer," Schlatter, appears to be unique, but his performances belong to a class of phenomena that have been often and thoroughly studied. No charge of fraud or imposture has been made against him; certainly his refusal of a $5,000 offer to go to St. Louis, in the interest of a real-estate speculation in that city, speaks loudly for his sincerity and purity of motive. His cures, however (many of which we suppose are indisputable), are of the well-known kind wrought by Lourdes water, the knuckle-bones of St. Anne, Christian Science, Voudouism, or Indian "big medicine" indifferently. How are we to account for the persistence of such cures and crazes in an age which we proudly call the age of science?

We think, to begin with, that the medical profession is in part at fault for not more frankly recognizing and publicly admitting the extraordinary influence of mental and spiritual states upon bodily conditions. If the common people were taught to consider and look for this influence in ordinary medical practice, they would not so often run agape after some quack or mystic who takes advantage of it, consciously or unconsciously, fraudulently or in good faith. Privately, of course, there is no lack, among well-educated physicians, of knowledge on this subject. They are eager to array on their side every occult, psychological ally in a fight with disease. Even if they are the blankest sceptics, they welcome prayer for a patient critically ill when they think it may serve, by his knowing of it, to rouse the desire or the will to live which may of itself mean life. They are willing to use quietly what may be called the humbug of their profession. When Fitzjames Stephen was vacillating in his choice of a calling in life, his bluff uncle told him that he would never succeed as a doctor because he had not enough humbug about him. A great deal of the kind of humbug meant is necessary to physicians treating neurotics and hypochondriacs, and the best of them often hit upon cures indistinguishable in essence from Schlatter's. But they ought, it seems to us, to preach it as well as practise it, and let their patients know that it is not all a question of drug and tissue, but of mysterious causes and effects in the borderland between mind and body.

Even were they to do so, however, we do not imagine for a moment that they could really touch the main difficulty, which is the inevitable slowness and distortion with which scientific ideas make their way into the popular mind. An English librarian some time ago made a rough sort of census among his readers and their neighbors, to try to find out how firm a grasp they had upon the leading conceptions of science. The result was rather appalling, but only what might have been expected. The practical results of science everybody complacently accepts, but its methods and presuppositions are quite another affair. Cross-examine a hundred men taken at random on the subject of the uniformity of nature, verification of a natural law, evidence and proof, and you would get very much the same kind of ideas that you would from a hundred children caught up out of their nurseries. Such difficulty in making a lodgment in the general mind is not confined to scientific ideas; religious ideas, for example, suffer from it as well. Christian theology has been battering away at the intellect of Europe for eighteen centuries, and in what a twisted shape for the most part has it got inside! Thomas Hardy asserts, and certainly has some evidence to show for it, that the peasantry of England are still rather pantheists or polytheists than Christians. If Christianity has thus been long on the way, and has been constantly surprised and baffled to find how much astray the popular understanding of it has gone, later-born science can scarce expect to have done more than scratch the surface as yet.

It might be thought that science would have a great advantage in being capable of clear and simple explanation. A very few experiments in physical causation ought, it may be said, to fix the idea of law beyond the possibility of removal. But this is doubtful. It is highly probable that clearness and simplicity are no recommendation to the average intelligence of mankind. It prefers the complex and mysterious. The doctrine that is clear and simple becomes at once suspect. There must be more in it than just *that*. Certainly, it is so with religious doctrine. A creed is never in so much danger as when it has just been made perfectly clear and reasonable. Look out then for what Leslie Stephen has called the process of death by explanation. Dr. Leonard W. Bacon made a wise remark when he said, in opposition to those who objected to the New Theology as a concession to the unregenerate heart, that precisely what the ungenerate heart liked best was doctrine that was old and tough. The simplicity and clearness of scientific notions, then, may not really help them to a general conquest. A love of mystery and confusion, a feeling that a great many strange things do happen, that you never can exactly tell, are among the dearest possessions of the race, and they will not be given up without a hard and long struggle.

The philosophically minded will be unable to resist the reflection that the "resolute credulity" (to adopt a phrase of Mr. Myers's) displayed so strikingly at Denver, casts a light backward upon many a puzzling page of history. What ecclesiastical miracle, for example, has such an overwhelming body of evidence for its genuineness as exists for Schlatter's cures? Yet the entire religious press, we believe, much to the credit of its good sense, says that his cures have nothing whatever miraculous or supernatural about them—this in spite of the fact that, on their face and in accordance with Schlatter's own belief and profession, they are miracles and nothing else. So much depends upon the seeing eye, upon the narrator's conception of what a natural law is, what evidence is. St. Francis Xavier wrote home in amazement of a natural wonder he saw in the island of Amboyna—a he-goat giving suck. He would never have believed it, he said, if he had not seen it with his own eyes. Yet the good saint was every day seeing and performing miracles of the most stupendous kind, and was writing about them in the utmost simplicity and good faith. At a violation, or apparent violation, of what even he saw to be a natural law, he balked; but disease and life and death were still, for him, the playthings of supernatural powers. So they doubtless are for the mass of people now in the world, though we are glad to say that St. Francis's successors put themselves, for the most part, on the side of those who would have been called in his century the sceptics and the heretics.

RATIONAL SYMPATHY.

THE more rational sympathy is, the more effective it is. The sympathy of hysterical persons is seldom welcome and never useful to anybody. Therefore, in all our talk about the Armenian horrors, we should take pains to show that it emanates from sober-minded and well-informed people. Rationality, even in sorrow, is what distinguishes man from the animals, and one of the marks of rationality is a just estimate of the possible. Children never know what is possible, and one of the first signs of insanity is an ignoring of the limits of human powers. Some of our Jingo friends forgot all this some weeks ago when they wailed over the want of a navy to protect the Asiatic Christians against the Kurds and Turks, and there is still a loud call on our Government to do something or other in that direction. What this thing should be, no one seems exactly to know. The *Tribune* comes as near telling us as anybody, when it says that the President should show "genuine American feeling" and "should have something to say about the perils of our American missionaries in Turkey," and "give forth an American voice from the White House."

What would be the effect of any of these processes on the Turks, it is impossible to say without knowing more about their exact nature. As described here they simply mean more noise, whereas what we want is plans and specifications. If the Turk were frightened by infidel denunciations of him, he would long ago have taken refuge in the inner recesses of Tartary from which he issued a thousand years ago. The documents which the Armenians circulate among us here are so highly colored, vague, and extravagant in their diction that they fail of their purpose. We have always felt reluctant to quote them lest they should prejudice sober-minded people against a good cause. The horrors in Armenia have been so great that they will not bear rhetorical embellishment. Plain narrative, fortified if possible with proof, is all they call for. Senator Hoar, in a despatch to the President which the *Tribune* printed on Monday, offered to stand by the President in the Senate if he should go so far as "to determine to treat the persons who massacre the Armenians as pirates and common enemies of the human race." The Senator would relieve the anxiety of many persons about his mental condition if he would explain how the President is to "treat" persons in the interior of Asia Minor as ruffians of this description. To "treat" anybody as a "pirate" I must have some means, or a fair prospect, of getting at him. As long as he knows I cannot reach him, my epithets are wasted on him, and we fear all that the Kurds know of President Cleveland is that he is a noted Western robber, who is dissatisfied because he cannot "take a hand in the racket." The Senator's remedy is therefore clearly inadequate. The measure he suggests to the President is only seemingly desperate. In reality it would be quite harmless.

There are only two things which we can do with effect. One is what Mr. Terrell is doing, to address vigorous remonstrances to the Porte about the safety of our own citizens. These have apparently been effective thus far, but more by good luck than anything else. Threatening the Porte with our navy would be bad policy, because he knows that our navy cannot do anything more to him than the combined navies of Europe which are threatening him already. The Armenian trouble is hundreds of miles from the sea, in a roadless region, and his difficulty is that he has neither the money nor the men to restore permanent order—a fact which the Powers have probably already found out and are much puzzled by. The only one which can reach the scene of disorder with a land force is Russia, and she has apparently reasons of her own for refraining from interference at present. It would be far more rational for our Government and people to urge on Russia to march an army corps or even a division into Armenia, than to threaten the Porte or call the Kurds names. That would be the use of means adapted to the end in view, and, therefore, a human and rational process. Austria might intervene also by marching an army into Macedonia, but this would simply exert pressure on the wretched Sultan, who, as we have shown, is in Armenia powerless for all practical purposes. No one has yet suggested the despatch of our little army or of the Seventh Regiment to occupy Armenia and fight the Turks in the snow. When that proposal is made, we shall discuss it with the gravity which it merits.

The other thing we might do, and ought to do, is to send money, provisions, and clothing for the thousands of unhappy people, mainly, in all probability, women and children, who will have to face the terrible winter of Asia Minor without any protection against weather and hunger. If there were more of this going on, we could do with very much less "voicing" of indignation and less vituperation of the Turk. It is a feasible work and ought to be actively prosecuted. A fighting rôle on the Turkish question is not open to us. The humane rôle is. Jingoes ought to reconcile themselves to the fact that Providence has clearly not intended that we should have a hand in *all* fights, or it wonld have made all parts of the globe accessible to our navy. The ruffians and oppressors who carry on their atrocities in the interior of large continents are clearly meant to be chastised by other hands than ours.

THE GRIEVANCES OF IRELAND.

DUBLIN, November 12, 1895.

IN the *Nation* of October 17 "An Observer" exhibits a strange misconception of the Irish problem, a misconception which is common enough among both Englishmen and Irish Unionists who have paid little attention to the history of Irish affairs during this century.

The dead opposition of the English to all innovation in Ireland has certainly checked reforms and changes which would have been made in Ireland long ago in conformity with the wishes of the vast majority of the residents in Ireland. It has not, however, checked the desire for reform, and the statement that the opposition of English statesmen broke the power of O'Connell and terminated the Repeal agitation, if literally true, is strangely at variance with real facts. Every few years, since O'Connell's withdrawal from Irish politics and his death, have seen a renewal of the Repeal agitation in one form or another: the abortive rebellion of 1848, the Phœnix conspiracy, the Fenian movement, the Land League, the National Federation, have been agitations for Repeal under other names. In Parliament the Nationalist party, though shaken with internal divisions, is numerically as strong as ever. It votes and will vote solid for home rule, land reform, and financial justice between Great Britain and Ireland.

Ireland, no doubt, is weaker than she was, with a vastly diminished population, by her retrogression in wealth and prosperity compared with Great Britain; but the statement that Englishmen view Irish discontent with deep regret, and would make heavy sacrifices to render Irishmen loyal citizens of the empire, is contradicted both by the past and the present policy of the imperial Parliament. It is as difficult now as ever to get the attention of that assembly, overburdened as it is with imperial affairs, to Irish wants, grievances, and complaints; and but for the persistency, diligence, and close attendance of the Irish members, in spite of financial and other difficulties, Ireland would seldom be heard of in Parliament, much less would her wants receive attention. Promises of much needed reforms, of measures passed long since in Great Britain, made during the last forty years, remain unfulfilled and unlikely to be fulfilled. One illustration will suffice: the assimilation of the municipal franchise to that established in England. Successive governments have promised to deal with this matter for years; it would involve no sacrifices to Englishmen, yet a bill carried last session through three readings in the House of Commons was thrown out by the House of Lords on the entry of the present Tory Government into office. Our local governing bodies are consequently not on the democratic basis that "Observer" suggests for our parliamentary representation. The first remedy he proposes is the reduction of the number of Irish members, inasmuch as they are now in excess of the proportion Ireland is entitled to in respect of her diminished and Great Britain's increased population; but he omits to state that for the first seventy years of the century Ireland was under-represented on this principle.

"Observer's" second remedy is to extend the system of local government established in Great Britain to Ireland. This has long been asked for, and in 1891 the Conservatives took office pledged to pass such a measure for Ireland. They produced a bill, but one so unlike the English and Scotch acts, so limited in its scope and absurdly insufficient, that it was laughed out of the House of Commons, and has never been heard of since. An essential accompaniment of any local-government act for Ireland should be, according to "Observer," the "retention of power to check the aberra-

tions of local authorities." To the English mind, all acts of administration by a popularly elected body, carrying out the wishes of its electors, are "aberrations" if not in accordance with English opinion. The first principle of democratic government, that the majority are to rule, cannot be allowed in Ireland. There, in politics as well as in local matters, the minority still rule. Only yesterday the present Chief Secretary, replying to a trades deputation, said he saw no reason why there should be any difference between the franchise law in England and Ireland, but he could not promise that the Government would bring in a bill to assimilate them.

As a solution of the education question, "Observer" would leave the system to be settled in accordance with the wishes of the Irish people; but this is just what successive British governments have consistently refused to do, with the result that in Ireland we are far behind the rest of the civilized world in our educational appliances, facilities, and teaching. The state of education in Ireland is a remarkable instance of the incompetence of the British Government in this country, and of its neglect of the primary wants of the people. In every civilized country, including Great Britain, primary education has long been compulsory, and supplied at the cost of the state, not of the individuals. It was only last year that a limited system of compulsion was introduced into Ireland, and the whole system of education, the books prescribed, and methods of training and paying teachers, are antiquated. Other governments have been able to compose or quench religious differences that presented obstacles to free and universal education, and have recognized, as one of the first duties of the state, the obligation of giving its citizens the elements of knowledge. But the British Government would neither grant the kind of education demanded by the Irish people nor enforce any other. The effect of the penal and disabling laws which made education by Catholics impossible has not yet disappeared, and though Great Britain has had absolute power for nearly a century to provide an efficient system of education in Ireland, she has not done so; and yet we find British statesmen, notably Mr. Chamberlain, reproaching this country for the number of illiterate voters on the franchise lists.

As to secondary and university education: confiscations, spoliation, and diversion of Catholic endowments, as well as the operation of the penal laws, have prevented the growth of such a system of schools and colleges as exists in England; but instead of liberally supplying a manifest want, grants of scanty funds, wrung from time to time from the British Parliament by Irish persistence, have been accompanied by conditions which robbed them of both grace and efficiency. The endowment of a Catholic University in a way to put Catholics on an equality with the Protestant community, which has had the rich endowments of Trinity College as its exclusive possession since the reign of Elizabeth, has been refused so often that there would be little grace in granting it now. Trinity College is now theoretically open to Catholics, but they are as unwilling to make use of an institution saturated with Protestantism, under Protestant government and teaching, as Protestants would be to send their sons to a college where Catholicism prevailed to the same extent.

"Observer" truly maintains that the root of Irish discontent is dissatisfaction with the system of land tenure which has lasted for centuries, and his remedy for this is that the tenants shall purchase the lands by means of loans from the state. Well, on the occasion of Mr. Gladstone's first land act of 1870, before the franchise was broadened in Ireland, this was a measure pressed upon Parliament by representative Irishmen, and opposed by the landlord class; it was one of the planks in the Land League platform in 1881, and was urged on the English Government by two landlord members of a royal commission appointed to inquire into Irish land tenure; the principle was at last adopted in 1885 in a tentative form, accompanied by the retention of so many legal difficulties that at the rate at which it has operated for the last eight years, it would take a century to transform the tenant farmers of Ireland into owners.

"Observer" thinks the British electors would approve of a bold and liberal scheme of land purchase even if it involved considerable expense. The British electorate and the Irish landlords combined in 1891 in refusing to accept a bold scheme proposed by Mr. Gladstone, and one that would have been so liberal to the landlords that it would have pressed both hardly and ruinously on the tenant purchasers who might have been compelled to avail of it. Between 1870 and 1880 the Irish landlords opposed every legislative proposal to facilitate the purchase of land by the tenant farmers; and so late as the session of 1894 they defeated the motion for a committee of inquiry into the working of the purchase acts. The landlord party are now engaged in passing resolutions deprecating any further land legislation, and in fact the only thing that they will agree to is the provision of ample public funds for the purchase of their estates when they wish to sell, but not for compulsory expropriations on terms that would be fair to the purchasers and safe to the state. At present they can practically name their own price, for Government provides them with a market by loans to the tenants; but instead of this involving any expense to the British taxpayer, every possible precaution has been taken to place any loss that may occur on the shoulders of the Irish taxpayers alone.

One of the most urgent questions affecting the welfare of Ireland is the adjustment of her financial relations with Great Britain. A Royal Commission inquiring into the subject has now been sitting for a year; it has taken a great deal of evidence, and collected a vast mass of figures and information. The claim of Ireland that she is overtaxed has been very fully established, not only by the figures collected by the Commission, but by the evidence of Dr. Giffen, one of the principal secretaries of the Board of Trade, an economist and statistician of the highest repute in England. His official position has given him unique advantages for studying the comparative wealth of different classes and groups of persons in the United Kingdom; his official reports and periodical addresses to the Statistical Society have long marked him out as the first authority on questions of finance, social and political economy. His evidence astounded and gave great offence to the English Treasury officials. So far from the English taxpayer making sacrifices or going to considerable expense for the purpose of quieting Irish discontent, the reverse has been the case. Ireland's discontent or disloyalty is largely due to her poverty, and one cause of that poverty has been excessive taxation. Ireland now contributes about one-twelfth of the imperial revenue. Dr. Giffen showed that vital statistics indicate (1) a general inferior condition of the inhabitants of Ireland; (2) a larger proportion of old and feeble persons, and a smaller proportion of persons in the prime of life. Labor statistics show (3) that, man for man, the incomes of the wage-earning classes in Ireland are little more than half of those in Great Britain, for there are comparatively few of the highly paid artisan class, and there is a great preponderance of the employments paid at a lower rate than others. (4.) As indicated by the income tax, Ireland's proportion of wealth is is about one-twenty fourth that of the United Kingdom, but, allowing for the stricter assessment prevalent in Ireland, and for a very considerable amount of property taxed in Ireland but owned and the income spent in England, Ireland's real resources are very much less than the income-tax figures show. (5.) Taking the death duties as a standard, Ireland's proportion is about the same as that shown by the income tax, but this requires adjustment for absentee property, for successions being more frequent in Ireland owing to the greater number of aged persons, and for the fact that, property in Ireland selling for a less number of years' purchase than in Great Britain, the succession duty, levied heretofore on the annual value, is a larger part of the capital value than in Great Britain. (6.) Ireland is rapidly losing ground as compared with Great Britain in wealth and prosperity. (7.) A very large amount of British wealth engaged in commerce escapes taxation, but this is not the case in Ireland. In these circumstances the resources of Ireland as compared with those of Great Britain would be denoted by a fraction between one-fortieth and one fiftieth—that is, Ireland's contribution to the imperial revenue should be about two instead of eight millions.

In view of these facts and figures it is highly absurd to speak of Great Britain's liberality or generosity to Ireland. The excess of Irish taxation over what would be fair between the two countries, and the absentee rental remitted annually from Ireland, have the same financial effect as a perpetual bad harvest, or as if the entire potato crop were lost, or the whole salable produce of the live stock of the country were carried away without return. Ireland, a purely agricultural and pastoral country, without foreign commerce, and without industries and manufactures, has to contribute to the protection and extension of Great Britain's vast commercial system and to her costly foreign policy, and she gets no return for her contributions. Her own struggle is against want, periodical famines, and chronic distress; her interests lie in the development of her own resources. In 1886 Dr. Giffen stated that "the whole taxable income of Ireland was absorbed by the state, and that under such conditions there could be little accumulation in Ireland." The removal of the causes of poverty in Ireland and the development of her internal resources are as legitimate purposes for imperial expenditure without charge as the development of the empire and the many wars in which England engages for commercial reasons. Ireland's needs are, however, dealt with by loans on which interest is charged at rates that clearly give a profit to the British Treasury. During the last fifty years loans have been made, almost annually, at one time to keep the Irish quiet, at another to keep them alive, with the result that the local loans from the imperial exchequer to Ireland amount to twenty millions sterling, on which about 3½ per cent. interest is paid. A large part of this money has been unremuneratively spent, and it has added very much to the burden of taxation in Ire-

land. The relief of famine and distress by means of loans is like charging a starving man interest on the breakfast that charity supplies him with. The breakfast eaten, he is poorer than ever, for he is in debt. Yet these annual famine and distress loans made from funds supplied by Ireland to the imperial Treasury are paraded as instances of British liberality to Ireland.

In some cases they are secured to the British Treasury on the local rates, in others on the property of the disestablished Episcopal Church—advantage was taken of the disestablishment act to place on the Church property a number of charges that had before been paid out of the imperial revenue, and to add from time to time other charges for famine, relief of distress, and education that would otherwise have fallen on the imperial revenue. The result has been that since 1870 the entire revenue of the Church fund, about half a million sterling, has been remitted to the British Treasury. Other loans, amounting to over eight millions sterling, bring in interest to the Treasury at a rate somewhat over 3½ per cent., and, with 2½ per cent. consols at 105, are a very profitable investment for the Treasury.

The financial relations between the two countries are those rather of a usurer and a needy borrower than of a mother or a sister country. Irish deposits in the savings banks amount to about £7,000,000; the depositors receive 2½ per cent. interest, and the funds are lent back to Ireland by the Treasury at not less than 3½ per cent. Ireland is reproached by the British Pharisee with want of self-reliance, with expecting Government to do everything; but her entire taxable revenue is captured by the imperial Government, and cannot be spent except by permission of Parliament. The waste and misapplication of public money could not be worse under the most corrupt Irish Government conceivable. Municipal and local enterprise is practically impossible, for every scheme must pass through Parliament at Westminster, where the expenses of passing an Irish "private bill" are so great as to be prohibitive.

The Unionist party, with their enormous majority, have now an unexampled chance of showing whether they have any policy beyond that of instituting a royal residence in Ireland and endowing a Catholic university—two favorite panaceas of the Conservatives. It is the wants of the masses, not of the classes, that require attention, and a royal residence will not put an end to famine, poverty, and emigration, nor secure to the Irish peasants the fruits of their expenditure on their farms, nor lighten the burden of taxation. Many Nationalists are ready to hope for wiser and better measures from a strong Conservative than a weak Liberal Government.

AN IRISHMAN.

THE SOUVENIRS OF GENERAL LEJEUNE.—II.

PARIS, November 7, 1895.

THE Memoirs of General Lejeune will have a special interest for the historians of the war of the Spanish Peninsula. He enters, concerning Spain, into more minute details than he did in the first part of his work. We left him at the time when Napoleon, having himself conducted a victorious campaign, and having heard at Valladolid of the departure of the English, who had embarked at Corunna, left his orders with the army and returned to Paris. Before leaving Valladolid, Lejeune received from the hands of the Emperor a duplicate of the orders which he was sending to Marshal Lannes. He gave Lannes the command of the army which was besieging Saragossa, and placed Lejeune momentarily under his orders as officer of engineers, with General Lacoste, also an engineer. Lejeune went through Burgos, crossed the Ebro at Miranda, and arrived before Saragossa. The famous siege was beginning, and Lejeune gives us an almost daily account of the investment, which will always be remembered among the most extraordinary feats of Spanish patriotism. The chapter on the siege and capture of Saragossa would alone secure the success of the Memoirs, ill-composed as they are in many parts, ill-written, incomplete, and sometimes inaccurate. It is clear that Lejeune took more pains with this chapter than he did with the others; he remembered the "quorum pars magna fui." As an officer of engineers, he was always in the forefront of the attack and in perpetual danger.

Command of the operations of the siege was taken on the 29th of December by Junot, Duke of Abrantès, but the effective command was in the hands of the general of engineers, Lacoste, who opened the first parallel in the night of December 29–30. On the 1st of January, 1809, the batteries of the town began to play on the French works, which were vigorously pushed forward by 3,000 men. As is well known, Palafox commanded in the town, but he was obliged to follow the dictates of a junta composed of the most energetic inhabitants. There were two monks in this junta, Father Basilio and Father Consolacion, and all over the town the priests and the monks were in the first ranks of the combatants. "Few days passed," says Lejeune, "that the junta did not order those who were accused of weakness and of a desire to capitulate to be hanged. Palafox, who was as humane as he was brave, disliked this system of terror, but he was obliged to follow the law of these bloodthirsty monks." During the whole siege the women were organized in battalions; they carried food and munitions, took care of the wounded, made cartridges, and finally fought on the ramparts and in the convents (which were taken one by one, by assault) like men. Among the women who set an example of devotion and courage was the young and handsome Countess Burida. This valiant Amazon made all the women swear that they would rather die with their children than surrender. The 'Maid of Saragossa' did not exist merely in the imagination of Byron. Lejeune speaks of her with admiration.

Marshal Lannes came to take the place of Junot on the 22d of January. He sent a young officer, Saint-Marc, to parley with Palafox, and offer him honorable terms of capitulation. Saint-Marc was conducted to the palace of the Inquisition, and left for an hour in a room where there was nothing on black walls but a Christ painted by Velasquez. Palafox received the letter of Lannes, and told Saint-Marc that the population had resolved to be buried under the ruins of the city. The siege was continued with much vigor on both sides; mines and countermines were made under the walls, under the houses, the streets, the great convents, which became so many fortresses. After the assault on the convent of the Trinitarians, "a priest vaunted himself on having killed with his own hand seventeen Frenchmen. It was this same San-Jago Saas, a Carmelite. Now again, sword in hand, with bare arms and his shirt up to his shoulders, his gown covered with blood from head to foot, this fanatic went among the ranks and said to each: 'Follow my example, and not one of them will remain.'" On this same day, the "Maid of Saragossa," Agustina, fought among the gunners and fired guns. This assault cost the French only three hundred men. Lejeune pays a high tribute of admiration to our *soldats du génie*, a reputation which was well sustained afterwards at Sebastopol. These soldiers form only two regiments, but receive a special instruction in mining and in the construction of bridges. The regiments of the *génie* have very glorious traditions.

"The miner," says Lejeune, "is admirable for the resignation and coolness with which he faces fatigue and dangers. While he quietly makes a tomb for the miners of the enemy, he is often separated from them by only a short interval. When he hears the faint noise, or feels the slight movement which tells him that by his side somebody is working for his destruction, he is not then standing upright, he cannot defy his adversary with a proud look, the eyes of the army are not fixed on him, they do not animate his courage or double his power; he is alone, often flat on the earth, or doubled up, and often he succumbs to asphyxia. What Bayard, what Murat would not feel his courage cool down if he had, for whole days, to subject it to contact with these cold subterranean galleries? . . . The disinterestedness of these soldiers is equal to their bravery. I saw some in this memorable siege who, having worked their way under the earth, happened to break with their picks antique vases full of gold, silver, bronze coin, which the Carthaginians, the Romans, the Arabs had buried in calamitous times. The sight of the metal, shining in the light of the miner's lamp, did not stop his work or excite his cupidity; he contented himself with handing the coin to the miner who was behind him, saying simply: 'Take this; hand the Peru ["Pérou," the bonanza] to the captain; it will interest him.' The captain was a numismatist."

One day the convent of the Daughters of Jerusalem was taken by assault after the explosion of a mine.

"I cannot forget," writes Lejeune, "the effect produced on me by the interior of this convent, which I saw through a cloud of dust and smoke. The cells of the nuns, those asylums of peace and of prayer, had become the theatre of war. The assailants rushed among the symbols of piety, the amulets, the enormous chaplets, the straw carpets which were the only beds of those austere women. On the pavement of their oratories I met everywhere under my feet the instruments of flagellation, iron scourges with points, which testified to their severe habits, or needlework which they were making for the poor, and which testified to the charity of their order. Some of them, surprised in their flight or kept among the fighting women of the town, remained with them. At our approach, we saw them taken on the altars, the objects of their adoration, to save them from profanation; and these holy women bore in their arms only the crucifixes and the images of the Saviour. . . . They had in their little chapels pretty figures of the infant Jesus, with snow-white lambs, adorned with ribbons. . . . On these flowers, this moss, of the cradles of Jesus, wounded soldiers were falling, and the blood of the dying ran on the immortelles, the crowns of roses, and the azure ribbons."

The courage of the populace never wavered, but the day came when starvation did its work and resistance became impossible. The scenes described by Lejeune are truly terrific. Typhus was raging in the city. After a short armistice, a capitulation was signed; on the 21st of February all the exterior posts of the town were occupied by the French, and, in accordance with the terms of the capitulation, the Spanish troops with their arms and flags came out and marched in order before the French army, which was in battle array along the Ebro. Marshal Lannes had allowed the garrison the honors of war. Thirteen thousand Spaniards gave up their arms in front of

the French army; the officers kept their arms and the soldiers their knapsacks. Though the Spaniards were in rags and looked worn with hunger and fatigue, they kept a proud look; and Lejeune, who was an artist, admired their attitude. They wore colored sashes round their waists; their large sombreros had plumes of black cock or of vulture; a brown mantle was thrown picturesquely over the varied costumes of the men of Aragon, of Catalonia, of Valencia, and gave an air of grace and almost of elegance to the torn and tattered clothes which covered so many living spectres.

Lejeune took to Napoleon the news of the surrender of Saragossa. He started on horseback alone for Bayonne, crossing a country full of guerillas, and arrived at the Tuileries in six days.

"I found the Emperor sitting with a child three years old on his knees, near a table, and eating the same breakfast as the child. . . . The Emperor asked many questions, and expressed the most complimentary regrets at the death of his aide de-camp, Gen. Lacoste. He even charged me to carry words of consolation to his widow, and to let her know that she would continue to receive the allowance of 50,000 francs a year which he gave to her husband. During our conversation, the Emperor freely caressed the child, who was the eldest son of his brother Louis, King of Holland, the husband of Hortense de Beauharnais, daughter of the Empress Josephine. . . . After his frugal repast, the Emperor, as was usual with him, took some coffee without sugar, and the child, who, with his pretty little arms, had taken the cup and drunk some coffee, was astonished at the bitterness of the liquor, made a grimace, and pushed away the cup. The Emperor laughed and said these words, which have remained in my memory: 'Ah! your education is not yet complete, since you cannot dissimulate.'"

The Emperor made Lejeune Colonel of Engineers, and Lejeune, who was on Napoleon's staff, spent some time enjoying the pleasures of the Court. But he had soon to prepare himself for another campaign. War with Austria was imminent, and Lejeune was occupied in the cabinet of Prince Berthier in marking on maps with pins all the positions of the French troops in Germany, the future positions of the troops and magazines in Tyrol, in Italy, in Bavaria. He seems to have had a great taste for what the Germans now call "Kriegsspiel." Lejeune followed Berthier to Metz and Strasbourg, and to Bavaria; the Emperor arrived on the 18th of April at Donauwerth, and the campaign of 1809 began. The details of this campaign are given at some length by Lejeune, and sometimes the reader wishes that the horrors of war were not so minutely described. I would not recommend a highly nervous person to read how Ebersberg was stormed, and how through narrow streets the soldiers of Masséna had to go with horses and guns over hundreds of wounded Frenchmen and Austrians lying on the pavement. The horrors of the battle of Ebersberg were such that "it was with a broken heart that the Emperor spent the night, in gardens on the heights of Ebersberg, in the midst of his soldiers, like a father who, in his trouble, can find no solace but in his family."

Here is, however, a curious account, which shows that the Emperor preserved all his coolness. In the evening of this bloody fight,

"Napoleon sent for Count Daru, and Maret, Duke of Bassano, secretaries of state, who had followed him from the beginning of the campaign. The Emperor and these two gentlemen were sitting on woodpiles, with a few candles placed on drums, and writing on their knees. The secretaries offered for the signature of the Emperor decrees which interested the whole of Europe, for the construction of road, canals, hospitals, etc. It was eleven o'clock when Napoleon, after having given his orders for the next day to the Prince major-general, told Daru and Bassano to open their portfolios, and at two o'clock in the morning they were still at work."

Lejeune's volume closes with the operations which ended in the taking of Vienna and the great battles of Essling and Wagram. Lejeune, as officer of engineers, played a great part in the construction of the bridges which connected the two banks of the Danube. Will there be a second volume of these memoirs, which, as they are imperfect, will take a secondary place in the Napoleonic literature of the day? The editor has not chosen to inform us. The memoirs, I know for certain, do not end at Wagram, and it is to be hoped that their publication will be continued.

Correspondence.

THE VENEZUELAN CONTROVERSY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As pertinent to the discussion of "The Law of the Venezuelan Case," I send you the following extract from Creasy's 'First Platform of International Law,' pp. 216–218:

"Questions as to the extent of territory which is gained by the occupation of a part thereof have often arisen and have proved sometimes hard of solution. . . . Three rules on this subject were propounded and maintained by the Commissioners of the United States in the negotiations conducted by them in 1817 with the Commissioners of Spain in regard to the western boundary of Louisiana. These principles, say the Commissioners, have been adopted in practice by the European Powers as applicable to the discoveries and acquisitions made in the New World. They are few, simple, and intelligible, and at the same time are founded in strict justice.

"(1.) When any European nation takes possession of any extent of seacoast, that possession is understood as extending into the interior country to the sources of the rivers emptying themselves within that coast, to all their branches and to the country they cover, and to give it a right in exclusion of all other nations to the same.

"(2.) Whenever one European nation makes a discovery and takes possession of any part of that continent, and another afterwards does the same at some distance from it, where the boundary between them is not determined by the principle above mentioned the middle distance becomes such of course."

Of like tenor are Secretary Calhoun's words to Mr. Pakenham (Wharton's Digest, vol. i., p. 6): ". . . So likewise, in the case of a river, it has been usual to extend the claim of territory to the entire region drained by it; more especially in the case of a discovery and settlement at the river's mouth." Moreover, in 1872, Secretary Fish wrote to Mr. Preston: "Discovery alone is not enough to give dominion and jurisdiction. . . . Such discovery must be followed by possession." Now if it be true, as alleged, that for more than two centuries the Dutch and British have had permanent settlements at the mouth of the Essequibo, and that in the region drained by that stream the Venezuelans have had no such settlements, there would seem to be very little room for contention. J.

Fort Wayne, Ind., November 23, 1895.

THE GETTYSBURG SPEECH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. H. Sidney Everett's recent publication in the N. Y. *Tribune* of a copy, from Mr. Edward Everett's autograph letter-book, of a note written under date of November 20, 1863, to Mr. Lincoln, expressing admiration of the thoughts uttered "with such eloquence and simplicity" at Gettysburg, brings to my mind a conversation I held with Vice President Wilson, with whom I enjoyed an intimate acquaintance at Natick, Mass., where I resided nine years. As we rode on the railway train to Boston, one day, Mr. Wilson told me with enthusiasm that Mr. Everett at Gettysburg gave his hand to Mr. Lincoln at the conclusion of the speech of the latter, saying, "Mr. President, you have said more in a few minutes than I have in my whole oration." I distinctly understood Mr. Wilson to say that he was at Gettysburg on that occasion, and that he sat near Mr. Everett and Mr. Lincoln, and heard the remarks of the former addressed to the President. Mr. Wilson's intimacy with Mr. Lincoln at that period makes it impossible for me to regard his statement to me as mere hearsay, or the fact itself as unhistoric.

The letter of Mr. Edward Everett to Mr. Lincoln which Mr. H. Sidney Everett has published, confirmed by the statement made to me by Mr. Wilson, would seem to render Mr. Lamon's declaration that Mr. Everett and Mr. Seward expressed disappointment after Mr. Lincoln's speech, not easy to explain. The impression derived by Marshal Lamon, who was also present on that day, remains for me, at least, an insoluble enigma.

Yours truly, Charles Mellen Tyler.

Cornell University,
Ithaca, N. Y., November 20, 1895.

"COLLEGE" AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Matthews (*Nation*, Nov. 14) might rightly attribute carelessness to any one who should assert that the word college for a "single building or group of buildings," in the sense of his article and of all but one of his quotations, is not recognized by the dictionaries. This meaning of the word has been recorded since Johnson's time at least. I referred to the use mentioned in Mr. Brown's first letter (*Nation*, Oct. 24) as a name in early times for separate buildings at Harvard College. Besides, Mr. Matthews will surely do me the justice to believe that, with an American's inbred reverence for the dictionary, I had at least examined each of the works to which I referred. But I more gladly return to the discussion, because the quotations which Mr. Matthews makes might seem to overthrow both the statement which he attributes to me and that which I wish to enforce.

The word college, as applied in any way to college buildings, has at least three distinct senses. These are:

(1.) The building occupied by a college.

(2.) The group of buildings so occupied.

(3.) One of a group of buildings used by a college or university.

The meanings under one and two are common to England and America. The third meaning is the one I suggested as probably American, though not recognized by lexicographers.

My reason for believing this use of "college" an Americanism is, that it is not recorded by Johnson, writing a century and more ago, nor by the 'Oxford Dictionary' now under way. Johnson's definition is, "3. The house in which the collegians reside," and that of the 'Oxford Dictionary,' "5. The building, or set of buildings, occupied by such a society or institution." Of course it is dangerous for an American to say that a particular word, or meaning of a word, which seems to be used in this country exclu-

sively, may not be found in England. But in addition to the testimony of the dictionaries, Oxford and Cambridge men have assured me that they have never heard the word so used in the mother country. The English term is "hall," which is also common in America.

As to our own lexicographers, they might seem at first to recognize the use in question, and I thought of referring more explicitly to them in my first communication. The definitions of "college," so far as they relate to buildings, are as follows:

Worcester (1846): "A house or edifice appropriated to the use of a college or literary institution."

Webster (1847): "3. An establishment or edifice for students who are acquiring the languages and sciences."

International: 3. "A building, or number of buildings, used by a college."

Century: 2 (a). "The institution, or house, founded for the accommodation of such an association. . . . (e). an edifice occupied by a college."

These definitions, it will be seen, cover meanings 1 and 2 above. It may be said that the words "a building" in the 'International' cover at the same time meanings 1 and 3, but I am not willing to infer that the expression is used in this double sense. Nor can I believe, in the light of the other definitions, that 'Century' 2 (e) is intended to cover this distinctly American usage. It seems reasonable to suppose that, if the lexicographer had intended the latter meaning, he would probably have indicated the American, as distinct from British, usage.

As to Mr. Brown's demurrer to my suggestion of American and dialectal origin, let me say that I used the word "dialectal" with no sense of opprobrium. The change in usage was quite natural, and was made easier, doubtless, by the fact that early Harvard resembled an English college in many ways. Yet, when the word "college" was applied at Harvard or elsewhere to a second building, not a "college" in the English sense, the usage seems to me for the time dialectal. Later it was generally adopted in America, so that "college" may now be applied to almost any building belonging to an educational institution, from a dormitory to a recitation hall or laboratory.

There is only one other possibility, so far as I can see. It may be found that the particular use of "college" to which I have called attention is owing, like so many other so-called Americanisms, to the retention of an older usage, since lost in England. If this can be shown, it will be in itself an important contribution to lexicography.

Whether this use of "college" has been felt to be dialectal or not, the word has been displaced in many institutions by the word "hall." Mr. Brown has shown that the change took place at Harvard in the latter part of the last century. A similar change has been made, within fifteen years, at the college to which I referred in my first communication. At other institutions the word "college" in the American sense remains in excellent use, as it bids fair to do for many years to come. OLIVER FARRAR EMERSON.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, November 23, 1895.

"OLD NORTH" AT PRINCETON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "H.," in his note on "College" (*Nation*, p. 346), errs in saying that the Old North (officially Nassau Hall) of 1860 at Princeton "was only four years old, having been rebuilt after a destructive fire." Old North was gutted by fire March 6, 1803, and again March 10, 1855; but the walls that were erected in 1754–'55, and withstood Revolutionary cannon, are intact. The reconstruction of 1855–'56 involved a new cupola, terminal stairways in exterior towers, an enlargement of what had been the original chapel, and of course a new roof. But the student of 1760 could have identified his unaltered window in 1860, and the gray stones of the middle of the eighteenth century remain in place at the close of the nineteenth.

W.

DENVER, November 18, 1895.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. take a forward step in adding 'Robinson Crusoe' and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' to their Riverside Literature Series (Nos. 87, 88). This means that school libraries and classes may be equipped at a small cost with these two works, which are fitly bracketed together as among the most widely read and translated in the whole range of literature. A Swedish translation of 'Uncle Tom' ('Onkel Toms Stuga'), by the way, has just begun publication in parts at Göteborg by Torsten Hedlund. There will be more than 100 original illustrations.

Lamson, Wolfe & Co., Boston, have in press 'Ralph Waldo Emerson'—two unpublished essays, with an introduction by Edward Everett Hale; 'A Man without a City,' by the author of 'A Man without a Country'; 'Earth's Enigmas, and Other Stories' and 'A History of Canada,' by C. G. D. Roberts; 'The Goldfish of Gran Chimu, and Other Peruvian Tales,' by Charles F. Lummis; and a translation, by Charles Edward Amory Winslow, of Sudermann's four-act play, "Magda."

Lee & Shepard are to publish 'Old Boston,' reproductions in half-tone of Henry R. Blaney's etchings of Boston buildings, with descriptive text; and 'The History of the Hutchinson Family [of Singers],' by the sole survivor, John Wallace Hutchinson, with a preface by Frederick Douglass, written just before his death.

Montague Marks will publish early in December, from the office of the *Art Amateur*, No. 23 Union Square, New York, the first of a series of "Art Amateur Handbooks," namely, the 'Book of the China Painter,' by Mrs. L. Vance-Phillips, illustrated with 150 black-and-white drawings in the text and six colored plates. We understand that Mr. Marks purposes in the course of next year very considerably to extend his operations in the book-publishing line, especially in the direction of works on art and cognate subjects.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in hand a new 'Cyclopædia of Architecture in Italy, Greece, and the Levant'; 'The Mediterranean Trip,' a guide-book by Noah Brooks; Dr. Corrado Ricci's 'Correggio; his Life, his Friends, and his Time'; 'Domesticated Animals,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'The Poor in the Great Cities,' by a variety of authors; and 'Window and Parlor-Gardening,' by N. Jönssen Rose.

'The Elements of Physics,' in three small volumes, by Edward L. Nichols and William S. Franklin, will begin to be issued in January by Macmillan & Co.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish immediately 'Annals of Westminster Abbey,' by E. T. Bradley (Mrs. Murray Smith), with an introduction by her father, Dean Bradley. It will contain nearly two hundred illustrations by W. Hatherell, R.I., and H. M. Paget.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce 'A Scientific Demonstration of the Future Life,' by Thomson Jay Hudson; and 'Songs, Chiefly from the German,' by Bishop Spalding.

Mr. J. E. P. Wallis, barrister-at-law, England, is engaged upon a 'History of Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies.' Beginning with the infant Legislature of the old colony of Virginia, the author will work down to the colonial constitutions of the Victorian era. Mr. Wallis edits the State Trials published by the British Government, and is a lecturer at the Inns of Court, London. He will shortly read a paper before the Royal Historical Society upon "The Origins of Parliamentary Institutions in America," one of a series of papers apropos of the 600th anniversary of the meeting of Parliament on the 27th of November, 1295, which historians concur in regarding as the foundation of the regularized representation of the Commons of England in Parliament.

The authorities of the British Museum have decided to commemorate the 300th anniversary of Sir Walter Raleigh's voyage to Guiana in 1595. To that end an exhibition will be held in the King's Library (where the Gibbon commemoration took place) of books, maps, portraits, and prints relating to the voyage and those who took part in it, as well as to the voyages of Leigh, Harcourt, and other early English colonizers of Guiana.

The Council of the Royal Historical Society of England have nominated for election at the next general meeting of the Society, as corresponding members, the following residents of the New World: Prof. J. F. Jameson (Providence), Prof. W. J. Ashley (Harvard), Dr. C. Gross (Harvard), and the Hon. N. Darnell Davis, C.M.G., of British Guiana.

Harper & Bros. publish, in a small volume, Dr. Charles Waldstein's inaugural lecture as Slade Professor at Cambridge on 'The Study of Art in Universities.' This lecture, delivered on June 10 last, is a strong plea for the fuller study of the theory and history of art, not with any practical end of producing artists or even amateurs of art, but in the true university spirit of pure love of knowledge and as an important branch of general philosophy and history. Incidentally, Dr. Waldstein also maintains that, while universities should encourage the study of art, artists should study in universities. On this latter question there is a great deal to be said. There is doubtless often a lamentable lack of general culture in the artist, and it is a fair subject of discussion how far this lack affects the quality of his art. But, as it is said that no one ever mastered the violin who began to play it after his seventh year, so it is doubtful if any one ever mastered painting who began the serious study of his profession so late as would be implied in having first taken a university course. Art study is in itself a means of culture, and perhaps that study and what he can gather by general reading must remain the education of the average artist.

'Picture Posters,' by Charles Hiatt (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), is, as the title-page describes it, "a short history of the illustrated placard, with many reproductions of the most artistic examples in all countries." It gives all the essential facts as to the development of this form of decorative art and its present wonderful vogue, and a marvellously complete set of illustrations (over a hundred and fifty in num-

ber), which seem to represent almost every artist who has done anything notable in that line, and to contain almost every specially notable example. The book should be a treasure to the devotees of the latest collecting fad. The last chapter even gives the latest "quotations" of certain rarities or desirabilities.

From the same London firm we have 'A Guide to the Paintings of Venice,' by Karl Károly, similar in plan to the same author's 'Guide to the Paintings of Florence.' It is of a handy size to fit the traveller's pocket, and contains a vast deal of information about the pictures themselves as well as chronological tables, an outline of Venetian history, lives of the principal painters, etc., etc. Many and opposing criticisms are quoted from various sources, and occasionally the author gives his own opinion, which is frequently saner than that of the eminent writers he quotes. There are also a few fairly well-executed illustrations. It is a pity that an alphabetical list of painters, with the whereabouts of all their works in Venice, is not given for the assistance of those desiring to make a special study of any one artist. It is impossible to examine into the accuracy of so many detailed statements as a work of this kind contains, but, in a somewhat cursory perusal, we have noticed only one error. It is stated on page 112 that the St. Christopher "is the only remaining fresco by Titian." If this statement were qualified by the words "in Venice," it would be true, but Mr. Károly must have forgotten the frescoes by Titian in the Scuola del Santo at Padua. Or has recent criticism changed the attribution of these pictures as it has that of so many others? In that case it would have been well to note the fact.

To the question occasionally asked, What book should one give an English friend that he may have a picture of some transatlantic conditions? a true and complete reply is 'Pony Tracks,' written and illustrated by Frederic Remington (Harpers). It is a vivid account of actual life that cannot possibly be duplicated elsewhere under the canopy, ranging from Dakota to Chihuahua, and from fighting Sioux to rounding up cattle and shooting grouse. Remington shows himself here an artist in words, as he has long been recognized to be with the pencil. His descriptions, like his pictures, represent the essence of things in a realistic way. Whether one goes with him "Policing the Yellowstone," "Bear-chasing in the Rocky Mountains," on "Casey's Last Scout," or to "A Rodeo at Los Ojos," he will have all the characteristics of the life before him and will breathe its very breath. Remington's familiarity with army ways, due to the education of long association engrafted upon true military instinct, leads him to depict that life in the field as no civilian has ever done. He could not do it if he did not love the soldiers and their career, and they are indeed ungrateful if they do not reciprocate his regard and esteem. But it does not require the hypothetical Englishman of our first sentence to open his eyes and enjoy this book. To most Americans it will be a revelation; and any man who has not been a part of what he tells will have his blood run faster for the reading, while even the participants will be made happier over the retrospect by this free handed description, in which rifle and spur are in such accord. Barring a rather sensational frontispiece, the illustrations are true to nature as well as spirited in execution.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have published a charming little volume (one of the Faience Series), chock full of charming little illustrations, of a translation of Daudet's charming little story 'La Belle Nivernaise' and the four others that always accompany it. The anonymous translation is as lively and idiomatic in style as the original, and has only the defects of its good qualities. It sounds like the work of a clever boy, and that is just as it should be, since the original was the play of a clever boy-man. There is an odd sentence on p. 174. It reads: "Some one proposed to me that I should take in Augustine's reception." We have not the original at hand, but it should surely be: "Some one proposed to me that I should go to [or proposed to take me to] Augustine's reception." The illustrations are so good in character, so pleasantly illustrative, that the artist's name should not be withheld. There is even no mention of them on the title-page.

Mr. Arthur Irwin Dasent may "fairly claim to have broken new ground" in his 'History of St. James's Square and the Foundation of the West End of London' (Macmillan). It is, as he remarks, the first attempt at a systematic visitation from house to house of any particular street or square in London. We would fain hope that the example will not be too catching; for the amount of library space that will be called for if every well-known London street or square has to have its own separate volume, is a thing "imagination boggles at." However, Mr. Dasent has not only come first, but has also appropriated for himself the area most suitable for treatment of the kind he proposes. The building of St. James's Square, soon after the Restoration, by the shrewd Henry Jermyn, Earl of St. Albans, was practically the creation of the West End of London; and the five-and-twenty houses which formed three of its sides remained for a century and a half the town abodes of the leaders of English political and fashionable life. Mr. Dasent chats about their occupants in a pleasant and not too critical strain; his book will while away many an indolent hour in clubland; and the appendix, with its comparative table of rates levied on each house between 1676 and 1876, may be grist for the mill of some more philosophic historian.

Messrs. Crowell & Co. have thought it worth their while to issue in two small and comely volumes a cheap reprint of Dodd's 'Beauties of Shakspere.' It is difficult to see what class of readers is to reap a benefit, for such anthologies, once so popular, would seem, at least in the case of Shakspere, to have outlived their usefulness. But some tribute is due to the venerable work which, during the latter half of the eighteenth century, exerted so wide an influence in spreading the knowledge of Shakspere both in England and in Germany. Through these extracts Goethe gained his first impressions of the English dramatist, and in his autobiography he makes this graceful acknowledgment: "Whatever may be said against such collections, which give authors in a fragmentary form, they nevertheless produce many good effects. We are not always so collected and so ready that we can take in a whole work according to its merits. Do we not in a book mark passages which have a particular reference to ourselves? Young people especially, who are wanting in a thorough cultivation, are laudably excited by brilliant passages; and thus I myself remember, as one of the most beautiful epochs of my life, that which is associated with the above-mentioned work." But is it not preferable, after all, that young people should do their own marking? We notice that in the preface the Rev. Mr. Dodd apologizes for having occupied himself with profane literature: "This work was begun and finished before I entered upon the sacred function in which I am now happily employed." When we recall the reverend gentleman's discreditable career, which ended by his being hanged at Tyburn for forgery, these pious excuses elicit a sad smile. He would better have apologized for presuming to write commentaries on the Old and New Testaments.

Extremes meet when the first two calendars to reach us are the "Equal Suffrage Calendar" (New York: E. Scott Co., 146 West Twenty-third Street) and the "Trilby Calendar" (Brentano's). The former is businesslike, with its pad of sentiments pinned against a modestly floriated wall-card. To Trilby are given twelve sheets, the varying borders in varied tints enclosing one of Du Maurier's designs for each month. The authorship of the doggerel thought appropriate to the month is wisely not disclosed.

Seasonable also are 'The Mary Lyon Year-Book,' edited by Helen Marshall North (Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Co.); 'The Helen Jackson Year-Book,' edited by Harriet T. Perry (Boston: Roberts Bros.), and 'The Canon Farrar Year-Book,' edited by W. M. L. Jay (E. P. Dutton & Co.). As mere book-making, the first of these is the comeliest. All have portraits, and the Mary Lyon volume contains views of her foundation, Mount Holyoke College—now very little a seminary for missionaries, we believe—while the Helen Jackson volume is embellished with French symbolism of the calendar in some vignettes by E. H. Garrett.

The *Book-Lovers' Almanac* for 1896 (New York: Duprat & Co.) is fourth and best in the series, with not a weak spot in it. The ornamental borders of the text are deftly composed of printers' marks. The text itself consists of an historical sketch, by Clarence Cook, of "Illustrated Posters," all the illustrations being French, and all but one being drawn from the product of the reign of Louis Philippe; an account, by O. A. Bierstadt, of "Books of Emblems," with facsimiles from De Bry and from Gravelot and Cochin; and "The Old and the New," in which Mr. De Vinne carries on a really candid dialogue between Juvenis and Senex, leading to the conclusion that the modern letter is inferior to that of earlier typefounders, as Boldoni is inferior to Jenson. Here again are helpful illustrations in support of the thesis. We have mentioned only the leading articles, but the lighter filling is excellent of its kind. A bibliography of Frederick Locker-Lampson concludes the *Almanac*.

While the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Shakspere" is proceeding with "Othello" and "King Lear," a larger form—perhaps to be described as small quarto—has been selected for "A Midsummer Night's Dream." Mr. Israel Gollancz contributes an introduction, partly historic and partly fantastic, with diagrams as in a Logic, for young folks, who are especially addressed with this handsome edition. The letterpress is beautifully clear and elegant. The illustrations, in what we may call the manner of Walter Crane, are by Robert Anning Bell. As interpretation they are not remarkable, but as decoration they are uniformly successful, and the smaller bits, like initial letters and head and tail-pieces, are often charming. The binding, too, is tasteful, in buff and gold. In short, any young person must be grateful for such an addition to his choicer library.

A "Geschenkausgabe" of Prof. Max Koch's admirable 'Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur,' published by Göschen in Stuttgart, and

already noticed in these columns, has just been issued. The text has been revised and slightly enlarged and the typography considerably improved.

Dr. Cyrus Adler has made an interesting contribution to the history of the persecution of Judaism by translating and publishing in full, as No. 4 of the Publications of the American Jewish Historical Society, the proceedings of the trial of Jorge de Almeida by the Inquisition of Mexico in 1607-9. There is nothing in the case to remove it from the regular routine of such prosecutions, but this renders it all the more valuable to those who are not familiar with the procedure of the Holy Office. The two points which will especially impress the reader are the effectiveness of the use of torture, as exhibited in its application to a witness who was tortured *in caput alienum* to make him accuse others, and the fact that the whole proceeding is conducted against a fugitive. Almeida's wife had been burnt some years previous, when he fled to Spain, yet still the Inquisition continued to gather testimony against him, tried him *in absentia*, and burnt him in effigy in the *auto de fé* of March, 1609.

A most interesting and stimulating paper is Mr. O. H. Howarth's account of the Sierra Madre of Mexico in the *Geographical Journal* for November. He describes with great felicity the geographical features of the range, its strikingly beautiful scenery—there is a waterfall with a "clear perpendicular drop of 948 feet"—the great silver veins, and, though briefly, the various local tribes. These are remarkable for diversities of language, life, and character, though living in close contact. The incorrigibly hostile Apaches, for instance, are neighbors to the timid race of cave-dwellers, "whose only anxiety is to hide from even the friendly stranger." These latter are trained to run down the deer on the plains "by a game somewhat allied to our golf, in which they are required, before qualifying for the deer-hunt, to drive a wooden ball over the level plains for 100 miles without a halt. I am able to quote an instance in which a youth of twenty years pursued a deer on foot for a distance of 135 miles before he exhausted and killed it, and within two days carried it back to the point of starting." A remarkable characteristic of this mountain population is the abject poverty in which they apparently prefer to live, due to actual heredity, the author suggests, in the absence of other sufficient reasons. They suffer keenly from cold, though there is fuel in abundance around their huts, because "it has never been the custom to use heat for any purpose but cookery." A strong appeal is made for the scientific study of these peoples, among whom Mr. Howarth believes are to be found a large though scattered contingent of ancient Asiatic races. This must be done speedily, however, as their probable extinction or fusion with the predominant race cannot be far distant. An account by J. B. Tyrrell of another adventurous expedition in the Barren Lands of Canada to the west of Hudson Bay, and an appreciative notice, by M. É. Reclus, of some recent books on the United States, particularly those of Profs. Whitney and Shaler, are among the other contents of what might be regarded as an American number of the *Journal*.

A practical bulletin issued by the Weather Bureau has reference to temperatures injurious to food products in storage and during transportation, suggesting at the same time methods of protection. In sending perishable freight, not only should there be protection from excessive cold, but from great heat as well; and not less important is the certainty that plenty of air shall circulate through the car, to diffuse and carry off gases always generated. Of course the temperatures at which perishable goods are liable to damage vary considerably, with their condition when shipped, the length of time in transit, and their intermittent or continual motion. Also, both the duration and intensity of the heat and cold to which they are subjected must always be considered. Interesting figures are given with reference to special articles; oysters, beer, potatoes, roses or other cut flowers, early vegetables, olives, and meats being among those specified as liable to injury at definite temperatures.

We are informed by Prof. Zuntz of Berlin that the proposed "frigotherapeutic" establishment in that city is by no means an accomplished fact, nor are the plans so near completion as the statements in the press would imply. Prof. Pictet's system of healing is still in an experimental stage. The experiments made by Prof. Zuntz and two of his pupils in order to determine the physiological effect of the radiation of heat from the body at a very low temperature had to be suspended, owing to the imperfection of the apparatus for reducing the temperature below —70 C. The founding of a "Kälteklinik" will depend upon the results of more thorough experiments in confirmation or refutation of the "frigotherapeutic" theory.

We learn from *Science* that the University of St. Andrews is building a hall of residence for its women students on the lines of the Girton and Newnham Colleges at Cambridge and the Oxford Halls for Women. The fee for residence and board for six months will be £40, each student having a separate room. There will be fifteen scholarships, all tenable for three years.

—In this age of "examinations" it is highly important to make sure what a *wise* examination is, that they may be rendered as little injurious as possible. There are two extremes in the present methods of "examining" the youth of both sexes, and a juxtaposition of illustrations of these extremes may suggest some conclusions worth reaching. At the great English school of Rugby, the boys are required to read the newspapers for the purpose of becoming familiar with modern geographical relations and with the historical conditions of the day. The following examination paper was used recently in the school:

"Describe the east and west-coast routes to Scotland. Give an account of the 'Race for the North.'—Where are the following places, and with what recent events are they connected: Foo Chow, Madagascar, Sofia, Cuba, Congo?—What do you know of the following: Khama, Colonel Shervington, Nasrullah Khan, Sher. Afzul?—Explain the Cabinet, Privy Council, Spiritual Peer.—What was the business done in the last session of Parliament? Who are at present Speaker, Colonial Secretary, Foreign Secretary? What offices are held by Mr. Goschen, Lord Lansdowne, Mr. Long?—An account of the races for the America's Cup?—What are the present difficulties in Armenia? Describe the situation."

In the sharpest possible contrast with this—a contrast much greater than is demanded by any difference of result aimed at in the respective education of boys and of girls—are the following subjects for composition given out last May and June in Paris in the examination of girls (generally from fifteen to seventeen years old) for an elementary diploma—that is, as part of a test of their acquirements to which a large proportion of the girl students in Paris subject themselves, and which gives the tone to their previous instruction:

"Enlarge upon (*développez*) this advice which Mme. de Maintenon used to give to all the young girls at Saint-Cyr on their departure: 'Be always and everywhere sincere and kind (*simples et bonnes*); sincerity and kindness are the two most beautiful ornaments of women.'—Enlarge upon this saying of Jean Jacques Rousseau: 'Everything which impedes and constrains nature has a character of bad taste. This is true both of fine garments for the body and of adornings for the intelligence.'—Laziness makes everything difficult, work makes everything easy.—Comment upon this maxim of La Fontaine: 'To be kind to the bad is to be unwise.'—'Think, speak, write as if you had a thousand witnesses.' Enlarge upon this thought.—Enlarge upon this one: 'Adversity is the touchstone of friendship.' The swallows stay with us in the summer, the cold makes them fly away; so is it with false friends."

—M. Ernest Lavisse of the French Academy makes some excellent remarks on these selections and directions, observing justly that it would be far better to teach the art of condensation than skill in dilution. He notes, also, the truth that words mean different things according to the person who uses them and the epoch at which they are used, and that a young girl who knows Mme. de Maintenon only by name, and is ignorant of the language of the seventeenth century, is necessarily unaware that her "simple" meant "sincere," and she is consequently absolutely misled by the phrase. Just so, no one but a student of Rousseau knows what "nature" meant in his mouth, and it is doing ill by a young girl to let her fancy her composition has been based on "a saying of Mme. de Maintenon," "a saying of Jean Jacques Rousseau." "Poor child!" exclaims M. Lavisse, "she easily learns to believe that she knows about things of which she knows nothing." Almost more to be regretted, as M. Lavisse suggests, is the appeal, and sometimes the sentimental appeal, made in the choice of such subjects to the experience of life—an experience the poor little writers must, perforce, factitiously assume to have had. The passage here dwelt on is only a small part of an interesting article in the first November number of the *Revue de Paris*—a plea for instruction that shall be more instructive than that now given to these young girls. Some ground for hope in this direction is afforded by a ministerial circular lately issued (October 12) suggesting some changes.

—In 'Washington in his Library and Life' (E. & J. B. Young & Co.), President Potter of Hobart College has gathered what he could learn of Washington's library at Mt. Vernon, and in a chatty way has told much that is true—and not a little that is untrue. Indeed, Washington was not at all what President Potter conceives him to have been. He was not bookish; he was not a reader of books; he was not a student of books; he was not "religious." He learned in life's experience, and his strength lay in his use of that experience in judging men's capacity. He rarely made a mistake in choosing his advisers; but from the beginning of the Revolution an adviser he always had. To represent him as a scholar and a lover of books is to give him a character which he never claimed, and which even a superficial examination of his writings would disprove. Such a statement as this—"He marshalled the people by his pen, for, back of his potent presence, books, reading, carefully prepared statements founded on solid information, were the grounds, long overlooked, of his great influence"—has no basis in fact. The account of confederacies in Washington's manuscript was merely a transcript of a paper by Madison, interesting as showing the painstaking of

the man, but not proving book knowledge. Incidentally, Dr. Potter tells us that the spurious MS. "Prayers of Washington" has been purchased by Dr. Hoffman, who intends to distribute pages among certain educational institutions. The mythical aide, "Col. Temple," is again brought forward. The best part of this book is the partial list of the library, together with the chapter on the volumes presented to Washington, as some of the dedications are curious.

—Singular it is that, after so many centuries of writing, it is but just beginning to be discovered that no quantity and no quality of mere chronicle or exposition will convey to the reader a writer's impression of a place. How many have attempted Italy, but a "sampler" of that land of inexhaustible beauty feels justified in declaring that a poignant "sensation of Italy" has been conveyed to him neither by De Brosses nor by Goethe, neither by Gregorovius nor by Symonds, neither by "Vernon Lee" nor (least of all) by M. Bourget. Only in a small volume of sketches recently published (London: Dent; New York: Putnams), under the fanciful title of 'Earthwork out of Tuscany: Impressions and Translations,' written by Mr. Maurice Hewlett, has the miracle been accomplished. Mr. Hewlett is the first writer who, saturated through and through with all that is most artistic in Tuscany, has had the wit to know that he can communicate his sensations only by reincarnating them in readily appealing imaginative form. Happily he has not only the wit, but the skill also. English more colored and pungent will not easily be discovered. We greet in Mr. Hewlett the accomplished artist in what practically is a new art. His incidental translations, whether in prose or in verse, are alike notable. The range of his impressions is masked by his allusive chapter-titles, such as, "Of Poets and Needlework," "The Soul of a Fact," "Quattrocentisteria," etc. The volume is a gem of bookmaking.

—The study of Venetian painting has been greatly enriched of late by the publication of two fascicules of documents bearing vitally upon its history. The patient collector of these documents, Prof. P. P. di Osvaldo, is to be thanked, not only for gathering them out from the chaos of an archive, but also for giving a rare example of abstaining from comments and statements of a kind which not the archivist but the connoisseur only can give. In the first fascicule of his 'Raccolto di Documenti per servire alla Storia della Pittura Veneziana nei Secoli XV. e XVI.,' Signor di Osvaldo publishes all the notices that bear upon the Bellini—one of the most striking instances of transmitted genius in history, for the father, by mere accident less famous than his sons, was no less an artist, and perhaps even more creative. Hitherto, information regarding the father has been of the scantiest. Now we know that he spent most of his life at Venice itself, and not, as has always been supposed, at Padua; that he was a member of various *scuole*, or Mutual Aid Societies, and that he was kept busy. He was still alive and working on August 26, 1470. On November 25 of the following year his *widow* made a will, curiously enough making no mention of Giovanni, but leaving all her belongings to Gentile and another son named Niccolò. An item regarding Giovanni, extracted from a letter written in 1470 by a Venetian merchant at Pera, is decidedly amusing. This merchant begs his correspondent to send him a Christ painted by Lazzaro Sebastiani (one of the most wretched but most popular painters in Venice), but, if he be unwilling to paint it, or dead, then, as a *pis-aller*, to send him a Christ by Giovanni Bellini!

—The second fascicule is of even greater importance, for it throws much needed light upon the careers and reciprocal relations of various painters, some of them mere names, such as Jacobello Cataino, Jacobello Buleghela, Jacobello della Chiesa, and Alberegno, and others better known and even important, such as Dal Fiore, Bono, and the Vivarini. It appears that Antonio Vivarini, known as Antonio da Murano, was, in 1446, living not at Murano, but in the parish of Santa Maria Formosa in Venice. It is definitely established, furthermore, that he was the father of Alvise. Of the latter we learn that he was expelled from the Scuola della Carità in 1488 for non-attendance during many years, and that in 1492 he became a member of the Scuola Grande di San Marco, of which his uncle Bartolommeo was already a member. The recent attempts to vindicate the position of Bartolommeo Montagna as an important artist, and to connect him more closely with Venice and with the school of the Vivarini, are more than confirmed by the document stating that in 1482, while still a young man, he was employed to paint two pictures for the greatest of the Mutual Aid Societies, this same Scuola Grande di San Marco. Another painter whose style of work clearly connected him with the Vivarini, Girolamo Mocetto, is now proved to have been not a Veronese, as has been supposed, but a pure Venetian, and the son of an older painter of the Muranese school, Andrea da Murano.

—Paul Verlaine has just accomplished the pious work of gathering, arranging, and at last publishing in full the poems of his friend—some said his *âme damnée*—Arthur Rimbaud. Rimbaud was, in the completest sense, what Verlaine himself calls a "poëte maudit." If Verlaine were his master, it must be said that the disciple surpassed the master in all his maddest characteristics. There was something almost insane in his excesses. He was more a vagabond than Verlaine, even more at odds with the world, a more stupefying blasphemer, and, at the end, more passionately devout. In his verse he was more an innovator than Verlaine has ever been, and it may be doubted whether he did not himself influence Verlaine more than he was swayed by him. It was Rimbaud whom Verlaine attempted to shoot in a drunken quarrel in Belgium—an act which cost him many months of imprisonment. All of a sudden Rimbaud disappeared, like "Waring." All sorts of stories about him went the rounds of the newspapers: he was dead; he had gone to the far East; he had become a Trappist. At last it came to be asserted that he never had existed, and that the poems published under his name were mystifications. All the while, however, he was in South Africa, hunting for gold, or trafficking in ivory, spices, and gums. At last he returned to France, but too late, for his strength was shattered. He died in a hospital the death of a saint, full of the raptures of mysticism. His poems were scattered in all sorts of places among the reviews of the Jeunes. The best known of all of them, unhappily for him, is the somewhat absurd sonnet on the colors of the vowels:

> "A noir, E blanc, I rouge, U vert, O bleu, voyelles,
> Je dirai quelque jour vos naissances latentes."

It may well be doubted whether this sonnet was ever seriously meant; it is quite as likely to have been thrown out as a stumbling-block for critics to fall over, and to make talk. Rimbaud's serious work was of much greater value. It has been, and may properly be, compared to that of Poe. At any rate, Rimbaud, more than any other, influenced Verlaine, and Verlaine is the acknowledged master and leader of the younger French poets of our time.

COUES'S EXPEDITIONS OF PIKE.

The Expeditions of Zebulon Montgomery Pike to Head-Waters of the Mississippi River, through Louisiana Territory, and in New Spain, during the years 1805-6-7. A new edition, now first reprinted in full from the original of 1810. With copious commentary, memoir of Pike, new map and other illustrations, and complete index. By Elliott Coues, late Captain and Assistant Surgeon U. S. A., etc., etc. 3 vols. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1895.

THIS edition of Pike's explorations is only second in value to the annotated edition of the Journal of Lewis and Clark, by the same editor. Few men have made so deep an impress on the development of their country as did Zebulon M. Pike, who fell at York, Canada, in 1813, at the early age of thirty-four years. Through his individual efforts the Government of the United States initiated its show of authority and interest in the great Northwest, which for nearly a quarter of a century had belonged to it in name but not in fact. He first made known the physical characteristics of the unknown and debatable territory which separated the eastern inhabited parts of the newly acquired Louisiana from the northwestern domains of New Spain. Pike's career in the United States Army was unexampled. He rose in fourteen years through all the intermediate grades from a cadet in the ranks to be a brigadier-general, and died in one of the few successful battles of our second war with Great Britain. In Dr. Coues's memoir of Pike has been gathered much new and hitherto scattered information, especially as to his professional career, methods of work, and as to his death. Whiting's error that Pike was a cadet in his father's regiment, Second Infantry, is perpetuated in this volume; in fact, the law permitted cadets only in the regiments of artillerists and engineers. The U. S. M. P. S. (United States Military and Philosophical Society), to which Pike dedicates his book, and of which Coues gives no account, had among its members the distinguished Fulton, who published one of his remarkable books, 'Torpedoes in Warfare,' as a member of this society. The temper, honor, and ideals of Pike appear in his refusal to employ L'Rone, who proposed to desert from the N.W. (British) Company (p. 174); in his uncomplaining endurance of cold and discomfort (p. 144); in his declaration that in "war the field of action is the sphere of young men, where they aspire to gather laurels or renown to smooth the decline of age, or a glorious death" (p. 225); in his description of Frazer as a man possessing "that without which an education serves but to add to frivolity of character—candor, bravery, and that *amor patriæ* which distinguish the good of every nation"; and finally in his last published orders that any pillaging soldier "shall, if convicted, suffer death. Courage and bravery in the field do not more distinguish the soldier than humanity after victory." His last letter runs: "Should I be the happy mortal destined to turn the scale of war, will you not rejoice, oh my father? May heaven be propitious and smile

on the cause of my country. But if I am destined to fall, may my fall be like Wolfe's, to sleep in the arms of victory." The next day, April 27, Pike, while awaiting a white flag and succoring a wounded foe, was mortally wounded by the explosion of the enemy's magazine. Dr. Coues gives an excellent account of the battle of York, and, among other original information, prints the official reports of Gen. Sheaffe (xci–xciii), in which the following extracts show that the main magazine was exploded by his orders: "I caused our grand magazine to be blown up," and, "The troops were withdrawn towards the town, and the grand magazine was at the same time blown up."

Pike's first expedition, 1805, was made from St. Louis by flatboat up the Mississippi, under orders of Gen. Wilkinson to ascertain the conditions of British trade within the limits of the United States, and to draw the Indian tribes to their allegiance to the Government. He built winter quarters four miles below Little Falls, Minn., and, with a small field force, explored in the very dead of winter the head-waters of the Mississippi, and visited the various posts of the Northwest Company (British). He made a treaty with the Indians for cession of land near Fort Snelling to the United States—much like other Indian treaties of that period—whose legality his editor amusingly questions, and brought the traders under control. Pike's dealings with the traders were decisive, forcible, and fair; he forgave the past, remedied existing conditions, imposed proper restrictions for the future, and returned in triumph and safety to St. Louis. The most important geographical information under this section contributed by Dr. Coues is the full elucidation of the original discovery or determination of the true source of the Mississippi River, in which the repeated efforts from Pike to Schoolcraft are set forth. Then follows the success of Nicollet, 1836, in discovering "the several Nicollet Springs [which] issue from the ground and form a rill whose waters (through Middle Nicollet Lake and Lake Itasca) are continuous to the Gulf of Mexico" (p. 167). It may be here added that, although the index is unusually full, yet omissions occur, and the source of the Mississippi, to which ten pages of text are given, is not indexed under that river. The five original charts of Pike are reproduced quite satisfactorily, and in passing let it be said that it is a relief to find Pike's plagiarism of Humboldt's map of 1804 frankly acknowledged. The new, additional map, a historico-geographical chart of the upper Mississippi, is, over and above its illustrative value, a most welcome contribution for historical students. It is based on the best maps of the Corps of Engineers, United States Army, and bears a large amount of historical information judiciously selected and carefully compiled.

In June, 1806, less than two months after his return from the upper Mississippi, Pike started on his expedition to New Spain. His ostensible object was to restore freed captives to the Osage Nation, to establish friendly relations with the Comanches at the head waters of the Arkansas and Red Rivers near New Mexico, to explore these rivers—one party to return by the Arkansas and the other by the Red River—and to acquire such geographical knowledge as would insure a definitive determination of the boundary line between Louisiana and north Mexico. Dr. Coues has been at very great pains to outline definitely Pike's route to New Mexico through Missouri, Colorado, and Kansas. In the last named State he followed to the southwest the broad trail made by a Spanish force from Santa Fé under Malgares, who had invaded the United States and tampered with the Indian tribes in an effort to forestall Pike's efforts. From near Great Bend, Kansas, Pike sent his lieutenant (Wilkinson) with seven men down the Arkansas, while he, with Dr. Robinson, started westward. It should be borne in mind that this country was absolutely unknown to Americans. Pike's discovery of the Rocky or "Mexican" Mountains, as he called them; his unsuccessful efforts to ascend the great peak which bears his name; his sufferings in exploring the valley of the upper Arkansas, and the heroic though rash determination with which he crossed the maze of unexplored mountains into the valley of the upper Rio Grande, merit the attention of every American interested in the exploration and development of his country.

Leaving two men in a block-house at the present site of Cañon City, Ark., January 14, 1807, he followed up Grape Creek, passed through the Sand Hill pass of the Sangre de Cristo range, and, entering the San Luis valley, reached the Rio Grande near the present site of Alamosa. Believing this to be the Red River, Pike crossed it, and, camping on the south bank of the Conejos, here constructed a stockade. This mid-winter journey was made in extremely cold weather through snow, in summer clothing, with insufficient food. Nine men were frozen, two (Sparks and Dougherty) suffering to such an extent that they were necessarily left in a mountain camp with meat and ammunition. From the stockade a party was sent back across the range to bring in the baggage and the frozen men, if they could travel, but, the soldiers being still helpless, the party returned, and later the sufferers were succored by Sergeant Meek and Private Miller. This story of the courage and steadfastness of American soldiers should be read in its plain and simple recitation in detail of the most extreme sufferings and hardships, which were considered as a matter of course.

After the strengthening of the stockade, Dr. Robinson was sent to Santa Fé for the ostensible purpose of presenting a Spanish claim, but in reality to spy out the trade prospects, military force, etc. As a final result, Pike was visited by a Spanish officer of dragoons, escorted to Santa Fé, examined by Gov. Allencaster and sent to Chihuahua, Robinson rejoining the command at Albuquerque. Escorted from Chihuahua across the Rio Grande, they passed through Texas by the way of San Antonio, and on July 1, 1807, reached the United States at Natchitoches. Dr. Robinson, it may be added, was never commissioned in the army, despite Pike's recommendation. The fate of the men left in New Spain remains unsettled, both in Pike's narrative and in Coues's notes, except as regards Vasquez. It might be said, however, that probably all returned to the United States, the army records showing that Corporal Jackson reënlisted in the Second Infantry in 1809.

As to Wilkinson's object in sending Pike into New Spain, it is useless to surmise, but doubtless it was in furtherance of the ambitious schemes of that unscrupulous officer. Pike knowingly entered with an armed force the limits of a friendly country (for, even if he mistook the Rio Grande for the Red River, he was fortified on the Spanish side of it), detached his surgeon from his command, concealed his connection with his doctor, and secretly obtained all possible information concerning the physical and military conditions of New Spain; all of which indicates that he acted with method, under secret orders, and for a definite purpose. His whole career shows that he was a loyal subordinate and a man of a high sense of honor, who would not, without orders from his superiors, have acted as a spy while being escorted with courtesy and consideration through the country. Doubtless he considered that he was patriotically paying the Spanish in their own coin for Malgares's invasion of American territory the year previous.

Dr. Coues has brought together many valuable bits of information regarding the journey to New Spain, notably the extract from Meline giving the Spanish view of Pike's invasion. Governor Allencaster looked on it as preliminary to permanent occupation of contiguous territory, and, in his official report, says:

"From what I gathered from Robinson and from the above named officer [Pike], I conclude distinctly that the expedition of July [1806] was specially designed to conciliate two Indian tribes in behalf of the United States Government. . . . Furthermore, that the Anglo-American Government considers as included within the boundaries of Louisiana all the rivers that empty into the Mississippi, and all the territories that extend to the headwaters of the Rio Colorado [Canadian River]; . . . that it is their intention this year or next to establish forts or settlements on all these rivers, in order to monopolize all the trade and commerce."

Among many valuable notes, those on pp. 639-47, 654, 747, and 764 elucidate the geographic and military history of localities which were not specially dwelt upon by Pike, but have become memorable since his time. The ethnological notes are specially interesting in connection with New Mexico, pp. 727-48; they bear on the Pueblo and Apache Indians, whose relations with the United States form a not unimportant chapter of American history. Dr. Coues appears at his best in dealing with the Indian tribes that have occupied New Mexico and Arizona. Other notes, too numerous to mention, are of varied importance and interest. The rearrangement by Dr. Coues of the appendices and other extraneous matter adds very greatly to the value of this edition, since in all others even the experienced reader has found it difficult to collate complete information on many important topics. It is unfortunate that the editorial comments are not always pertinent and dignified. Slang terms are used, remarks reflecting upon brother officers appear, and the notes are occasionally obtrusive, if not offensive, as regards religious topics. The remarks (p. 158) on Schoolcraft's invention of new words are in very questionable taste. In many instances the notes are chargeable with prolixity. If the scope of them was to pass beyond illustrations of the men and places named in Pike's narrative, it would have seemed advisable to devote time and attention to historical comments upon existing conditions of affairs in the Northwest Territory and in New Spain.

Despite these minor defects, the volumes are an important contribution to geographical and historical literature.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

'Children's Stories in American Literature,' by Henrietta G. Wright (Charles Scribner's Sons), does not make the most of a good opportunity. After a general chapter on "the early literature," there are sixteen chapters on as many American authors, beginning with Audubon and ending with Holmes. The emphasis is much more on their books than on their characters and lives, and the account of their books is as mechanical as the details of a publisher's catalogue, with

something of the manner of the notices furnished by publishers to editors for their "indolent reviewers." The praise is here and there too patriotic to be just, as where Cooper's place in American literature is said to be similar to that of Scott in England. There is not a word of Cooper's ebullient temper and his stubborn battle with a libellous press. But for a passing allusion to his college pranks, Poe appears quite as immaculate as Emerson, who has the briefest chapter in the book. On the other hand, as little as possible is made of Parkman's heroic struggle against fearful odds. Prescott's disabilities receive somewhat more attention, but not much. The young reader is not permitted to know that there was anything painful in Motley's ministerial career. The birthplace of Bryant is assigned to the Berkshire Hills, and the assertion that "Green River" was a poem of his manhood, retrospective of his boyhood, is without any justification. It will be a bright boy who does not carry away from the high-flown account of "Yankee Doodle" in the first chapter an impression of his historical reality.

Among the recent boys' stories of the civil war 'Jack Benson's Log,' by Col. Charles Ledyard Norton (Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co), will take a high rank. The hero is a New England boy who goes from a quaint boarding-school to the Naval Academy at Annapolis, and from thence to one of the blockading squadron off the Carolina coast. The incidents, such as the attempted capture of "Old Ironsides" and the night expedition on the Santee River, are well chosen, and are described with much spirit and a realistic sea-flavor. Our only criticism would be that the author at times sacrifices his story to an endeavor to write history which most boys may be fairly presumed to know. The book, which is well illustrated, covers only the first year of the war, and its readers will look with interest for the promised sequel.

'In the Okefenokee,' by Louis Pendleton (Boston: Roberts Brothers), is also a story of war time, but the fighting is with wildcats and bears. Two lads wander into a camp of deserters in the heart of the great Georgia swamp and are detained by them for several weeks. Their adventures in their futile attempts to escape cannot fail to interest even older readers than those for whom the book was written, so novel are the scenes and so well described are the principal characters, especially the manly and patriotic little hero. The story, in a much abbreviated form, originally appeared in the *Youth's Companion*.

A gratuitous excellence of workmanship, not common in children's stories, and a leaning to theatrical effect emphasize the French origin of 'The Three Apprentices of Moon Street,' by Georges Montorgueil (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). The three boys, John, Johnnie, and Jack, are too strictly typical of the three grades of character inferable from their names to be natural. Unfortunately, perverse human nature likes best to see in books a reflection of familiar objects. Hence the boys are interesting in inverse ratio to their virtue, and the very end for which we may suppose them to have been made thus typical is defeated. The best one is monstrously unnatural, the middling one is vague, and only the "dreadful warning" seems like a boy at all.

Criticism is somewhat disarmed when Mrs. Burnett announces that they were by no means ordinary children whose journey to the Chicago Fair she narrates in 'Two Little Pilgrims' Progress' (Scribners). Perhaps a twelve-year-old boy and girl might have planned such an expedition a year ahead, and have worked hard and constantly to earn money for it, but it passes belief that they could have done all this without a hint to any one, and actually have carried out their purpose unsuspected. That they should have attracted a rich man, who finally adopted them, is natural enough: it is what always happens to poor orphans who are too young to get married. The book is brightly written, as was to be expected, with many pleasant touches; but it would be better if addressed more squarely and directly to children. The side glances at the "grown up" gallery are too frequent to escape notice from the real audience, and are likely to make it uneasy.

The reappearance of Mowgli and other friends in Mr. Kipling's 'Second Jungle Book' (The Century Co.) will be hailed with pleasure by many young readers whom the original 'Jungle Book' delighted last year. Mowgli has grown in size, but is still uncorrupted and simple. Hathi and Bagheera and the other agreeable, dignified, and witty beasts are the same as ever. The book deepens and amplifies the vivid impression of life in India which Mr. Kipling has already given, and carries one into the very heart of a new and strange world as only a master's work could do.

It was evidently a struggle against nature to subdue the fascinating city of Florence to a mere background in 'A Child of Tuscany,' by Marguerite Bouvet (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). It seems a useless struggle, too, since the characters have so little substance and reality that they hardly deserve any background at all. The phantom people might better retire and let Florence assert itself.

Full of the life of sea and shore about her island of Appledore are Mrs. Celia Thaxter's 'Stories and Poems for Children' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The flowers in her garden, the sandpipers on the beach, the robin's nest in the lilac bush, and the circling gulls overhead —such are the simple things which filled her soul with delight and overflowed in graceful verse. The stories are very slight, the merest thread of incident, but so pleasantly told that they should find favor.

The excessive exuberance which has marked some of Mrs. Laura E. Richards's former stories seems to have broken out on the cover of her latest book, 'Nautilus' (Estes & Lauriat). Here a black and white square-rigged "schooner" sails with jibboom pointing skyward across a white and yellow sea, driven by a wind as violent as the brilliant chrome sky. Such a remarkable design may be imagined to have absorbed a good deal of superfluous color from the pages. Whatever the cause of improvement, we have, this time, a fairly straightforward tale of a boy, unspoiled by much ill-treatment, who was rescued from a miserable life by a good, undreamt-of uncle. Perhaps to children, used as they are to believe "six impossible things before breakfast," it will not seem too unlikely that a foreign uncle should first have made known his existence by sailing up the river and, with little ceremony, carrying off the boy in his schooner *Nautilus*.

'The Rabbit Witch, and Other Tales,' by Katharine Pyle (E. P. Dutton & Co.), revives both the pantalettes and the very moral verses which go with them to make what an original child called a "pantaletty" book. Here is set forth the warning fate of children who were "far from good," who "liked to make a noise"; of the girl who would "shout and play with boys," and the boy who "would not eat his bread and milk"—the latter in contrast to the antique greedy boy, whom no one ever saw. There is something engaging about the frankness of these little moralities, and at the early age when children like them they may help to formulate notions of propriety. The illustrations are excellent.

The Century Co. publish Mr. Palmer Cox's fifth Brownie book, 'The Brownies through the Union.' It might be more of a geography lesson than would go down even with the appetizing Brownie sauce if every State were visited, so the Brownies wisely content themselves with fourteen, well scattered, and manage to find something interesting in each. The youngsters will enjoy picking out their old favorites in the pictures to see what new antics they are up to.

Having gone pretty much through the spectrum with his successive fairy books, Mr. Andrew Lang now has a series of "True Story Books" well going, the blue one of last year being succeeded by the red one which the Longmans have just brought out. Here we have Rider Haggard's story of Major Wilson's last fight on the Shangani; Mr. Lang himself on the Maid of France, and Mrs. Lang in several adaptations from Froissart and others; tales by Mr. Crockett, Miss Repplier, and others, with generous extracts from Marbot and Prescott. Not to let the fairies entirely escape him in this sober light of day, Mr. Lang also publishes 'My Own Fairy Book' (Longmans). It is addressed, apparently, to readers who have become well sophisticated if not a little blasé by a long course in the author's collections of fairy stories, since he now plays openly whimsical tricks with the solemn old stage properties of fairyland—the magic carpet, the cap of darkness, etc. Yet we doubt not that many a modern child will find amusement in seeing the heads of his former idols knocked together in this way.

Many hands of varying skill have written the dozen or so of stories which make up 'The Silver Fairy Book' (Putnams). From the French, German, Spanish, Swedish, Servian, etc., they come, all fitted to amuse some child's empty moments, and guiltless of more serious intention.

Again that exhaustless treasury of the marvellous, the 'Arabian Nights,' has furnished a handsome gift book. 'More Fairy Tales from the Arabian Nights' (Putnams) includes several of the most famous stories, edited by E. Dixon and finely illustrated by J. B. Batten. It seems better worth while so to enrich these older tales than to strive after mere novelty.

"Cinderella," "Ali Baba," "Aladdin," "Bluebeard," Mother Goose, and Aesop are mustered familiarly in twelve charmingly printed, illustrated, and bound little volumes issued by Dent-Macmillan. They come in a neat box, and are a desirable gift if only to acquaint the youngest with the art of fine book-making. "Banbury Cross" is the name bestowed on the series.

A Victorian Anthology, 1837-'95. Edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman. Selections illustrating the editor's critical review of British poetry in the reign of Victoria. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE mere announcement of a Victorian Anthology by so well-appointed a critic as Mr. Stedman has doubtless given pleasure, not alone to a great many readers of his 'Victorian Poets,' but to a larger circle beyond. They will find nothing to disappoint them in the general arrangement of the book, the prevailing good taste of the selections, or the

thoroughness of the critical apparatus. If any disappointment should arise, it will be founded mainly on the fact that this book follows a little too closely on the lines of its predecessor, reflects too fully its estimates, and goes too little beyond its list of authors. When it is considered that the 'Victorian Poets' appeared originally in 1875, and was not essentially modified in the revision of 1887, and that the outburst of new rhymers has been only less remarkable, even since this last date, than that of new novelists, it is probable that this latest anthology will be most eagerly sought, by many, as a means of getting at these latest candidates for fame. In this respect there will be, we fancy, some occasional disappointment. The author himself would admit, probably, that had his book been created *de novo*, and not been, in a manner, the second part of a class-book, his heroes and heroines might have been somewhat different. Landor, Hood, Peacock, Procter, and Montgomery undoubtedly survived into the Victorian epoch, but they seem much remoter figures in 1895 than in 1875; and in some cases their fame can scarcely be said to have survived at all. At any rate, their works have been sifted and resifted for anthologies; and there is far less probability that any ingenuous reader will look for some information about them in this anthology than that he will consult it for some knowledge of Henley or Grant Allen, for instance, who are not to be found here at all. So the young enthusiast who hears of the "poets of the Bodley Head" or of the "Rhymers' Club," will find only about half the tuneful chorus under the latter name here recognized, while the other half is ignored. Nor is there any clear principle of selection among these. Yeats, for instance, is *facile princeps* among them all; and Le Gallienne is at least well advertised; but there seems no reason why Rhys and Symons and Todhunter should be "personally conducted" across the Atlantic to the exclusion of such other *dii minores* as Dawson, Ellis, Hillier, Lionel Johnson, Plarr, Radford, and Rolleston. Indeed, no other writer in the club has given us so much of the bewitching Yeats flavor as Lionel Johnson in his verses "To Morfydd."

Of course, no anthologist is expected to include all the poetlings, but compilers should at least give us the more noticeable. Bennoch has a claim upon Americans as the friend of Hawthorne; Auberon Herbert has interest for us as a patrician radical; the French and English poems of Raffalovich have a grace of their own; Gascoigne Mackie's 'Poems Dramatic and Democratic' have much vigor, and so has Edward Carpenter's 'Towards Democracy,' whose Whitmanesque flavor will form, in Mr. Stedman's eyes, no objection. We cannot but think that poets like these, and others who might easily be added, would have been included in the 'Victorian Anthology' if it could have been entirely detached from the work to which it is a sequel; if, in other words, the editor could have begun at 1895 and worked backwards, instead of having begun in 1875 and worked forwards.

As to the selections from the better known poets, this must always be largely a matter of what astronomers call the personal equation; and every editor must judge for himself. Yet one rule seems simple, that where there is a pretty general consensus of readers as to a poet's high-water mark in his art, every selection, however limited, should include this, if nothing else. No one would think of making a selection from Holmes, for instance, without putting in "The Chambered Nautilus." All recognize that in this, if anywhere, lies his bid for permanent fame. Now it seems to us clear that Meredith's "Nuptials of Attila," Sir Samuel Ferguson's "The Building of the Ship," Isa Craig-Knox's "The Brides of Quair," Hartley Coleridge's "She was a queen of noble Nature's crowning," Elliott's "Of Mary, by heaven lent," and Montgomery's "Evening among the Alps" and "There lived a man" are in just this category. To our thinking, and by the general recognition, these particular poems are so superior to the rest of their respective authors' work as to leave little room for selection: "Eclipse" is ahead and the rest nowhere. Yet none of these is included by Mr. Stedman. Again, we think it a serious omission to have dismissed Tennyson with no extract from "In Memoriam," and Browning with no example of the noble blank-verse soliloquies in his dramas—for instance, that in "Colombe's Birthday," beginning,

"When is man strong until he feels alone?"

We are surprised, also, that Mr. Stedman has omitted in his selections from Rossetti—too short at best, only six pages being given to him and twelve to William Morris—his finest example of lyrical cadence, "The Song of the Bower." The same might be said as to the omission of Swinburne's heroic "Song in Time of Order." Even with our editor's selections from Kipling, evidently a favorite of his, we are not quite satisfied. Nowhere has this poet shown such a grip of iron as in the "Ballad of Bolivar," if indeed it is surpassed in English literature for that quality; and certainly never such a haunting charm as in his "Mandalay," a poem which cannot be read aloud so prosaically as not to furnish its own guitar accompaniment. But Mr. Stedman might say, perhaps justly, that we are here reverting too much to the personal equation.

The Bibliographical Notes are, as was to be expected from Mr. Stedman, full and careful, though they are here attributed to Miss Vernetta E. Coleman, with an occasional intercalation by the senior editor. Possibly they include a little too much criticism, unless there were more; it is so hard to sum up in a word. We should not, for instance, call Mr. Lang an "authoritative" author—he is much too hasty and whimsical for such a phrase; his London sobriquet of "The Amateur Genius" is far better. As to accuracy, we have found few slips. The impression is given (p. 707) that Charles Tennyson Turner's Sonnets were not collected until after his death, but a small volume of them appeared, in 1830, before he took the name of Turner. Fitzgerald's "Euphranor" and "Polonius" are not translations (p. 689), nor do they purport to be, but are fragmentary original compositions. It might have been well to say that Clough's hexameter poem, "The Bothie of Tober-na-Vuolich," was originally called "The Bothie of Toper-na-Fuosich," since it became best known in this country under the latter name, through Emerson's zealous praises. The triviality of these criticisms is our best tribute to the excellence of these Bibliographical Notes; and as for typographical errors, the whole handsome volume does not seem to afford one.

Icebound on Kolguev. By Aubyn Trevor-Battye. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xxviii, 458. Ills. and maps.

NORTH of Tcheskaia Bay, and a little less than half way between the entrance to the White Sea and Novaia Zemlia, lies the low rounded alluvial island of Kolguev (pronounced *Kol-goo-yeff*). Surrounded by ice during a large part of the year, without harborage for anything larger than a small schooner, it is rarely visited and is hardly known except to a few Russian traders from the adjacent mainland. Its name was first recorded by Stephen Burrough in 1556. For three hundred years it was practically unexplored, and the first scientific examination of it was made by Savelieff and Ruprecht in the summer of 1841. They spent but six days on the island, much of which was stormy weather. The shores are comparatively low, and the island is ovoid in shape, about 52 miles north and south and 37 miles east and west, rising towards the centre into a few low hills, the highest being about 150 feet above the sea. These summits are holy places to the Samoyeds, and are marked by rude wooden fetishes, or sticks set in the soil, with a roughly carved face on the upper end and a few transverse grooves, representing ribs, just below it. These sticks are supposed to represent a deity, called Num, to whom sacrifices were made on the hill-tops, where, on the death of a member of the tribe, some of his personal belongings were carried and deposited as a propitiatory rite. The fetishes are called by the Russians "bolvani," and by the Samoyeds "shaiadeh."

The island has been inhabited by Samoyeds from time immemorial, and, owing to their isolation, the sparse population of the island has retained its primitive customs to a greater extent than is the case among the Samoyeds of the mainland. Half a century ago the island was the seat of a considerable traffic in the skins of the polar bear, seal, and walrus, down, and reindeer products. The number of deer is stated to have reached 25,000, of which part were the property of the natives and part belonged to Russian traders, who visited the island annually to take away the skins, salt meat, and tallow. The herds were attacked by a pestilence which destroyed the deer by thousands, a blow from which the island has never recovered. At the present time there seem to be but a few thousand deer, and the trade attracts but two or three tiny vessels once a year. The island is a breeding-ground for multitudes of arctic water-fowl, especially geese, and a very important part of the subsistence of the inhabitants is derived from the annual trapping of the geese while moulting—a practice which has been carried on from ancient times. As many as 100,000 geese are said to have been taken in a single season.

Mr. Trevor-Battye is an enthusiastic ornithologist, and his attention had been called to Kolguev as a promising spot for collecting specimens and data in regard to the breeding habits of northern birds. With a friend he proceeded to charter a small steam yacht, and in June, 1894, with a single companion, succeeded in making a landing on the northern end of the island. Here, after wandering about for some time, he reached a Samoyed camp, and afterward a point on the south coast where the yacht was expected to call in July. This plan was frustrated by the presence of ice, and the explorers were forced to remain on the island until September, finally escaping to the mainland on the barkass of the Russian trader. During his enforced stay the author was often the guest of the Samoyeds, and found much to admire in the character of these simple, honest, primitive folk, from whom he parted with regret. Although far from being a trained ethnologist, his notes and observations will have permanent value for the anthropologist. Satisfactory collections of birds and plants were made, which are treated of in an appendix.

The book is almost a direct transcript of the author's journal, and its faults are those common to such documents. While one cannot but recognize that a better trained observer might have brought back a richer harvest in lines not ornithological or botanical, and that the relation of adventure is somewhat diffuse, yet the unpretentious manner in which the author recounts his experiences disarms criticism on this score. There are many excellent illustrations and three good maps. The book is handsomely printed, and has a good index.

The Psychology of Number, and its Applications to Methods of Teaching Arithmetic. By James A. McLellan and John Dewey. [International Educational Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1895.

THE two respected scholars whose names appear upon the title-page of this work, in their eagerness to illustrate the important truth that the teaching of arithmetic ought to be based upon a thorough acquaintance with psychology, seem to have clean forgotten that there are two other legs to the tripod on which it should rest, viz., an exact logical analysis, and a lively appreciation and comprehension of the nature of mathematics in general. As long as nothing but psychology is called for, what they say is admirable—this, for example:

"There are but few children who do not at first delight in number. Counting (the fundamental process of arithmetic) is a thing of joy to them. . . . When, under the formal teaching of number, that interest, instead of being quickened and strengthened, actually dies out, the method of teaching must be seriously at fault. . . . The native aptitude for number is continually baffled. . . . The child is adjudged to have no interest in number and no taste for mathematics; and to nature is ascribed an incapacity due to irrational instruction. . . . It is perhaps not too much to say that nine-tenths of those who feel that they have no aptitude for mathematics owe this misfortune to wrong teaching at first."

Excellent; and even more true of geometry than of arithmetic. Again, the authors are admirably alive to the futility of any attempt to teach any branch of mathematics until the scholar has been made to feel with some accuracy what the use of it is. Of course, you cannot convey to young children your own meaning when you say, what all grown people discover, that the happiness of life very greatly depends upon facility in ciphering. Yet you must try to cast some adumbration of the distinction between happiness and misery upon their poor little hearts, and make them associate the one with arithmetical expertness and the other with neglect of numbers. That should be Lesson I. in arithmetic.

Upon such generalities of the art of teaching, too usually neglected, Profs. McLellan and Dewey are perfect. But these things have been said before. When we come down to details, depending upon the nature of mathematical thought, they are more often wrong than right. They have allowed secondary truths and half-truths to run away with them. For instance, their own conception of the purpose and end of numbers is not true either in scientific mathematics or in life. They tell us that numbers are for measurement, for valuation. This is not accurate; but, waiving that for a moment, we ask what measurement and valuation are for? Though we are not explicitly told, we gather that they are supposed to be mainly useful to improve our general conceptions. But that may be disputed. Except casually and secondarily, numbers—arithmetical numbers—do not contribute to our conceptions. Their greatest utility by far—a utility more fundamental than that of all the constants of physics or the tables of the statisticians—is to keep our daily accounts, and so continually to check up our conduct without imparting any definite ideas. For 999 school-children out of a thousand this is destined to be the chief manner in which a knowledge of arithmetic will further their welfare. The corollary is, that the casting up of columns of figures easily, and swiftness in making those mental calculations which will enable them to overreach others in bargaining, are the bull's-eyes to be aimed at. True, man does not live by bread alone; but it must be the chief of his diet, so far as his nutriment is to come from arithmetic. If the Theory of Numbers were studied, that undoubtedly would afford a valuable training in logic, and impart some little exercise in mathematical generalization and even in mathematical imagination. But there is very, very little of all that in Vulgar Arithmetic.

It is a capital error, leading to the worst pedagogical blunders, to suppose that numbers have any significations whatever. Are "Eeny, meeny, mony, mi," etc, significant words? Charles Leland says they are Gipsy numerals. At any rate, they have precisely the force, use, and sense of primitive numbers. The essential use of numbers is that which the tourist in Italy has to put them to when he lugs about with him some baker's dozen of hand-packages, big and little, of all shapes and sorts, with no semblance of equality, but so many detached things, liable to be separately lost, and requiring to be incessantly counted. He might just as well use the words, "Eeny, meeny, mony, mi," etc., as "One, two, three, four," etc. Or he might use the syllables of "Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott," etc. In fact, the system of cardinal numbers may be defined as a scale of vocables, used as intermediary, for the establishment of one-to-one correspondences between different collections. To say, as our authors do, that the idea of measurement enters into the idea of all number, and should never be lost sight of in teaching, is on its theoretical side to confound things usefully distinguished, and on its practical side to fly in the face of the embryological maxim that the development of individual thought must follow the course of the development of thought in history. After we have once got the idea of metrical equality, we can perceive that it is verbally applicable (with little or no meaning) to the units of numeration. But that reflection does not help us to count. Who can doubt that man counted for ages before he began to measure, in the proper sense, and therefore before he had the conception of metrical equality?

It is useful to distinguish the different purposes of numbers, because a distinct system of numbers, each with its distinct modification of logic, is used for each purpose. For *counting*, we must use cardinal numbers; for the *assignment of places in cycles*, we use limited series (the names of the days of the week is such a system of numbers); for *dating* in series running indefinitely both ways (like the years B.C. and A.D.), we require negative as well as positive integers; for *measurement*, we need rational fractions; for *reasonings about continua*, where first the idea of a limit comes in, we need surds; for *comparing functions*, we need imaginaries; for *four-dimensional continuous numerations*, quaternions. It is a truism to say that, in teaching, one idea should be inculcated at a time, and the most rudimentary first. But above all in arithmetic, which, in its most practically important aspect, is a question of physiological habit of rapid, accurate ciphering, the less the operation is interfered with by superfluous reflections, the better. No doubt it is necessary to teach certain simple methods of reasoning; but they must be performed in an instinctive, quasi-mechanical way, without philosophizing. One can, with a microscope, detect traces of mathematics in vulgar arithmetic, but there is so little intellectual value in it, while it is so stupendously important as a practical skill, that it is better to sacrifice the former utility to the latter. To evaluate this work from the former point of view we should need no monstrous number, while from the latter standpoint we fear the datary system of numeration would have to be drawn upon.

Indian Polity: A View of the System of Administration in India. By Gen. Sir George Chesney, K. C. B., M.P. 3d edition. Longmans. Pp. xx, 400.

THE British administration of India is one of the most remarkable existing systems of government. A great empire, containing three hundred millions of people of different races and religions and in various stages of civilization, is administered by about a thousand English covenanted civil servants, assisted by a few thousand white subordinates and supported by about seventy thousand white soldiers. This fact is of itself such an astounding proof of the governing ability of the Anglo-Saxon race that it gives cause for surprise to find the general ignorance prevailing as to the methods and success of the British administration in India. Nothing like it has been seen in the world since the days when the Romans dominated Europe, Western Asia, and Northern Africa, bringing to tribes hardly more diverse than the peoples of India the material benefits of roads and bridges with the moral supremacy of law and order. Nothing could be more interesting than to compare the Roman government of the provinces during the golden days of the Roman domination with the administrative system established in India; and the chief difficulty in the way of such a study has hitherto been the absence of authoritative works describing either the Roman or the Anglo-Indian system. Within recent years, however, the works of Mommsen and others have done much to elucidate the Roman administrative system, while Sir George Chesney has, in the volume under review, arrayed the facts and principles of Indian administration in an orderly fashion. A comparative study, only less interesting than the one just suggested, might also be made of the methods adopted by three of the European Powers in ruling subject races, if there were in existence books as clear and complete as Sir George Chesney's, upon the Dutch administration of Java and the Spice Islands and the French administration of Algeria. The problem of the best method of governing alien races situated at a distance from the centre of rule does not, and is never likely to, confront the American people. But, since systems of government should interest thoughtful minds in spite of the absence of the probability of practical application, students of politics would do well to turn their attention at times to India as affording an object-lesson for the successful surmounting of the peculiar difficulties inherent in alien rule in distant provinces.

Sir George Chesney, whose lamented death last year closed a career in which he won distinction as a soldier, a politician, an administrator, and a man of letters, was well qualified to undertake the task of clearly describing

the system which he himself knew well from practical experience. Though a clever writer, as his pamphlet 'The Battle of Dorking' clearly showed, and an able novelist, as his romance 'The Dilemma,' the best story ever written with its scene laid in the stirring days of the Indian Mutiny, fully proved, Chesney's fame will undoubtedly rest upon his 'Indian Polity.' The first edition appeared as far back as 1868, when the young officer of engineers was at home on a furlough, after having distinguished himself as a soldier at the siege of Delhi and exhibited his abilities as a subordinate administrator in many public offices. The success of his book, perhaps even more than his services, brought him the appointment of President of the Indian Civil Engineering College at Cooper's Hill in 1870, when it fell to him to organize from the beginning the great institution which has sent forth its crowds of graduates to develop the resources of India by means of railways, roads, and great engineering works. From 1880 to 1886 Chesney served as Military Secretary to the Government of India, and from 1886 until 1891 as a member of the Viceroy's Council. These offices enabled him to observe the workings of the Indian administration from a different point of view, and his more recent experience is shown in the careful revision which his book has undergone, and which has vastly improved it from the original text published when he was but a young officer. The arrangement of chapters, however, remains practically the same.

The introductory outline of Indian history is too short to be satisfactory, but it lays the foundation for the subsequent pages. In different chapters the author treats of the Supreme Government, the provincial governments, the legislative councils, the great departments, the district organization, the army, the different branches of public works, and finance. His chapters are descriptive, not controversial, and form incontestably the best source from which to obtain an accurate knowledge of the whole system of Indian administration. The only thing that can be compared with them is the chapters in Sir W. W. Hunter's encyclopædic work, 'The Indian Empire,' but Sir William had so much to include in his bulky volume that he was not able to give the same space to administrative questions as Sir George Chesney has done. It is a pity, however, that this new edition of Chesney's work was brought out before the amalgamation of the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay armies in the present year, and the substitution, for the antiquated presidential armies, of four army corps directly under the superintendence of the Commander-in-Chief, and that this great improvement, which Chesney himself had much at heart, should therefore remain unchronicled. With a knowledge of Hunter's chapters and Chesney's book, the student of administrative systems can obtain a fair working knowledge of the India which Mr. Kipling has made familiar to us all; and if further information is desired, several excellent books might be mentioned which have appeared during the last few months dealing with specific branches, notably Mr. Macgeorge's 'Ways and Works in India,' describing the manifold labors of the public-works department, and Mr. Tupper's 'Our Indian Protectorate,' classifying the relations between the Supreme Government and the various grades and types of native Indian princes. Such books as these might well be studied in classes and courses of lectures dealing with administrative systems; and in such classes and courses no better text-book could be adopted than the immediate subject of these remarks.

Goethe und die Brüder Grimm. Von Reinhold Steig. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz. Pp 245.

GOETHE's personal influence was enormous. In the most widely separated fields of intellectual activity men turned to him for encouragement and sought the meed of his approval; public opinion was often formed by a word spoken in Weimar or by a page printed in *Kunst und Alterthum;* and doubtless many a man besides Savigny chose his career under the inspiration of some pregnant thought of Goethe's. There is therefore no line of investigation more helpful to the student than that which presents Goethe in his relations to eminent contemporaries. This service Mr. Steig has rendered in the case of the brothers Grimm.

The Grimms were identified with the so-called Romantic School, and Goethe was the bond by which the representatives of that school were united. It was he who had made the German past to live again in "Götz," he who had glorified the Gothic, and he who, in collaboration with Herder, had pointed to the folk-lore of nations as the truest expression of the people's inner life. In the meantime the sojourn in Italy had changed the direction of his endeavors. Towards the somewhat turbulent manifestations of the Old-German movement he maintained a cold reserve. What he had sought in the folk songs was the poetry, but the work of the Romanticists took on a political and patriotic character; moreover, it was tending rapidly to Roman Catholicism. Goethe was repelled. Tempted for a moment into unguarded praise of 'Des Knaben Wunderhorn,' he feared lest his name should be made the watchword of a party. He was in this frame of mind when Wilhelm Grimm sent him the 'Old Danish Songs.' The chilling politeness of his acknowledgments disappointed Grimm, who, however, correctly divined the cause. Indeed, Goethe approached all such collections with caution, for the Germans, he said, "do not always know exactly whether they are bringing in full sheaves of wheat or only bundles of straw." But he was soon to discover that the rich harvest of the Grimms contained nothing but grain.

In 1816 Goethe received the second volume of the 'Fairy Tales.' He was delighted, and the brothers soon had the satisfaction of hearing that Goethe had sent the book to Frau von Stein with words of affectionate praise. We owe it to Wilhelm Grimm that these tales took the popular form in which we read them. Jacob would have treated them from the strictly scientific standpoint, but Wilhelm, acting in the spirit of Goethe, to whom he was spiritually more closely related than his brother, insisted upon the poetic contents. Thus, although the work is but one of the stones in the colossal structure of Germanic philology which the Grimms were building, they made it at the same time, to use Wilhelm's words, "a reading-book for the edification of the German people." The absence of didactic purpose attracted Goethe. Speaking of the poetry of such tales, he said: "Instead of turning a man back upon himself, it lifts him up and bears him forth into regions where he is untrammelled and free."

But from the gloomy cloud-land of the 'Nibelungen' and the Eddas, Goethe always returned to the serene skies and plastic forms of Homer. Old-German literature never excited his lasting sympathy. "One reads it," he said to Eckermann, "and is interested in it for a time, but only in order to have done with it and leave it behind"; and in the second part of "Faust" he treats it as a stage of transition. He was too clear-sighted, however, not to recognize the permanent value of the achievements of the two brothers. He was pleased to see them steadfastly "a-katholisch." Moreover, they opened up for him the rich stores of Servian poetry, and as the astounding range of their learning was revealed and the monumental greatness of their work began to loom before him, he was eager to acknowledge their supremacy in the realms they had made their own. When the Freiherr von Stein unfolded to Goethe the famous Berlin Plan for historical societies in Germany, the latter appealed at once to the Grimms. Wilhelm prepared a valuable memorandum in reply, in which he defined the principles upon which the huge enterprise must be conducted. The object of the Plan was the unification of Germany in the realm of intellect, without which the political unity must remain a patriot's dream. In a period of general gloom these societies were to serve for the deepening of the national consciousness and for the strengthening of hearts. At the very inception of this great undertaking it was to the Grimms that Goethe as a matter of course turned. And yet again in a letter which Goethe wrote to Jacob in 1824 we find: "Let me feel from time to time that I have some share in your labors, which I know how to value, though at a little distance, and for which, so far as I am capable of comprehending them, I am glad to profess my genuine admiration." Thus the stamp of the highest approval had been placed upon the work of the brothers Grimm, even before they had begun to unfold their vaster designs at the Prussian capital.

To trace the causes of this gradual change in Goethe's attitude from benevolent reserve to full, admiring recognition is the task which Mr. Steig set himself; and with a wealth of interesting and instructive material, much of which has been placed at his disposal by Prof. Herman Grimm, he has accomplished his task in this entertaining volume. It will be welcome to every student of that brilliant age when the greatest scholars were poets and the greatest poet was a scholar.

There are a few misprints: Schaper's statue of Goethe in Berlin was unveiled, not in 1887, but in 1880. The book is furnished with an index, which, although it is not full enough, is yet a gratifying sign of better times.

Sacred and Legendary Art. By Anna Jameson. Edited, with additional notes, by Estelle M. Hurll, and abundantly illustrated with designs from ancient and modern art. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THE first instalment of Mrs. Jameson's proposed exhaustive treatise on the Legends of the Christian Church as represented in art, originally appeared in 1848. This book was called 'Sacred and Legendary Art,' a title which it would have been better to reserve for the whole series. 'Legends of the Monastic Orders' appeared in 1850, and 'Legends of the Madonna' in 1852; and after her death the notes she had prepared for a continuation of her work were brought into shape and added to by Lady Eastlake, and published as the 'History of Our Lord.' As the present publication has on the false title the words "The Writings on Art of Anna Jameson, in five volumes," one may infer that the present publishers intend issuing all the works cited

above. The volumes before us correspond to the two volumes of 1848, and deal with the angelic host, the evangelists, the apostles, the doctors of the Church, the patron saints, the martyrs, etc., thus including the larger part of the subjects of legendary painting, except always the persons of the Trinity and the Madonna. Nine times out of ten the questions that arise in regard to an early picture of angels and saints can be answered from the pages of these two volumes, if at all by Mrs. Jameson. The saintly subjects treated in the 'Legends of Monastic Orders' are of much less frequent occurrence as themes for painting and sculpture than the subjects connected with Bible History and the earlier church. The student goes to Mrs. Jameson's books to ask one of two questions: Who is the saint represented with certain attributes? and, What are the attributes with which a certain saint is represented? Beyond this, her pages are interesting reading, and are of valuable assistance in the study of early mediæval history and sociology. In the way of discussion and criticism of Fine Art they are not of great importance.

The original volumes were illustrated by many wood-cuts in the text, single figures for the most part selected from paintings and prints, and also by etchings printed separately and rendering sometimes the whole of a painted composition. The present edition omits the etchings and many, perhaps more than half, of the original text illustrations. To replace these, it gives some new text illustrations at least equal in number to those removed, and about eighteen full page half-tones from famous pictures, including one from Dürer's print of St. Hubert. The editor's changes in the text are chiefly in the verification of statements about works of art. In some cases this amounts to nothing more than a record of the present location of the picture; in some it consists of a change or a questioning of the attribution to a certain master, in some of a correction where it appears that no such picture as mentioned by Mrs. Jameson is known to exist; and in some it involves additional information as to facts connected with the picture or as to works of art not mentioned in the text.

Little Rivers: A Book of Essays in Profitable Idleness. By Henry Van Dyke. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

ANGLING literature owes to clergymen some of its best known works, as the Rev. Josiah Frampton's 'Amusements of Clergymen,' the later delightful book of the Rev. Mr. Newland on 'The Erne: its Legends and its Salmon-fishing,' and the great work of Dr. Bethune, too modestly called the Bibliographical Preface to the Wiley edition of Walton. Dr. Van Dyke has well upheld the high reputation of the cloth in 'Little Rivers,' which is a series of angling sketches on a more serious background, worked into a combination so simple and charming, and so full of the spirit of pastoral and woodland scenes, as to make it sure to become a classic on its subject. With ostensible prominence, though perhaps to introduce and lighten the deeper vein of the book, the angling features are made to appear the most important to the casual reader; but each chapter shows a knowledge and study of the details of nature which could not exist were not Dr. Van Dyke a true and sympathetic lover of the woods and waters he so well describes.

As its title indicates, the volume treats of the various rivers visited and fished by its author in this country and in Canada, with three chapters from his transatlantic experiences. When all are so good it is hard to make a choice, but perhaps the introductory essay, "Little Rivers," and "At the Sign of the Balsam Bough" show most plainly the range of Dr. Van Dyke's powers as revealed in this publication. With a few exceptions the descriptions are accurate. The author has adopted the modern spelling of Ristigouche, changing the "i" in the first syllable to an "e." The Micmac word is "Mith-ti-gouth," 'the river spreading out like a hand,' and the early Government patents call it "Ristigouche." This older spelling has been adopted by the Ristigouche Salmon Club, which, by the way, did not, as is stated on p. 122, "at one time lease the whole river from the Canadian Government." The illustrations are on the whole good, though in some instances lacking in relevancy to the text of the pages near them; and in one case, on p. 139, certain of the Ristigouche settlers are depicted as on the way to Sunday-morning service *poling* down stream. Canoes are always paddled down and poled up stream, and, besides, those in the picture are not of a kind found in any salmon river known in Canada, and are as different from those in use on the Ristigouche as is a dray-horse from a thoroughbred. It is to be hoped that these and a few other superficial flaws may be mended in the future editions of 'Little Rivers,' which even with them is substantially perfect.

The Higher Criticism of the Pentateuch. By W. H. Green. Scribners. 1895.

FOR more than thirty years, since he wrote 'The Pentateuch vindicated from the Aspersions of Bishop Colenso' (1863), Prof. Green of Princeton has combated every phase of the modern criticism of the Old Testament. In a half-dozen volumes, the most important of which is 'The Hebrew Feasts' (1885), and in a multitude of articles in various periodicals—notably in a recent discussion in *Hebraica*—he has stanchly defended the unity and the Mosaic authorship of the entire Pentateuch. There is nothing, therefore, in his latest work which he has not repeatedly said before; but he has put together in small compass the best that can be said in support of the traditional opinion by its ablest surviving defender.

In the first two chapters, on "The Old Testament and its Structure," and on "The Plan and Contents of the Pentateuch," he endeavors to show that the Pentateuch exhibits such a marvellous unity, and is constructed upon so definite and well-conceived a plan, as to create the strong presumption that it is the product of one mind. The next chapter sets forth briefly and clearly the familiar arguments to prove that Moses was the author of the whole. The rest of the book is taken up with the refutation of opposing views. The history of the critical analysis is rehearsed at disproportionate length; the argument deals largely with a bygone stage of controversy, in the reign of Hengstenberg. The positions of the modern historical school, on the other hand, are very shortly disposed of under the head of the "Genuineness of the Laws": the three codes of law in the Pentateuch are in complete harmony, and there is nothing in them or in the subsequent history of Israel to justify a doubt that they were all given by Moses just as they profess to have been; the contrary opinion originates in the unwarranted assumptions of a theory of natural development. In conclusion, Prof. Green considers "The Bearing of the Divisive Criticism on the Credibility of the Pentateuch and on Supernatural Religion." He sees very clearly that if the oldest parts of the Pentateuch were written centuries after the events they relate, we have no historical sources at all for the Mosaic age; and that if the name "supernatural religion" is still to be applied to the religion of Israel as reconstructed by modern historians, it must be in a sense wholly different from that in which it has hitherto been understood.

Prof. Green pointedly addresses this warning to certain "evangelical" critics who think that they can accept the modern criticism without its consequences. He exhorts them, in view of these consequences, to draw back from their "ill-advised alliance." More wholesome counsel would be to think through.

Westminster Abbey and the Cathedrals of England. By Dean Farrar, Dean Milman, Dean Stanley, and other Clergymen. Edited by William Ellis Scull. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston & Co. 1895.

THIS is one of those illustrated books made possible by modern photographic processes. The illustrations are assuredly of great interest; they are half-tone prints of good quality and of well-selected subjects. If, for instance, we take the chapter entitled Durham, we find, first, a full-page picture of the cathedral on its height, with the river sweeping beneath the bank; then, as a head-piece, a very charming view of Lindisfarne Abbey—and the page is large enough to allow even a head-piece six inches in width, the size of a very respectable picture. Following these is a representation of that curious piece of sculpture the "Dun Cow," which, as a paragraph of the text explains, has to do with the legend of St. Cuthbert. There are five views more of the cathedral of Durham, general views and details, and a capital instantaneous picture from life of two Holy Island fisherwomen. Finally, a photographic portrait of Dr. Lightfoot, the late Bishop, and one of the present incumbent, Bishop Westcott, each accompanied by a brief biographical notice, complete the illustration of this chapter, the text of which has been furnished by Canon Talbot of Durham. A similar chapter is devoted to Lincoln Cathedral, one to Salisbury, and others to Chester, Winchester, etc.; nine chapters in all. Each is completely illustrated, and a considerable body of architectural detail is thus brought together. It will be seen that this book offers a great deal of interest and of information, but the arrangement is wholly for those who care for the episcopal sees as such; all other readers must arrange and assimilate this information for themselves. It should be mentioned that the notices of "the dignitaries," one of which accompanies each chapter, have been written by the Rev. L. B. Thomas of St. Peter's Church, Philadelphia.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, J. L. Aftermath. Harpers. $1.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Spain and the Spaniards. 2 vols. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $5.
Austen, Frances V. and Edward J. Eifie and the Katydid. Merriam Co. $1.25.
Ball, E. O. Industrial Agitation. Humboldt Publishing Co. 25c.
Bangs, J. K. A House-Boat on the Styx. Harpers. $1.25.
Besant, Sir Walter. Westminster. Illustrated. F. A. Stokes Co. $3.
Bibliographica. Part VII. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Blagden, Rev. Stilliman. Some Poems and Prose which would fain Exalt "The Word of God." Boston: The Author.
Blake, M. M. Courtship by Command: A Story of Napoleon at Play. Appletons. 75c.
Brooks, E. S. Great Men's Sons. Putnams. $1.50.
Brownson, H. F. Faith and Science. Detroit: The Author.
Bryan, John. Fables and Essays. New York: Arts and Lettres Co.
Chambers, E. K. English Pastorals. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.

Cheever, Harriet A. Little Jolliby's Christmas. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.
Coates, H. T. Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry. 31st ed., revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $3.50.
Conyngham, Dane Eunice Quince: A New England Romance. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.25.
Courtier, Monsignor le. Thoughts and Counsels for Women of the World. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. $1.25.
Craddock, Charles Egbert. The Mystery of Witch-Face Mountain, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Craig, Prof. J. M. Assyrian and Babylonian Religious Texts. Vol. I. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs.
Crickmore, H. H. Old Chester. Scribners. $2.50.
Croswell, J. G. Macaulay's Essay on Milton. Longmans, Green & Co. 60c.
Darmesteter, Mary. Froissart. Scribners. $3.
Dickens, Charles. Our Mutual Friend. Macmillan. $1.
Dickinson, Mary L. The Temptation of Katharine Gray. Philadelphia: A. J. Rowland. $1.50.
Downing, Marlton, and French, H. W. The Young Cascarillero, and Colonel Thorndike's Adventures. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.
Ehrenfechter, C. A. Delivery in the Art of Pianoforte Playing. London: William Reeves: New York: Scribners. 75c.
Ellis, E. S. The Youth's Plutarch's Lives. New York: Woolfall Co. 50c.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Gathering Clouds: A Tale of the Days of St. Chrysostom. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Foa, Eugénie. The Boy Life of Napoleon. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Ford, Harriet. Me an' Methuselar, and Other Episodes. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.
Ford J. L. Dolly Dillenbeck: A Portrayal of Certain Phases of Metropolitan Life and Character. G. H. Richmond & Co.
Giles, Dr. A. E. Moral Pathology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Gladden Rev. Washington. Ruling Ideas of the Present Age. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Gollancz, Israel. A Midsummer-Night's Dream. Illustrated. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Greene, Belle C. The Hobbledehoy. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Grinnell, G. B. The Story of the Indian. Appletons. $1.50.
Harper's Round Table. 1895. Harpers. $3.50.
Heller, Louie R. André Chénier: A Memorial. Home Book Co. $1.25.
Holdsworth, Annie E. The Years that the Locust Hath Eaten. Macmillan. $1.25.
Johnstone, D. L. The Brotherhood of the Coast. Whittaker. $1.50.
Knox, T. W. Boy's Life of Gen. Grant. Merriam Co. $1.50.
Le Baron, Grace. "Little Daughter." Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Livingston, Z. S. American Book-Prices Current. Vol. I. Dodd, Mead & Co. $6.
Mackay, Rev. G. L. From Far Formosa: The Island, its People and Missions. F. H. Revell Co. $2.
Nicklin, J. A. Verses. London: David Nutt.
North, Helen M. The Mary Lyon Year Book. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.
Olcott, H. S. Old Diary Leaves: The True Story of the Theosophical Society. Madras: The *Theosophist*; New York: Putnams. $2.
Pennell, Joseph. Modern Illustrations. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Puddefoot, Rev. W. G The Minute Man on the Frontier. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Rashdall, Hastings. The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $14.
Ricci, Corrado. Antonio Allegri da Correggio: His Life, His Friends and His Time. Scribners. $12.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Five-Minute Stories. New ed. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Queen Hildegarde: A Story for Girls. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Rinder, Frank. Old-World Japan: Legends of the Land of the Gods. Illustrated. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Shapleigh, Mary Y. On Winds of Fancy Blown. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Shelley, P. B. The Banquet of Plato. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Shirley, Penn. Young Master Kirke. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Sinbad the Sailor, and Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves Illustrated. Scribners. $2.
Sinclair, Lieut. Arthur, C. S. N. Two Years on the Alabama. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Sirven, Paul. Théophile Gautier. [Pages Choisies des Grands Ecrivains.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Sladen, Douglas. A Japanese Marriage Macmillan. $1.25.
The Book Lover's Almanac. 1896. Duprat & Co. $3.
The Comedies of William Shakspere. With many Drawings by Edwin Abbey. 4 vols. Harper & Bros. $30.
The Poor in Great Cities: Their Problems and What is Doing to Solve Them. Scribners. $3.
Wilson, E. L. In Scripture Lands: New Views of Sacred Places. New ed. Scribners. $1.50.

DECEMBER

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 5, 1895.

The Week.

ABOUT two-thirds of the President's message relates to the financial situation and the other third to foreign affairs. There is nothing of an exciting character in our foreign relations, and the only thing certain to attract much attention here is the chapter relating to the Venezuelan boundary dispute. On that subject he upholds the Monroe Doctrine, and says that the Government of the United States has represented to both of the governments concerned that the dispute ought to be settled by friendly and impartial arbitration, and that this should include the whole controversy. The answer of Great Britain to this proposal has not been received, but is expected shortly. It is mentioned also that diplomatic relations between Venezuela, on the one hand, and France and Belgium, on the other, have been suspended, and that our good offices have been tendered to secure a restoration of the same, but thus far without result.

The President's discussion of the national finances, and of business interests connected therewith, is comprehensive and cogent to the last degree. It begins with a plain recital of facts. All the events of importance, from the passage of the specie-resumption act in 1875 to the present time, are passed in review. The extraordinary difference between our experience in the eleven years before 1890 and in the five years subsequent thereto the President ascribes to our silver legislation, and especially to the Sherman act of 1890 and to the distrust consequent thereupon. He holds that it could not have been in consequence of a deficiency of general revenue, because the Treasury on each occasion when bond issues were necessary, had a sufficient surplus to meet all current expenses, and generally a very large one. Its present surplus is enormous, being no less than $98,000,000, yet the demand on the Treasury for the redemption of legal-tender notes continues, and the gold reserve is down to $79,000,000. "I am convinced," says the President, "that the only thorough and practicable remedy for our troubles is found in the retirement and cancellation of our United States notes, commonly called greenbacks, and the outstanding Treasury notes issued by the Government in payment of silver purchases under the act of 1890." The reasons for this are presented with great force, and in language so simple that anybody can understand it. They may be summed up in a word. If these mischief-making notes were out of the way, the whole problem of redeeming them would vanish, and the business of the people would right itself by a perfectly natural process. Of course the question will be asked, What will take the place of the legal-tender notes? The suggestion is made that the notes should be made exchangeable for bonds bearing a low rate of interest, but a sufficient rate to secure the object, and that then the national banks should have an opportunity of filling the vacuum with their notes, by reducing the tax on them to a rate just sufficient to pay the expenses of the system, and by allowing them to issue such notes to the par value of the bonds deposited. If, however, this should not be a sufficient inducement to them to fill the vacuum, he ventures to think that gold would answer the purpose as well as notes, and he is well convinced that it would flow in. To insure this he would give the Secretary of the Treasury discretionary power to sell a portion of the bonds abroad for gold. The message concludes with an unanswerable argument against the free coinage of silver.

The annual report of the Comptroller of the Currency, in addition to the usual statistical matter, contains a number of specific recommendations besides the general one that the Government's legal-tender notes be retired and cancelled. The latter recommendation was embraced in his last annual report, together with a plan for filling the vacuum with national bank-notes. The Comptroller's plan differed in some of its details from that of Secretary Carlisle, and also from the one proposed by the American Bankers' Association and known as the Baltimore plan. All three, however, had at bottom the "banking principle," which makes the assets of the bank the security and basis of the circulating notes, instead of a special deposit in the hands of a public officer. No particular plan is referred to in the present report, but the expediency of taking the Government out of the banking business is strongly enforced, in the interest of both the business community and the Government itself. Two important investigations were made by the Comptroller's office during the year, one being the collection of facts in reference to the banking systems of other countries, and the other in reference to those of the several States of the Union. There is much to be learned from this report, and Mr. Eckels is to be congratulated on the amount of new information he has made available to Congressmen and to students of the science of banking.

Ex-Senator Edmunds continues to render the nation service in his retirement by improving every occasion that offers to denounce the Jingoes, and their policy of annexing Hawaii, Cuba, etc. At the annual dinner of the Philadelphia Board of Trade last week he responded to the toast of "The United States of America," and, after speaking in a somewhat conventional strain, concluded with an earnest protest against the idea of bringing into the Union all sorts of heterogeneous elements. Upon this point he said:

> "It is one people which goes by the name of the United States of America, and long will it continue to be that if we continue to remain homogeneous. If we take into it unassimilable elements, if we make into citizens great numbers of persons who have no understanding of things which we have for a hundred years studied and wrought for and inherited to be of us, we shall then make a great mistake."

Mr. Edmunds closed by saying that he did not fear this result, because he had confidence in "the strong sense" of our people. Confirmation of this confidence was furnished by the hearty cheers from the solid men of Philadelphia that greeted his condemnation of the annexationists.

The difficulty of getting things exactly right in this world is well exemplified in an article in the last number of the *Forum*, by Mr. Cassatt of the Cincinnati bar, on the Monroe Doctrine. He shows easily enough that it was a doctrine produced for purposes of defence under circumstances which have totally changed, and that no contemporary expositor thought of giving it the offensive, aggressive character which some of our present preachers claim for it, and that the Congress to which Monroe presented it, as a suggestion of his own, never acted on it, nor took any notice of it; so that, in fact, it has no legal status and is no part of American polity. In tracing the history of it, however, he says that "the general principles of the Holy Alliance were in harmony with the monarchical institutions and ideas of Great Britain, but the possession of Central America by Spain would have been injurious to the commercial interests of Great Britain," and therefore she joined us in the protest known as the "Monroe Doctrine." It would be difficult to give a more misleading account of the whole transaction. England refused to admit that the Alliance after the Congress of Vienna meant anything more than the maintenance of the territorial divisions then made. She denied by formal circular the right of interference in the internal affairs of the states then carved out. She refused to enter into the Holy Alliance, and when, in pursuance of the policy of interference the Alliance traced out, the French entered Spain to put down the revolution there, Canning declared he would "call the New World into existence to redress the balance of the Old" by acknowledging the independence of the Spanish colonies then in revolt. But this famous saying was anticipated by Lord Castlereagh in his instructions to the Duke of Wellington when, going as a delegate to the

Congress, he said, "it was evident from the course which events have taken that their recognition [of the revolted colonies] as independent states was merely a question of time." But Canning's action in this hemisphere was really taken in furtherance of a European policy, and was intended as a counterstroke against the Holy Allies. The view that it was due to a desire to get the Spanish-American commerce away from Spain is original with Mr. Cassatt, as is also the view that "the general principles of the Holy Alliance were in harmony with the monarchical institutions and ideas of Great Britain." It was because the contrary was true that Great Britain refused to enter into the Alliance, although Castlereagh and Wellington would probably have liked to do so.

Mr. Chauncey Depew has been moved to reply in the *Tribune* to that part of Senator Sherman's autobiography which tells how he failed to receive the Republican nomination for the Presidency in 1888, but he is drawn from his main purpose to a more interesting discussion of the reasons why Mr. Depew himself failed to receive it. It was all due to the delegations of Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas, who came to him and made a very earnest appeal that he would sacrifice himself for the good of the party. They said that although he (Depew), with the preponderating vote of New York, might be elected, yet the nomination of a railroad man would disrupt the party in those States and lose the legislatures and the representation in the United States Senate. On the other hand, they said that if they could go home and say that they had defeated the railway candidate presented by "the capitalistic and monopolistic State of New York," they could keep their States in the Republican column for the next fifty years. "I yielded to that appeal," says Mr. Depew, "and retired from the canvass, but all three of the States were lost to the Republican party in the following three years—which shows the value of predictions made at a national convention, and having the double object of getting rid of one candidate and nominating another."

At the very moment when these Granger politicians were making their appeal to him to withdraw, Col. Elliott Shepard, "who, though an eccentric man, was an able one," was gathering in delegates for Depew by the score, and turned in fifty-six new ones at the very meeting of the New Yorkers where Depew announced his determination to sacrifice himself for the sake of harmony in the Granger States. Naturally, there was much bitterness in the New York delegation when Mr. Depew made the announcement, which could be soothed only by a dinner at Kinsley's. This was given by Mr. Depew, and so good was it that the delegates and alternates present swore fidelity to Depew for ever after. The sequel is no less interesting. After the dinner was finished, the "Big Four," viz., Depew, Platt, Hiscock, and Miller, retired to see what was best to be done. Platt and Hiscock favored the nomination of Allison, Miller advocated the claims of Sherman, Depew alone proposed Harrison. Platt's opposition to Sherman was so strong that the other three were convinced that Sherman could not carry New York even if he should be nominated. This fact conveys the gloomy suggestion that Platt was capable of betraying his party in a Presidential election if the nominee was not satisfactory to him. After a time Depew's arguments prevailed, and his three colleagues agreed to support Harrison, who was accordingly nominated. This disposes of another statement or insinuation in Senator Sherman's book, that Platt had in his pocket a written promise from Harrison that he should control the patronage in New York, and that this was the reason why the vote of New York went to Harrison.

The necessity of arousing public sentiment against lynch law is coming to be recognized by thoughtful people in all parts of the land. The frequency and horror of these outrages are causing genuine apprehension as to the future of this country among the friends of republican institutions in Europe. The Rev. Dr. Washington Gladden says that he has been in England three times during the last ten years, has met each time Mr. Bryce, and has been questioned by the author of 'The American Commonwealth' with increasing anxiety each time as to the explanation of the growing frequency of these breaches of the law, both North and South. The American Missionary Association took up this subject at its recent annual meeting, and adopted a report "bearing testimony against that form of lawlessness which has become alarmingly prevalent in many sections of our country, by which mobs of infuriated men usurp the functions of judge and jury, and put to death, often with cruelty and torture, persons suspected of crime who have never been proved to be guilty, and who, in some cases, are undoubtedly innocent." This deliverance frankly admitted that such crimes are not peculiar to any section of the country, and declared that "some of the most flagrant outbreaks of this nature have recently occurred in Northern States." Specific attention was called to the case of a brave colonel of militia in Ohio, who protected a negro from a raging mob that was battering down the doors of a court-house, and, for doing his plain duty in ordering the troops to shoot, was placed on trial for his life.

Dr. Gladden, who preaches in Columbus, was chairman of the committee that reported this resolution, and he supported it in a speech that brought out the demoralization of public sentiment on this question in Ohio very clearly. It appears that the sheriff who had the colored prisoner in charge, and who succeeded in saving him from the mob until the troops came to the rescue, was renominated for his office by the Republicans, who have a majority of a thousand in the county, and, simply because he had thus done his duty, he was repudiated by so many of his own party that he was overwhelmingly defeated. Worse still, his successful opponent was questioned during the canvass as to whether he would protect a prisoner in his hands against a mob, if such an incident should occur, and he refused to answer the inquiry. As Dr. Gladden put it, "because he refused to answer he was elected overwhelmingly." And all this in a county not far from the capital of the State of Ohio, which has so often lectured the South on its lack of respect for the law. Evidently there is real danger for the perpetuity of our institutions when such a state of public sentiment is disclosed in the heart of one of our most intelligent commonwealths.

Col. Ingersoll has too often experienced that form of studied insult known as public and concerted prayer for his conversion, to mind the repetition of it on a large scale by the Christian Endeavorers at Cleveland, on Thursday. Both sides get a good advertisement out of it, and so both ought to be, and doubtless are, satisfied. With this aspect of the matter we have little concern; but it is pleasant to note the amelioration of manners implied in the forms and tenor of the prayers. All is gentleness and good will and a sincere desire for the Colonel's weal here and hereafter. Compared with Calvin's eager desire to get his hands on Servetus, or Luther's amiable wish that a hook might be put in the snouts of his enemies, this implies a change to call for Col. Newcome's single and gratified Latin quotation about "emollit mores." Indeed, the change seems greatest of all when one goes back only forty years to the time when the prayers for Theodore Parker delicately hinted that his "removal" would please as well as his conversion to the truth. His biographer records that Parker's early death was considered an answer to these petitions.

We hope we shall not be accused of "going down to the tavern to swear at the court" if we say, apropos of the recent decision of the Court of Appeals in the case of the attempt to erect a monument to the memory of the late Mrs. Schuyler against the wishes of her family, that Mr. Schuyler did not, as Judge Peckham assumed, bring the suit to establish a principle—he brought it to prevent what the family deemed an outrage on them and an act of disrespect to Mrs. Schuyler's memory; that, as Judge Gray well exhibited in the dissenting opinion, Judge

Ingraham's finding, as fact, in the court below, that Mr. Schuyler had been injured, ought not to have been overturned by Judge Peckham's finding that the injury was "fanciful"; that, on the trial, Judge Ingraham excluded, as unnecessary, evidence which would have shown the whole enterprise of the defendant to be fraudulent, inasmuch as the General Term had admitted the plaintiff's "right of privacy," whereas Judge Peckham assumes that the enterprise was laudable and carried on in good faith. The inconveniences which may arise under the decisions are, that any man's enemies or blackmailers may annoy his family with perfect impunity, or extort money from them by proposing to build, and by collecting money for, a monument calculated to make a deceased person's memory odious or ridiculous, or to drag it into a kind of publicity which he when living would have loathed. The decision, in fact, is in entire harmony with the state of public feeling which has given us a sensational and scandalous press, by treating the individual's dislike of notoriety as of no consequence, so long as it amuses or entertains the majority. In truth, we do not see that it would not authorize a monument to a living man in spite of his protest or prohibition, and make his opposition to it "fanciful," although it brought into prominence a defect, or an eccentricity, or a deplored and recanted opinion.

We trust it is not merely a rumor that the Judges of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court are to wear gowns in their new courts, and we wish we could hope that *all* the Judges of the Supreme Court would follow their example. The small amount of pains we take to give our administration of justice an air of dignity is one of the serious defects of our system. Every one of us recognizes the importance of clothes nearly every day of his life, as a means of giving to others an impression of his character and position. He dresses to go to a dinner or a ball, in order to show the host that he appreciates the invitation, and that it has been bestowed on a suitable person, and to make himself agreeable to the other guests. He dresses to go to church, in order to show his reverence for the place and to humor the prejudices of the other worshippers. We are all impressed by dress, even the most philosophic of us. When a complete stranger approaches us, almost our whole estimate of him rests on his clothes. If he is well dressed, we treat him with courtesy or even deference, and a whole host of presumptions in his favor rise up in our minds. If he is badly dressed, we are either indifferent, careless, or rude to him. If he is dirty and ragged like a tramp, our first impulse is to "bounce" him. The power of dress in making certain impressions on observers is, in fact, one of the most familiar phenomena of civilization, and yet we have never tried to make use of it in aid of administration. Judges mount the bench every day in costumes which make them to the audience in court appear to be among "the boys," and their authority and dignity undoubtedly suffer from it. Judge Barnard used to sit in a velvet jacket, and he was right, for this was a good dress to curse and sell justice in. We do not mean to say that gowns are the best costume that could be devised, but they are the traditional judicial costume of the Anglo-Saxon race, and they have the advantage of covering up the other clothes. We are quite sure it is harder to be a fraud or an ignoramus in a gown than in a cheap ready-made suit of many colors. Nobody who has ever assisted at the robing of an English judge, for instance, can deny that the process seemed to transform him, and make him seem for the moment something more and other than a familiar friend.

Senator Hill has made a curious blunder in starting out as a lecturer. His main object being, of course, to make money, he should have selected as his subject a topic of the very first "drawing" power. He found out at his first appearance in Milwaukee with it that "Liberty" was not this kind of a subject, for only about 150 people assembled to hear him. He has a subject with which he could fill a large hall anywhere in the country, and that is, "How I Ran the Machine." If he will treat that fully and honestly, people will flock to hear him by thousands, for everybody knows that he is fully competent to speak about that, while nobody believes that he has anything to say about "Liberty" that is worth hearing. It is very strange that statesmen of the Hill kind never talk about those things of which they are most competent to speak. Gilroy, when he was Mayor, actually wrote a series of articles on the "Wealth of New York," about which he had nothing to say that any one cared a button to read, while it would have been the making of any magazine to have got from him a series of articles on the "Wealth of Gilroy, Croker, and other Tammany Statesmen," with specifications of the way in which they obtained it.

There has been no odder result of the Conservative reaction in England than the election of peers as Mayors of various large lands. Lord Lonsdale has just been elected Mayor of White Haven, Lord Derby of Liverpool, the Duke of Norfolk of Sheffield, Lord Zetland of Richmond, Lord Ripon of Ripon, and Lord Hothfield of Appleby. The Mayors in all these cases are chosen by the Common Councils, which are usually filled by successful business men of more or less prominence, and the selection of peers is a striking illustration of the increasing fondness of the middle class for the peerage. It is met half way, too, by the increasing desire of such peers as are serious and like work, for greater participation in public business than is afforded by a seat in the House of Lords. Many of them are very good administrators, as is shown by the successful management of large properties, and they are exceedingly well fitted to take part in municipal administration. Then, too, acquaintance and intercourse with them are among the sweetest pleasures of English middle-class life. This passage of reverence for the aristocracy out of politics into social life is one of the most interesting phenomena of modern English politics. We are bound to say, however, that were a peer eligible, he would carry the "brown-stone" or "Tenderloin" vote of this city also with a rush.

The Turkish crisis continues to grow more and more grave, and the demand of the Ambassadors for additional guardships at Constantinople shows that they appreciate it. But probably nothing so serious has happened or is likely to happen as the reinforcement of the fleet. For the horrible truth is, that the more completely the Sultan is overawed by the naval demonstration, the greater the danger is of massacres on a larger scale than ever by the excited Mussulmans in the interior. There is little doubt that when the news spreads that the Sultan is overawed in his palace by the guns of the allied fleet, the fury of the Mohammedan population throughout the empire will be intense, and will express itself in the slaughter of Christians on a greater scale than ever. This form of consolation in the face of great public disasters has been customary with the Turks ever since they made their appearance in Europe. Down to a very recent period even the foreign instructors in the Turkish army were by no means sure of their safety in case of a defeat. Moltke, foreseeing the overthrow of the Turkish army, to which he was attached, by the Egyptians under Ibrahim Pasha, took care to get well in the rear before the fight began, so as to be clear of the enraged fugitives. This is now the great danger of the situation. So long as the Sultan had power it was reasonable enough to threaten him at Constantinople, but woe to the unhappy Christians in the provinces when the news comes that he has been dethroned or is dominated by fleets. The truth is, that he ought not to be bullied at Constantinople unless there is a military force ready to maintain order in the interior—a fact which the powers probably begin to perceive, but do not know what to do beyond protecting Christian life and property at the capital; and probably none of them perceives it more clearly than Russia. A single division of cavalry in Asia Minor would be worth more to the Christians than all the fleets put together. Failing this, every effort should be made to supply the Armenians with arms and ammunition.

SPEAKER REED IN 1890.

MR. THEODORE ROOSEVELT has in the last *Forum* an article, on "Thomas B. Reed and the Fifty-first Congress," which we hope Mr. Reed did not see or revise, because if he did, it would discredit him somewhat as a dialectician. It is an elaborate eulogy on him and defence of his action as Speaker of that Congress, which conveniently confines itself to generalities, overlooks the facts of the case, and produces for the purposes of the occasion an absolutely new view both of Speakers and legislative bodies.

One of Speaker Reed's utterances when enforcing his rules in that Congress was, that "he thanked God that this was not a deliberative body." History, both ancient and profane, parliamentary and other, may be searched in vain for this view of legislative assemblies. It is absolutely original with Mr. Reed to say that any body (which decides by a majority vote) can be assembled on American soil whose chief function is not deliberation. Deliberation is its first duty; legislation only the second. Representatives deliberate to say whether they will legislate, to consider whether the thousand proposals to legislate which come before every Legislature have any value. The Democrats in the Fifty-first Congress fought for deliberation and delay because the McKinley bill was sprung upon them without any notice, in press, platform or speech, and contained unusually obnoxious features, and because, in their belief, it had been corruptly paid for by manufacturers. There never has come before the Americans since the war a measure which called for more deliberation. We are not endorsing all the modes by which the Democrats fought it; but that the country was behind them, believed in their view and approved their course, and condemned Mr. Reed's political philosophy, was shown by the elections which followed, which made a clean sweep both of the Republican majority and of the President who signed the bill.

Secondly, Mr. Reed fell into the grievous error which Mr. Roosevelt, with his usual ebullient patriotism, naturally swallows, of putting the American Speaker into the position which Mr. Gladstone or Mr. Balfour would occupy if he sat in the chair of the House, and pushed his own measures through by all the means at his disposal. This is really a *reductio ad absurdum*. It is quite true that the position of the American Speaker differs from that of the English Speaker in that he appoints the committees, and is elected by a party vote at every session. But these facts no more take away his judicial quality than they take away that of our State judges, whom we also elect by a party vote. They arm him with no discretion in the use of his powers which is not given him by the rules. All his authority is derived from the rules. He is bound to be just in his decisions, and impartial as between the parties on the floor.

Mr. Reed assumed in the Fifty-first Congress that he was responsible to the country not simply for the orderly despatch of business, but for certain legislation, as Mr. Gladstone or Mr. Balfour would be on the floor of the House of Commons; and that Congressmen were responsible to him for their behavior. His error, which is reproduced in Mr. Roosevelt's article with youthful crudeness, lay in supposing that he was bound to see that the House legislated about any particular thing or made a particular use of its time. This was an invention of his own. His duty was to see that whatever the House did (whether it legislated or refused to legislate) was done decently and in order. For the things it does or leaves undone, Congress is responsible to the country, not to any particular man, and the country enforced this rule almost with ferocity in 1892 by kicking most of the Republicans out of office. The notion that the Speaker can prescribe legislation and use the rules to carry it through was a monstrous contrivance, and that a man of Mr. Reed's experience should ever have made himself responsible for it, shows the kind of drunkenness which had overtaken the protectionists through thirty years' possession of power. The Speaker remains a judge, in spite of himself, through the very nature of man. In presiding over a body composed of men of various ways of thinking, he has to be governed, not by either the English view or the American view, but by the ancient human rule that "no man can be judge in his own cause." He must not vote for things in which he has a personal interest. He must not sit *in judgment* to help his own family, or his own company, or his own party. If a Speaker is so interested in legislation of any kind that he feels that he cannot give fair play to its opponents, he ought to acknowledge his infirmity and leave the chair.

Mr. Reed sought to make quorums by counting as present for business everybody whom he saw in the House. If we remember rightly, he tried to justify this by showing that it was done by other legislative bodies. But he produced no body in which it was done by the presiding officer, much less by an avowed partisan such as he was. Several of his mistakes about seeing members were exposed, and he had to acknowledge them, which showed that he was physically unfit for the work, even if it had been morally justifiable. Counting, through his eyes, was partisan work, for which he, as a quasi-judicial officer, was disqualified. It was work which should be done either by tellers from both sides, or by some indifferent officer not charged with the passage of legislation. To crown all, we believe Mr. Reed is now urging on the present Congress the duty of doing nothing—which is a remarkable piece of self-stultification, for this is the very thing the Fifty-first Congress ought to have done. There was no popular demand for the McKinley bill, as the subsequent election showed. Its necessity was a figment of Mr. Reed's imagination. To sit still, and let the private business of the voters alone, was far more emphatically the duty of that Congree than of this one.

The country was not in 1890 calling for any particular measure. The McKinley bill had not been foreshadowed, produced, or discussed in any quarter before Mr. Reed took charge of it. On the contrary, there is to-day a question before the country of commanding importance, on which men of all classes and shades of opinion are demanding legislation in some direction, and that is the currency. For the gentleman who felt that public sentiment, the law of the land, and American usage required him to convert the McKinley bill into a statute, to proclaim now the policy of simple deliberation, to try to make Congress a talking body, looks as if the gods had got angry with him. For we venture to predict that by the time Mr. Reed comes again to give an account of his stewardship to the voters, inaction, if he persists in it, will bring down on him still sterner judgment than overtook the McKinleyites. Now is the time for this new variety of Speaker to play his part. If he is wise, he will chastise his followers into legislative activity, not about the tariff—he has had his warning about that—but about what everybody is talking of and meditating on with anxiety.

FINANCIAL TROUBLE BEFORE THE ELECTION OF 1892.

WE have been requested to set forth more in detail than has yet been done the history of our currency disorder prior to the close of 1892. The statement that the trouble in the public finances began only contemporaneously with Mr. Cleveland's second election is made, undoubtedly, by many partisan speakers and writers who know it to be untrue. But it is accepted by hundreds of readers and listeners as a fact. The distinct assertion has been made that everything went well in American public and private finance while Republican policy was in the ascendant—"down to the hour of Mr. Cleveland's election," as the party organ in this city defines it. The hour of Mr. Cleveland's election fell on Tuesday, November 8, 1892. The challenge of these writers and speakers, therefore, is for the production of any evidence of financial demoralization before that date.

The task is not difficult. Naturally, the annual reports of the Secretary of the Treasury and of the Treasurer of the United States provide the best reflection of official feeling at headquarters. All the officials at that time were Republicans. All presumably accepted office in sympathy with the party's public policy. Yet the last report with any strain of cheerfulness issued by the Treasury was the one put forth at the close of 1890 by Secretary Windom. We quote his concluding

ing words by way of contrast with the dismal comments of his successor. Mr. Windom criticised the silver-purchase law of 1890 merely because it provided for the purchase of only 4,500,000 ounces monthly. He and Mr. Harrison had urged a law for the purchase of "the entire silver bullion product of the United States" (Report of 1890, page xlviii). In spite of this reprehensible conservatism on the part of Congress, the Secretary was of the opinion (in December, 1890) that the silver act of July 14 would "enhance the value of that metal until a point were reached where we could with safety open our mints to the free coinage of both metals at a fixed ratio." The law's "beneficial results," Mr. Windom prophetically concluded, "will eventually commend it to general approval."

"General approval" came into evidence rather slowly. Secretary Foster, Mr. Windom's successor in the Treasury, has been called the Mark Tapley of Government finance. If there was a bright side visible, to the most painstaking scrutiny, in the Government's situation, he could be trusted to discern it. The reader will therefore be astonished to learn that the Secretary's report of 1891 contains not one word about the prospects of the currency. He is forced to record the decline in the price of silver from $1.21 to 96 cents per ounce, and the failure of the year's revenue to meet the annual sinking-fund appropriation, even after the national bank-note fund had been seized to swell the balance. But he refrains from discussion of these awkward facts, leaving his subordinates, as the head of many an institution has done before, to wrestle with unpleasant details.

But the subordinates wrestled to some purpose, so far as concerns the statement of the truth. Let it be noticed that it was exactly one year after Mr. Windom's promise of "beneficial results" and "general approval" that the Treasurer of the United States, in December, 1891, made the following comments on the situation:

> "Such heavy exports of gold as signalized the last six months of the year, *the heaviest recorded in the history of the nation*, naturally excited profound interest, not only at home, but throughout the whole world. To the Treasury this outflow was particularly significant, since the Treasury was obliged to furnish all the material. . . . *These movements were the result, apparently, of the operation of natural laws.* . . . The condition of things which has made it possible, whether due to domestic or foreign causes, *to financial legislation*, or to the state of trade, . . . would seem to be worthy of the most careful study."

With this eminently prudent conclusion, and with the precautionary remark that "no attempt is here made to throw any light upon the subject, further than to state the facts," Mr. Nebeker dismissed the matter. But we doubt if ever before in the history of Government finance has a bureau officer offered as a possible explanation of trade demoralization a law passed by his own party, and officially described by his own chief, twelve months before, as a statute assuring "beneficial results" and certain of "general approval."

Events, however, moved faster than official inquiries. The progress of disease, in the average man, may safely be traced by the attention paid by him, in his thoughts and conversation, to his liver, his stomach, his lungs. The man in health neither talks nor thinks of such things. The Treasury report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892, has pages on the gold reserve, and all in a doleful and apprehensive tone. Secretary Foster's cheerfulness has now forsaken him utterly. Far from pointing out "beneficial results" or appealing for "general approval," he pleads with Congress to increase the gold reserve to provide for redemption of the Treasury notes of 1890, and begs for additional revenue. "One of the embarrassments of the Treasury" is "the inability . . . to keep up a sufficient gold supply." Mark Tapley has so far taken up the rôle of Cassandra that he foresees gloomily the exhaustion of the surplus gold reserve (Report of 1892, page xxix). He has not been able to meet the annual sinking-fund requirements, even with the help of the surplus inherited from a Democratic administration, and thinks it "hardly probable that more than about $7,000,000 can be credited to the fund during the present fiscal year, as against a legal requirement of $48,000,000." The Treasurer, as in 1891, is more gloomy and more specific. He points out that heavy pressure of legal tenders for redemption began in July, 1892, that "gold exports, commonly ceasing in July, continued until September, while the return shipments, usually commencing early in the autumn, have not occurred at all"—this, by the way, at the time when McKinley was moving triumphantly from town to town, telling enthusiastic Republican audiences of the $200,000,000 European gold (in buckram) brought here under the operations of his tariff law. Only 3⅔ per cent. of customs receipts at New York city, the Treasurer's tables of 1892 point out, were being paid in gold, against 11 per cent. in the same month of 1891, and 85½ per cent. in 1890. The percentage of payment in Treasury notes had risen from 3½ in 1890 to 28.4 in 1891 and 51 9 in August, 1892. The Treasury gold reserve had fallen, since the passage of the silver-purchase law, $79,788,013, and had approached within $10,000,000 of the official danger-line. The Government's ordinary revenue had decreased $48,143,198 since 1890; its expenditures, with Harrison in the White House, Reed in the Speaker's chair, and McKinley leader of Congress, had increased $60,008,012—a net difference of $108,000,000 to the bad in two short years of Republican administration. And all this for the fiscal year which ended in the week of Mr. Cleveland's nomination at Chicago.

In the face of these documentary records and official statistics, the *Tribune* calmly affirms that "the national policy of protection kept the Treasury fortified with an adequate revenue and reserve down to the hour of President Cleveland's election."

A NOTABLE ARTICLE ON AMERICAN FINANCE.

THE article by Paul Leroy-Beaulieu in the December *Forum* entitled "Conditions for American Commercial and Financial Supremacy" is one of the most powerful arguments that have been presented to our people at any time in behalf of a sound financial policy. Two things, and only two, are necessary, according to this impartial foreign observer, to insure American commercial and financial supremacy. These are the withdrawal of the Government from the banking business—*i. e.*, the retirement of the legal-tender notes—and the quietus of the silver craze. These are not new arguments, but they come with peculiar force from a writer of Leroy-Beaulieu's reputation and clearness of vision. Leave your banks to deal with the gold problem (as they must when the greenbacks are retired), and you will have no more trouble, he says. When any serious or harmful exportation of gold takes place, the banks will raise the rate of discount as the European banks do in similar emergencies, and the exportation will stop. It will stop just as soon as it becomes harmful. When the gold movement is controlled in this way, it produces "only a light and momentary embarrassment, not to be compared with the shock and the discredit resulting from an outgo of gold the end of which cannot be calculated." We ask our readers to contrast these views with the following comment made by Senator Sherman on Secretary Carlisle's Chamber of Commerce speech:

> "Suppose the burden of maintaining the reserve for greenback redemption should be shifted to the banks, as seems to be the present policy, what would the result be? Instead of one great solid reserve protecting every holder of a greenback, the banks themselves would have to carry that gold. There are 3,000 of them. What sum would be necessary to keep them ever ready for any possible gold demand? The scheme is impracticable."

If any excuse but senility can be offered for such a saying as this, we cannot conceive what it is. The banks hold more than double the amount of gold that the Government does all the time. Therefore, the objection which Mr. Sherman advances, implying that they are unable to perform this function, is a coinage of his own overwrought brain. They are able to perform it now, but if they were not they would have to make themselves so at once. How was this function performed before we had any greenbacks?

The other half of Leroy-Beaulieu's article relates to the silver question. This has been so well threshed out in the political arena that we need consider only that part of his argument which refers to

the attitude of Europe toward bimetallism. Upon this point he says:

"There is not a single European country, in a normal financial condition, that attaches the slightest importance to bimetallism. From time to time some Minister utters in Parliament a few equivocal words on the subject, seeking to avoid stripping the bimetallists absolutely of all hope. But America must not be duped by these ambiguous expressions. At bottom, not a country, not a government, of Europe has the least wish to make the least change in the established monetary system—that is, in the preëminence of gold and the secondary and circumscribed function of silver. If from time to time the bimetallists obtain some vague ministerial promises to study the monetary problem, it is due to the habit, common to all European statesmen, of avoiding offending or definitely estranging any group of voters, even one of slight importance."

That this is the attitude of Germany, upon whom our bimetallists have built so many hopes, there is no room to doubt. Last spring the Reichstag yielded to the solicitations of the Agrarian party so far as to vote in favor of a new international monetary conference, secretly hoping, however, that the Government would not comply with the request. The Government made some vague promises to consult the federal States on the subject, secretly hoping that the federal States would not consent. The federal States have not consented, and apparently the end has been reached. The agitation has been slowly strangled, and there is not the least prospect of a new international conference to be held at the instigation of Germany.

It would be a mistake, also, says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, to count on France for official support of the bimetallic movement. The agitation in favor of it is almost exclusively among the agriculturists and is only skin-deep. The great body of the people "are absolutely ignorant of the very meaning of the words monometallism and bimetallism." (That is true of this country also.) The only people in France who understand the subject are almost unanimously for the single gold standard. It is true that M. Magnin, the Governor of the Bank of France, is an exception, but the Governor of the Bank of France is not necessarily a financier. He is not chosen by the bank directors, but is appointed by the chief of state, *i. e.*, the President of the republic. The office is merely nominal and the incumbent of it is a politician. So his views do not count any more than those of an ordinary citizen. "All that can be expected from France in such a matter," says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, "is a passive attitude." He adds in conclusion:

"So soon as the capitalists, small and great, of Europe shall know that the United States have definitively adopted the gold standard and relegated silver to a subordinate monetary rôle, the savings of western Europe will flow towards that country. Freed from the fear that he may some day be repaid in depreciated money, every person with savings in all Europe will be happy to find a return of 3½ to 4 per cent. in good American securities, and of 5 to 5½ per cent. in the shares of well-established American enterprises. Then the immense territory of the United States will find its vast resources rapidly and completely put in the way of exploitation. The abandonment of notes or paper money issued by the state; the definitive adoption of gold as the sole standard—these are the two necessary conditions on which the United States can secure a financial position as important as that they now hold in agriculture and in industry. On these two conditions they can some day approach and equal Great Britain as a financial power. If, on the contrary, they persist in their system of Government paper money and in the 'rehabilitation' of silver, their industrial and commercial development alike will be trammelled, and they will undergo marked and permanent experiences of financial weakness."

THE LATEST SCOTCH FORAY.

"LET me tell you, sir," roared Dr. Johnson to the unlucky Reverend Mr. John Ogilvie, amiably discoursing on the "many noble wild prospects" of Scotland, "let me tell you, the noblest prospect which a Scotchman ever sees is the high road that leads him to England!" That was in 1763, and the complaint has been made many times since. A political successor of Dr. Johnson's said only a few weeks ago in the London *Times*, writing of the demands of the Scotch members for local self-government, that he wished to heaven they *would* govern themselves and let England alone. To him a perfervid Scot made the swift retort that, if all Scottish talent and genius were to be withdrawn from English life at a stroke, nothing would be left but a honeycombed and crumbling mass of mediocrity. Certain it is that Scottish facility and coolness in appropriating the prizes of England have long been an offence; and when Canon Liddon said he never could think of Archbishop Tait as anything but a "Scotch lawyer," it is doubtful whether the phrase spoke of outrage more to the High-Churchman than to the Englishman.

The latest Scotch foray, however, is literary. "The Caledonians be upon thee!" is the alarm cry lifted by more than one watchman on the walls of English literature. Especially the Caledonian novelist is meant. Stevenson was all very fine as long as he was alone; it was always possible to assert that he was more cosmopolitan than Scotch, and perhaps more truly Bohemian than anything else. But when Barrie and Crockett came along, with Ian Maclaren close after them, and plenty of others visible and making good time on the high road to England, the thing was really getting absurd. Must every writer of fiction, then, learn broad Scotch or starve? Or should there be a call to arms to beat back the raiders from over the border?

Just here, however, a new difficulty arises. The natural defenders of the English novelist have gone over to the Scotch invader—have, in fact, welcomed him to the spoil, opened the gates of the city to him. We refer, of course, to the editors of some of the leading publishers' organs and literary journals. They are themselves Scotch. We infer this from general repute, from the names they bear, and from the way their speech bewrayeth them. They are continually falling off that *pons asinorum* of the dwellers beyond the Tweed—the distinction between shall and will. "Do you think you will ever learn it?" asked Barrie's editor, in 'When a Man's Single,' of his Scotch subordinate. "I'm afraid I never will," was the discouraged reply. It is obvious that, with friends thus on the critical ramparts, the moss-trooping Scots have a great advantage. Their works are heralded from afar, their intentions, their movements, their compliments, their sales are duly and impartially chronicled.

But the worst remains to be told. The beggars can write. They have a good style and have something to say. This is not usually heard among the audible complaints against the Scotch school of fiction, but one who listens closely to the mutterings under the breath will discover that it is really at the bottom of all. We could stand all these Hielan' airs and impudence if there were not so much to show for them. How Stevenson hammered out the instrument of his style he himself has told us. That he seldom found material worthy of its temper and edge was cause of regret to his fondest admirers in Scotland, who used to say openly to him, after each brilliant performance, "Yes, but when are you going to give us *the* book?" Barrie surprised the world with an original revelation of the humor and tenderness hidden away under the dourest Scotch exterior, and no one smiles more good-naturedly than he, we suspect, at the way Crockett and Watson have followed where he led. They carry into their books some of the tricks they learned in the pulpit—forcing the pathetic note, nudging the reader a little unnecessarily lest he lose the point—but, on the whole, they, like the others, know how to write well enough to justify the deep offence caused by their style in a sloppy and slovenly age.

Various are the hypotheses advanced (not by envious rivals, but by delighted readers) to account for the sudden and great popularity of the Scotch story-tellers. A favorite one is that their writings are like "a breath from the heather." This theory seems a little endangered by the fact that its principal supporters never saw or smelt heather, and wouldn't recognize it if they did. Moreover, there is, perhaps oftenest, a breath of a great many other odors in the pages of our Scotchmen. The breath of the slaughter-house is a savory thing in the nostrils of Stevenson and Crockett, on occasion, and the whiff of the kailyard, the smell of the stuffy room and of the unaired kirk, are too frequent and too powerful in them all to bear out the heather theory.

It is, in fact, too much to ask us to accept that theory in the case of a weary and fiction-worn generation. To suppose it eager for simple nature, for brooks and rocks and heather and haggis, and to account for the popularity of a new school of writers on the ground that they carry their readers into longed-for contact with

Mother Earth, is to go back to the ghastly artificialities of the court of Marie Antoinette. No, we doubt if the ablest critic will be able to make much more out of it than a love of constant change in the novel-consuming public. We admit that, a few years ago, it was all nicely settled. It was carefully explained to us by conscientious philosophers that the classic school had, in the nature of the case, and by an inner necessity of the evolution of fiction, to give way to the romantic novel, and that then that, in its turn, had to go to the lumber-room to be succeeded by the realistic novel. Exactly what might come in the future was a little doubtful, but it was certain that we should never go backwards. So we all thought, till one fine day we woke up to find ourselves in the midst of dungeons and moats and scaling-ladders and love-philters, and gentlemen and maids of France, and plots and villains and murders in all countries and ages—all wildly popular, all dramatized, all thrilled over by a rising generation which knows not Zola and regards not Howells. Fickleness of taste that can thus confound the historical lecturers is surely enough, taken together with freshness of theme and style, to account for the vogue of the Scotch invaders. We observe that the canniest of them are themselves persuaded that their day of grace may soon be written away, and are thriftily gathering together every available bit of plunder before being compelled to retreat to their fastnesses beyond the border.

OCTAVIUS BROOKS FROTHINGHAM.

THIS early friend and contributor, editorial and literary, to the *Nation* died in his native city last week, the day after his seventy-third birthday. He was born in Boston, November 26, 1822. His father was Nathaniel Langdon Frothingham, whose biography he published in 1890, with the title 'Boston Unitarianism, 1820–1850'—a title justified by the depiction of Dr. Frothingham as one of a class of Boston Unitarian preachers whose culture, urbanity, elegance, and cautious rationalism strongly marked the type, and in some respects differentiated it widely from that of Channing and Parker. Dr. Frothingham was one of the first German scholars in this country, and he translated many German hymns with great felicity. He was the minister of the First Church in Boston from 1815 to 1850, and his son's earliest ecclesiastical function was to blow the organ at the famous Thursday lecture, which committed hara-kiri to prevent the further use of it by Theodore Parker for the promulgation of his heretical opinions. The mother was Ann Gorham Brooks, a daughter of Peter C. Brooks and a sister of Mrs. Edward Everett and Mrs. Charles Francis Adams. Mr. Frothingham delineated the character of his grandfather Brooks in his 'Boston Unitarianism' with that frank sincerity which was a necessity to his intellectual ethics. To his father he credited his own idealism, fondness for literature, fastidiousness in regard to persons and books, conservatism of sentiment, and intellectual freedom, and to his mother his simplicity of purpose, directness of aim, and frank outspokenness. On his mother's side he was allied to Phillips Brooks, to whom bonds of admiration drew him closer than those of kinship.

He was educated at the Boston Latin School and Harvard College, graduating from the latter in 1843 and from the Divinity School in 1846. Among his companions in the Divinity School were Samuel Johnson, Samuel Longfellow, and T. W. Higginson, but he did not sympathize with the early radicalism of these men with whom he was intimately associated in his maturity—in his thinking and his reformatory spirit as well as in the admiration and affection of many followers and friends. His first settlement was in Salem, and it came to grief in precisely the same manner as the first settlement of Higginson and Johnson. It split upon the anti-slavery rock. His sympathy with the abolitionists was as pronounced as it was clear and strong, and it brought him into collision with the conservative and pro-slavery people of his congregation. He was in Salem from 1847 until 1855, and the coincidence of this period with the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law and the renditions of Sims and Burns made it impossible for him to withhold his warning and rebuke. Remembering how effective in the middle ages was the denial of the sacraments to contumacious persons, or regarding the Lord's Supper as a privilege which he must not confer on evil men, he refused to administer it because there were those in his church who applauded the infamous renditions. This course precipitated his departure, and in 1855 he took charge of a new church which had been formed in Jersey City. Meantime his anti-slavery liberalism had been, as it was with many, a solvent for his conservative theology. From a defender of his father's compromising obscurantism he had become a Transcendentalist in his philosophy, and an enthusiastic follower of the Tübingen criticism of F. C. Bauer, of which he wrote in the *Christian Examiner* with great fulness and contagious admiration.

The New Jersey pastorate was up-hill work, but it did not deter Mr. Frothingham from the charge of another new society which was formed in New York city in 1860, the Third Unitarian Society. In Jersey City he had entirely discontinued the use of the Lord's Supper, but for reasons quite different from Emerson's in 1832, conceiving that it bred self-righteousness. He finally came round to the opinion that it could be shorn of all its doubtful attributes and made a means of spiritual cultivation; but this was when he had long ceased to be a settled minister. Drs. Bellows and Osgood were the other Unitarian preachers in New York when he came here, and in his 'Recollections and Impressions' (1891) he has made pen-and-ink portraits of those clergymen which are remarkable for sympathetic appreciation and for their absolute sincerity. They at first received him graciously, but his ways were very different from theirs, especially from Dr. Osgood's, and at the dedication of his new church in 1863, though cordially invited, they were conspicuously absent from the scene, and his relations with them and with conservative Unitarians generally became more and more strained from this time forward. Meanwhile many younger men were looking to him with admiration and eagerly following his lead. When, in 1864, Dr. Hedge preached to the graduating divinity students upon "Anti-Supernaturalism in the Pulpit," Mr. Frothingham a few days later, in an address to the alumni of the Divinity School, met his positions with a force and candor that made the younger clergyman then and for the remainder of his active ministry the unmistakable leader of the radical party in the Unitarian body. When the National Conference of Unitarian and Other Christian Churches was formed in 1865, the terms of its fellowship were so little agreeable to Mr. Frothingham that, by his advice, his society, which soon after sold its church building and went to Lyric Hall, dropped the Unitarian name and called itself The Independent Liberal Church. The congregation steadily increased until in 1875 it removed to the Masonic Temple, where it habitually numbered nearly or quite a thousand persons, eventful seasons bringing many more.

No one was ever fonder of understatement than Mr. Frothingham, or applied it to himself more freely. From the minimizing account of his preaching in Lyric Hall and the Masonic Temple which he gave in his 'Recollections,' no stranger to the facts would derive any just conception of the force and beauty and nobility of his pulpit ministration, or of the profound impression it made upon a congregation, then the largest in the city, which, ranging through every grade of culture, had a solid centre of intelligence and character not to be excelled. The printing of his sermons every week gave an indefinite extension to his influence. They contain the substance of his message, but give no idea of the fascinating grace and beauty of the spoken word, which hardly Curtis could surpass, though something of apparent coldness, foreign to the man's private character, made him less attractive and engaging than he would otherwise have been. After a time he brought no manuscript to his desk. His range was wide, including fundamental problems of theology and ethics and philosophy, and equally the pressing social and political problems of the time. The society was an aggregation of individuals, defective on the side of organization and common practical activity. The preacher's serious eloquence was well-nigh the only bond of its coherency.

In 1867 the Free Religious Association was organized, mainly by Unitarians who were dissatisfied with the controlling temper of the Unitarian organization. On this association also, and particularly on his part in it, Mr. Frothingham turned an inverted opera-glass when he wrote of it in his 'Recollections and Impressions.' His stern self-criticism will not be accepted by those who remember him as the President of this association, the perfect art with which he presided over the great assemblages gathered in its earlier years and at the banquet-table, and the remarkable brilliancy and beauty which were married to the breadth and liberality of his annual addresses that reviewed the situation of the religious world from year to year.

Not only was Mr. Frothingham later than his friends Johnson, Longfellow, and Higginson in arriving at the Transcendentalist position, but he abandoned it about 1865, while their confidence in it remained unshaken. A review of Mill's 'Examination of Sir William Hamilton's Philosophy' marked his recession from the intuitionalist doctrine. Darwin's theory of the descent of man and Spencer's general doctrine of evolution found him an early friend, and science rather than philosophy was henceforth his guide of life. But whatever his position, he could do better justice to that which he opposed than could any of its friends except the best instructed of them all.

In 1879 Mr. Frothingham resigned the charge of his society and went abroad for a protracted period of residence and travel. Ill health, with worse threatening, was the sole cause of his retirement from the ministry. Incipient pa-

ralysis had made known its presence before he dropped the oar which he was never to resume. His last preaching was to his own people—his farewell discourse. After his arrival in Europe the trouble grew, spoiling his beautiful handwriting and affecting his speech (though not much) sufficiently to make preaching impossible for him after his return. Immediately upon this there was a flurry of excitement over his talk with a reporter for the *Evening Post*, in which he seemed to bring an unfriendly criticism to bear upon the work that he had done in New York, and the opinions he had held. But the talk was only the exaggeration of the mood of a depressed condition of his mind and body. He was always subject to reaction from the strain of mental effort—an optimist on Saturday night, a pessimist on Monday morning. He took pains to make it clear that he had made no recantation, that his position was more radical as time went on. But at the same time it was more liberal and sympathetic. Taking up his residence in Boston, he was seldom absent from the public meetings of the Unitarians, and often spoke at them; never without holding the attention of his hearers and winning their applause, if not for his opinions, for the fine audacity with which they were expressed. That the Unitarians were advancing rapidly from the position that he criticised in 1865, made it much easier for him to feel at home with them.

Before leaving the ministry, he had published, besides several volumes of sermons, two or three books of religious instruction for children—'The Child's Book of Religion,' 'Stories from the Patriarchs,' etc.—which had a wide circulation. He had also written an elaborate 'Life of Theodore Parker,' a 'History of New England Transcendentalism,' and a 'Life of Gerrit Smith.' The last-named book wounded the friends of Mr. Smith by its frank allowance (afterwards slightly modified) of his indirection in the John Brown affair, though Mr. Frothingham had strained a point to put a more favorable construction on the facts at his command than they obviously suggested. Delightful reading, all of these books—the 'Parker,' 'Smith,' and 'Transcendentalism'—were too hastily prepared, and were frequently inaccurate in minute particulars, with some serious omissions of important matters. His books written after his return from Europe were much better done, especially the 'George Ripley' in the "American Men of Letters," and the 'Memoir of William Henry Channing.' He also wrote a brief Life of his friend David A. Wasson, a thinker and poet of high character and genius and much sad experience. The 'Boston Unitarianism' and 'Recollections and Impressions' were singularly communicative for a man who had seemed thoroughly exclusive and reserved. He was not so in fact. The appearance was a misfortune related to the self-depreciating habit of his life. Sympathy and friendship he very greatly prized, but too hastily assumed that they were not for him. He described himself as yearning for people who were separated from him by some temperamental partition of translucent ice.

Mr. Frothingham's circumstances were always affluent, and his manners were of that dignity and grace which made his beautiful surroundings seem an inevitable environment. Aristocratic in his tastes, he was democratic in his principles, and whenever there was a conflict the former had to yield. For all that he accomplished he was still to those who knew him best a "spirit in prison," the elements so mixing in him that he never put forth all his strength.

RECOLLECTIONS OF BARTHÉLEMY-SAINT-HILAIRE.

NEW YORK, November 26, 1895.

WHEN Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire, who died last Monday in Paris, was born in that same city over ninety years ago, his health was so delicate that the family physician ordered the baby to the country for better air. So he was sent to the neighboring town of Sceaux and placed in a peasant family, where the wife, a sturdy woman with four children, nursed him and performed all the duties of a mother. "She was so vigorous," St.-Hilaire used to say of her, "that she was the only woman in the region round about Sceaux who earned men's wages—thirty sous instead of one franc. She could pitch up hay from the ground to the lofty cart from sunrise to sunset during the long summer days without getting weary." The young St.-Hilaire was treated by her exactly as if he were one of her own children. He ate what they did and slept where they did. It was the rough life of the ordinary peasantry. He remembered accompanying her in winter to the Meudon forest not very far away, where they would collect dead wood and then trudge home again in the snow and ice and cold, she bearing on her back a great bundle of branches, which protruded far over her head, while the little boy at her side carried a smaller one on his own back. St.-Hilaire always preserved a strong affection for this woman, and never lost sight of her when, in after-years, he rose to prominence; and when she died, he kept up his intercourse with her husband. "Though she could neither read nor write," he would say of her, "and was quite ignorant, I don't believe she had a single false idea in her head."

After this hardening process of his early childhood, nothing on the material side of existence ever tried him. On leaving Sceaux, strong and tough as a knot, Jules was sent to the Lycée Louis-le-Grand at Paris, whose severe régime was Paradise to him. But all through life his body demanded vigorous physical exercise. During the Restoration he began to frequent a gymnasium, though it was not till a later period that he became an enthusiastic and expert gymnast. He was an early adept of Laisné, the best-known gymnastic teacher of Paris during the reign of Louis Philippe and the Second Empire, "whose body was that of a gladiator." St.-Hilaire was so pleased with this instructor's methods that he suggested one day that Laisné write them out and put them in book form; and when Laisné pleaded ignorance of composition as his excuse for not doing so, his admiring pupil agreed to act as his amanuensis and editor. The result of this collaboration was a good-sized volume of three or four hundred pages, with the names of the two authors on the title-page, and though never given in the catalogue of works in the biographical sketches of Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire, who, at the time it was published, was a member of the Institute and professor of Greek and Latin philosophy at the College of France, still it can be found on the shelves of the National Library of Paris.

Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire loved to talk about his bodily strength, which was remarkable to the very end of his life. When a boy of fifteen or sixteen he and Littré, who was one of his earliest companions, and with whom he remained on the friendliest terms up to the day of the latter's death, though he did not share Littré's materialistic views, got up at four one morning in order to be at Vincennes in time to witness the practice-firing of the artillery. During the cannonading a big ball glanced off from the target and fell into the woods, where the boys found it. Thereupon Jules was seized with the desire to carry it back to Paris, notwithstanding its weight and the distance to the city. But his companions ridiculed the idea, and pronounced it impossible. This only emboldened Jules, who then and there made a bet with them that he could carry the ball from Paris to Versailles and back without ever letting it touch the ground. And he was as good as his word. Supporting it first in one hand and then in the other, or in both, and then resting it on the right and left shoulders successively, he reached Versailles with his charge, rested for a half-hour on one of the stone seats in the park, holding the ball on his feet so that it should not touch the ground, while he refreshed himself with a piece of bread and one nut—St.-Hilaire laid stress on the scantiness of his meal—and then trudged back to the capital in triumph, having covered some twenty miles. "Well," Littré used to say in recalling this boyish feat, "if you had not had the persistency to win that bet, you would never have translated the whole of Aristotle."

St.-Hilaire's gymnastic tastes brought him into relations with Prince Napoleon ("Plon Plon"), who was also a frequenter of Laisné's establishment, the teacher often going into raptures over this pupil's muscles. And St.-Hilaire would talk by the hour about this erratic Bonaparte.

"He was a monster," he used to say; "one of the worst men I ever encountered throughout my long career. But he was physically handsome. He had the striking physiognomy of the first Napoleon in the middle period of the Emperor's life. I say the middle period, for in his early manhood Napoleon was too thin, and toward his end too stout and puffed out; but in middle life his face possessed remarkable outlines, the very lineaments for a superb medallion. Prince Napoleon's features bore this stamp. He had a good intellect, too; was quick to grasp the salient points of a subject; was a ready speaker, and, though not a first-rate writer, wielded no ordinary pen. He had also a magnificently developed body and was a fine gymnast. He was exceedingly stingy, in which respect he differed completely from his father, King Jerome, who was so free with money as to be always in debt, a perfect *panier percé*."

Saint-Hilaire gave these two examples of Prince Napoleon's niggardliness. While Baron Heckeren, a Legitimist member of the Assembly during the republic of 1848, was speaking one day, he was interrupted by Napoleon, who sat on the Extreme Left. Turning on him, he said contemptuously, "Oh, it's only the Prince of the Mountain," and then went on to the end of his speech. But, having regained his seat, he sent seconds to the Prince, who, proverbial for his cowardice, had the matter amicably arranged, and invited the Baron and the four seconds to a love-feast, which came off at one of the leading restaurants. When the waiter brought the bill, Prince Napoleon glanced at the total and then remarked placidly, "Well, gentlemen, it's twenty-six francs apiece." Again, when the Prince's famous Pompeiian house in the Avenue Montaigne, which was torn down unfortunately two or three years ago, was being decorated, the architect suggested that one of the bare walls be set off by a well-known picture then on exhibition. The Prince asked how much the canvas would cost, and when informed that the price would probably be some 25,000 francs, he answered: "Wait till the Salon closes; if the picture is not then sold, the artist will be glad to get four or five thousand for it." And this at a time when his cousin, the Emperor, was

striving to associate the art world of France with the fortunes of the Empire.

Ferdinand de Lesseps was another famous Frenchman about whom Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire could recount many interesting facts. They were closely associated during the early stages of the Suez Canal enterprise, and St.-Hilaire acted as general secretary of the preliminary company, his chief work being to "write it up." This was during the years 1856-'7 and '8, when St.-Hilaire edited and wrote most of the contents of a weekly sixty-column quarto journal run in the interest of the canal. The two men then lived on the same floor of a house in the Rue Richepanse, their front doors being opposite one another and on the same landing. They were so intimate that St.-Hilaire used to address De Lesseps as "Ferdinand," and though they afterwards broke, on account of differences concerning the policy to be pursued in the final organization of the company, they separated with the highest respect and even affection for one another, so that later De Lesseps sent St.-Hilaire a "founder's share," which is to-day worth over 100,000 francs, I believe, but which St.-Hilaire declined with thanks. "He was utterly without personal cupidity," St.-Hilaire used to say of De Lesseps; "he would use money lavishly, too lavishly—not on himself, however, but to promote schemes which were to be a benefit to the whole human family. He was energetic, indefatigable, and bold even to rashness."

But the greatest incident of a personal nature in Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire's career was his connection with Thiers. He got into confidential secretarial relations with Thiers much before 1871. He was undoubtedly one of the many collaborators on the Histories, though when I once asked him if this were so, he avoided answering my question. He stated of his own accord, however, that in 1864 he made researches concerning Mexico which Thiers utilized in powerful speeches on this subject delivered in the Corps Législatif. When Thiers went down to Bordeaux in February, 1871, everybody knew that he was the coming man. He was accompanied by his wife and sister-in-law; and St.-Hilaire, who was, like Thiers, a Deputy, was invited to stay with them. Then occurred the first decisive step in that political copartnership which had such a strong influence on French politics. "Noticing the heap of mail matter which arrived for Thiers daily," said St.-Hilaire, "I offered to attend to it for him. He gladly acceded to my request, remarking: 'Vous me sauvez la vie.'" And when, a few days later, Thiers became the Chief Executive of the republic, Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire was given the title of General Secretary of the Presidency. This was the third instance of his having held the post of secretary under very different and very important circumstances. I have already mentioned his connection with the Suez Canal Company. He was also Secretary of the provisional Republican Government of 1848, when he performed useful public services which are recorded in the official papers of that time.

Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire was invaluable to Thiers during the latter's Presidency. They used to begin work together every morning at 5:30, and continue thus till 6:30, when each went to his own desk. "The labor was incessant and terribly fatiguing," to use St.-Hilaire's words, which he illustrated by telling this anecdote:

"On one occasion when I was called in to a sitting of the ministers to explain an affair with which I was more *au courant* than Thiers, I was placed on his right in order that we might consult together. Having answered the questions put to me by the ministers, a discussion followed, during which my head dropped on my breast and I fell fast asleep. When further questions were asked me, Thiers had to shake me, while he remarked: 'Excuse him, gentlemen; he is worn out in aiding me, for without his help I could not accomplish the quarter of what I do.' Coming from such a man as Thiers and in such a cause, I felt that this recognition fully repaid me for all my labor."

When it is known that St.-Hilaire would accept no salary for this arduous work either from Thiers or from the state, his conduct becomes all the more exemplary.

At this time the monarchical faction and the republican faction in the National Assembly were both straining every nerve to "capture" Thiers. The Right was most eager to separate the two men because it was believed that St.-Hilaire was influencing Thiers in favor of the republic. "When I left the lycée," said the former, "I was a republican. I don't know exactly how I became one, but at that age one is ardent and goes to extremes; so I found myself a republican although the atmosphere was then thoroughly impregnated with constitutional monarchy. My friends and associates under Louis Philippe—Thiers, De Rémusat, Duvergier de Hauranne, etc.—were almost all monarchists, and they used to smile at my republican ideas." And then, coming down to 1871, and taking up the complaint of the Right, he added: "I never did anything of the kind. Thiers was not the sort of man to be affected in that way. Of course his close daily relations with an old and pronounced republican like myself doubtless had a certain moral influence on him. But Thiers was too much of a statesman not to see that the republic was the only government possible under the circumstances." Notwithstanding St.-Hilaire's modest disclaimer, there can be no doubt that his intimacy with the President at this critical moment in the history of the Third Republic had not a little to do with keeping Thiers in line with the republican movement, and thus greatly aiding in the final foundation of the republic.

This retiring disposition in Barthélemy-St.-Hilaire's character is well brought out in his statement of the line of conduct which he early laid down for himself, and which he always followed as regards the world's honors. "Don't ask for anything, don't strive for laurels," he would say to the young men who went to consult him; "do the best you can to make yourselves indispensable to man and society about you, and they will be only too glad to offer you honors. At the very start in life I was convinced that this was the best course to pursue." Then, to illustrate the correctness of this policy by examples from his own public and literary career, he would relate how when, as an obscure young clerk in the Treasury Department, he decided to offer his country a complete translation of Aristotle's works, Victor Cousin, then all-powerful, heard of this grand undertaking and became interested in the author of it, and thence came St.-Hilaire's chair in the College of France and his membership in the Institute; how he became President of the College of France because, as a Deputy, he had defended some of the professors against unjust treatment on the part of the Government, these professors afterwards securing his nomination to that high post; how he was selected as a candidate for the National Assembly in 1848 because he had always been a republican, the committee coming to him and not he going to the committee in order to secure the nomination, etc.

Barthélemy-St.-Hilaire's translation of Aristotle into French was his *magnum opus*. He estimated that it had cost him from eighty to ninety thousand hours of labor to accomplish this task, during a period extending from 1832 to 1892. He was thus sixty years on this work, and was eighty-seven years old when it was completed. Yet this translation was not the only *tour de force*—I am told that classical scholars do not consider it much else than this—of this wonderful old man. He was occupied twenty-two years on a rhymed metrical translation of the 'Iliad.' "I always carried a Homer with me and would translate it in train or omnibus, whenever I could find a free moment. I did not have the time to go over my manuscript with care and to polish the verses. The chief merit of my version is found in the fact that I have succeeded in making a verse-for-verse rendering. I may have forced and distorted now and then the meaning of my French, but I have carried my point—a verse-for-verse translation." And not less remarkable than the two foregoing examples of literary indefatigableness was the production of his 'Life of Cousin,' which I noticed in these columns last winter. In fact, still another wonder attaches to this work—its having been accomplished by a man who had almost reached four score and ten, for when these three big volumes of nearly seven hundred pages each were issued last spring, their author was within a few weeks of the anniversary of his ninetieth birthday. And last August, just three days before he celebrated that event, he wrote me: "I am busy at this moment on the second edition of Cousin's 'Plato,' and I hope to publish the first volume towards the end of the year."

THEODORE STANTON.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN LYNCHINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Scarcely had Massachusetts uttered an indignant protest against a species of anarchy which the South has countenanced too long, before another lynching of a negro took place, this time at Frederick, Maryland. The victim deserved his fate, for he abused the hospitality of a servant girl who gave him food, and then he committed fiendish rape upon her. The leader of the mob which soon afterwards hung him, justified their conduct by saying that they wanted to make an example and warn all blacks that they must let white women alone.

The mischief is that these *examples*, whether they be like the comparatively mild retribution which has just occurred in Maryland, or a revolting, brutalizing, slow burning at the stake, such as happened not long ago in Texas, instead of lessening, increase the evil they seek to suppress. For thirty years lynch law has prevailed in many parts of the South, and, unfortunately, of late years, has also gained a foothold in some Northern localities. Almost as soon as one mob has wreaked summary vengeance upon one trembling wretch, another negro must be taken in hand.

What is the reason that the American nation has not stamped out lynch law? Are not public sentiment and false reasoning at fault? Do not even intelligent people complacently accept the plea that all courts, juries, and judges are so incompetent that mobs must, like savages, take the law into their own hands? Is it not time that such childish apologies should no

longer be taken in extenuation of lawlessness and anarchy?

Eight years ago, in Chicago, certain headstrong anarchists, who had good cause to be enraged at the manner in which the laboring classes had been oppressed, engaged in a riot, hurled dynamite bombs, and destroyed much life and valuable property. Eight men were tried, convicted of treason, and executed. The whole country, from Maine to California and from Massachusetts to Texas, stood as a unit, and approved of the principle that anarchists who broke the laws and resisted government must be punished as traitors. Why ought not the same stern justice to be meted out to those other anarchists who are known as lynchers? Why not consider lynching as a form of high treason? If, in answer, it be said that often the best portion of a community has led in a lynching, so much the worse. The more aristocratic the lynchers, the swifter ought to be their conviction. Indeed, it is a question whether every place in which a lynching happens ought not to be placed under military law, and the perpetrators tried by court-martial. But more important than all legal restraint is it that people should be taught to hold sacred the principle that even the vilest criminal must be treated justly, is entitled to "the equal protection of the laws," and must be tried, convicted, and punished only after a fair trial and by an impartial tribunal. Until this principle is recognized, lynching and all its attendant horrors will continue to stifle American civilization. F. M. Noa.

Briar Bend Seminary, Mt. Lake Park, Md., November 25, 1895.

AN APPEAL FOR THE DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "X.," in his "Plea for the Study of Latin Grammar" (*Nation*, November 21), sounds a note of warning which is needed, and should be heeded, in these days, far beyond the limits of his own special theme. I was brought up in the good old times when the method was to go (straight) through the Latin grammar once, learning by heart the "big print"; then again, learning the "little print"; and then a third time, learning all, "big and little print." This was doubtless a dire method; but then at least we learned and knew something at school, and were qualified, under better teaching afterwards, to learn to read or to write Latin. Now, under the modern method, I see students who have not only come to college, but even graduated from college, without knowing their nouns or verbs, and are therefore apt to make the gravest mistakes in either writing or reading. But so far I only repeat what "X." has so well said. My true object is to make another protest against some present methods and tendencies in the teaching (?) of language.

"X." says truly: "Many men enter college every year who have never owned grammar or dictionary." Leaving the question of grammar where he has put it, I wish to make my appeal for the dictionary. It is true that students now come to college—may, indeed, even go through college—without either owning or knowing how to use a dictionary (I speak of my own department of modern languages). The pernicious habit of editing and publishing texts, by no means elementary, "with vocabulary," tends not only to the disuse of the dictionary, but directly also to a shallow and superficial scholarship. A student fed on such spoon-victuals does not know how even to use a dictionary, and is left helpless for any higher literary study. The number of such "vocabulary" editions is great and ever growing. From a single list before me, of a most reputable house, I count (outside of readers and other elementary books) about twenty such titles. We cannot blame the publishers, who naturally print what will sell; but we may make protest against such editions, and to the teachers who use and create the demand for them. Such hand-to mouth vocabularies should not be tolerated by any teacher, whether of ancient or modern languages, beyond the limit of purely elementary or introductory reading.

Y.

November, 1895.

"SEVERAL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With regard to the use of *several* in the sense of 'many' or 'not a few,' of which mention is made in your issue of this week, it may interest some of your readers to know that this use of the word survives in this country all through western North Carolina, and probably in other remote portions of the South. For instance, on asking a native of the Toe River region if there were many fish in the river, I received the reply: "Oh, yes; there's several of them." H. G.

Omaha, November 23, 1895.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have nearly ready a 'History of the Church Catholic,' by the Rev. A. H. Hore, a companion volume to the same author's 'History of the Church of England.'

Macmillan & Co. announce a new edition of 'The Marvellous Adventures of Sir John Maundeville, Knt.,' with designs by Arthur Layard; and 'Experimental Morphology,' by Charles B. Adams, Ph.D.

Dodd, Mead & Co. offer a limited edition in several styles, all elegant, of Austin Dobson's Poems, revised, enlarged and complete, with etched portrait by William Strang, and seven full-page etchings by Ad. Lalauze; in two volumes, 16mo. The enterprise will be wholly American.

Mr. Frederic Harrison is working away upon his 'Life of William the Silent.' He recently visited Holland in search of materials for his *magnum opus*, when the object of his visit was much advanced by the friendly offices of Sir Horace Rumbold, the British Minister at The Hague.

'British Guiana and its Resources' is the name of a book shortly to be published in London, of which the author is Mr. Tennant, formerly M. P. for Leeds on the Conservative side. As Mr. Tennant spent some time in British Guiana, in 1892-'93, and during his stay there visited several of the outlying districts, he will write with some personal knowledge of his subject. The question of the boundaries of British Guiana is, notoriously, the cause of the existing difficulties between Great Britain and Venezuela.

Mr. Fortescue, who has succeeded the late Mr. Noel Sainsbury at the Public Record Office, London, in the function of calendaring the papers of the Colonial Series, is now passing through the press a fresh volume, the materials of which have been prepared in part by himself and in part by Mr. Sainsbury. Many papers among those thus calendared relate to the founding of Pennsylvania. There is also a statement, written by Roger Williams when an old man, containing one or two facts pertaining to the early history of Rhode Island. There are many documents concerning the grant of a constitution to Jamaica, and the resistance made by the colonists to the attempt of the home authorities to impose upon that island a form of government which would have subjected them to the operation of Poynings' Law as applied to Ireland. The Memoir of Mr. Sainsbury for the English 'Dictionary of National Biography,' by the way, is being written by Mr. C. Alexander Harris of the Colonial Office, London, who has already contributed several "lives" of persons who had been connected with the Colonies to that monumental work.

Mr. Alfred Parsons's trip to Japan in 1892 was prolific in the products of his brush, and a generous selection of some 125 of these is reproduced, in small octavo form, with a running accompaniment from his journal ('Notes in Japan,' Harpers). Most of the material, both pictures and text, seems to be identical with that which he has already published in *Harper's Magazine*. The Notes are chiefly descriptive of the scenery, and have the special interest which attaches to an artist's impressions. Of his exquisite landscapes nothing need here be said. They have already been seen and praised in this country, and their accuracy and naturalness make them delightful mementos for the returned traveller. They have, of course, lost incomparably in reproduction without color; no one who has not seen, for example, the "Bamboo Grove" (p. 70) or the "Field of Lilies" (p. 82), can imagine the original.

Probably the most widely read of contemporary Italian writers—certainly of travel-writers—is Edmondo de Amicis. The Henry T. Coates Co., Philadelphia, has issued for the holidays an edition of his 'Spain and the Spaniards,' in two volumes newly translated from the tenth edition of the Italian by Stanley Rhoads Yarnall, adorned with forty-seven full-page illustrations of scenery, cities, genre pictures and reproductions of famous paintings, bound in white and gold, and protected by stiff red covers. A comparison of the text with the translation by Wilhelmina W. Cady, which was printed in 1881, shows that on the whole the new version is the more compact and idiomatic. Next to Gautier's graphic volume, De Amicis's remains to this day the most entertaining of all tourist books on Spain.

Macmillan is the American agent for R. A. M. Stevenson's 'Art of Velasquez,' of which George Bell & Sons, London, are the publishers. It is a sumptuous quarto volume illustrated with twenty photogravures of the great Spaniard's best and best-known works, besides forty-three "supplementary illustrations" in half-tone placed together at the end. Mr. Stevenson, who has himself had the training of an artist, makes an intelligent analysis of Velasquez's aims and methods from the point of view of an ultra-modern critic, who sees in his subject the forerunner of Manet and Whistler and the real founder of impressionism. It is perhaps natural that he should be oblivious of the fact that Velasquez's few attempts at the decorative and religious types of art are uninteresting, not merely because they are not modern, but because they are distinctly failures in what he attempts, and show that he was as inferior to the elder painters on their ground as he was superior to them on his own. The photogravures are somewhat black and spotty, and fail to do invariable and complete justice to the magnificent tone of the

originals, but they give enough of authentic fact in other particulars to be very valuable. The frontispiece, after the "Venus" belonging to Mrs. Morritt of Rokeby Park, is especially successful, and is the more welcome as the picture has been seldom and inadequately reproduced.

Mr. John Kendrick Bangs's *jeu d'esprit*, 'A House-Boat on the Styx: Being some account of the divers doings of the Associated Shades' (Harpers), made its hit in the *Weekly*, and will bear rereading once in book form. The humor of the conception perhaps surpasses that of any part of the execution, unless we except the very natural drollery of the debate between Noah and Barnum on the resolution, "The Animals of the Antediluvian Periods were Far More Attractive for Show Purposes than those of Modern Make." Pretty certainly, too, it may be affirmed that the comicality of Mr. Bangs's dialogues is largely indebted to Mr. Peter Newell's inimitable portrait-group illustrations. But here we have a grievance against the publishers, who have reduced the scale of the pictures to suit the book, thus forfeiting half their effectiveness in the *Weekly*. In humor and imagination they rank high, but of pure art also there is no mean evidence in them. The representation of the Styx in the Captain Kidd design would not disgrace the Scandinavian Thaulow, first of painters of freezing streams.

Messrs. Stone & Kimball, Chicago, publish in one dainty volume the five biographies known as 'Walton's Lives,' viz., of Doctor John Donne, Sir Henry Wotton, Mr. Richard Hooker, Mr. George Herbert, and Doctor Robert Sanderson. The whole volume, in paper, typography, and binding, has been designed to preserve something of the quaint flavor of antiquity which clings about the charming text of the genial author. If our literary knowledge is not thereby increased, we may at least be grateful for a book which helps us to gain the right impression from an author whom to enjoy is rather an æsthetic than a learned pleasure.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, publish 'Recollections of Lincoln,' by Ward H. Lamon. These are based on papers, more or less complete, left by Mr. Lamon, who was close to Mr. Lincoln from 1847 onward, being Marshal of the District of Columbia during the war period. His daughter, Miss Dorothy Lamon, edits them, but we are not told how extensive the work of revision and compilation has been. Every detail of Mr. Lincoln's life, saved by those who were near to him, is eagerly received, and the sifting process, to eliminate the bias of the narrators, must come later.

The Massachusetts Military Historical Society have published a new volume of papers, under title of 'Campaigns in Virginia, 1861-1862' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It is a revised and enlarged edition of their former volume, printed in 1881, entitled 'The Peninsular Campaign of McClellan in 1862.' The book consists mostly of a series of exceptionally valuable papers by the late Gen. John C. Palfrey, in which he criticised the campaign in the light of his personal experience as an officer in it. The new papers added are Colonel Thos. L. Livermore's on Patterson's Shenandoah campaign, and Major Jas. F. Huntington's on operations in the same valley under Shields in 1862. Colonel Livermore's paper is an admirable specimen of calm and clear-cut military analysis. Major Huntington's is a living presentation of an artilleryman's experience in a rough campaign. Four large, well-engraved maps illustrate the text. The volume is edited by Theodore F. Dwight.

A 'History of the 17th Lancers [Duke of Cambridge's Own],' published by Macmillan & Co., is an interesting proof of the pride English officers feel in their old regiments. A sumptuous royal octavo, with tinted illustrations of uniforms and equipments—several of them beautiful reproductions from water-color drawings—makes an attractive book for the library table. The text, by the Hon. J. W. Fortescue, is a lively narrative of the regiment's service from 1760 downward. It was with Tarleton in South Carolina in our Revolutionary war. It had a rough experience in the West Indies in the Maroon war, where it was decimated by yellow fever. It served in Buenos Ayres in 1807. It had several years' service in India, including the Pindari war, in the twenties. Its glory culminated in the Charge of the Light Brigade at Balaklava in 1854. Then came more Indian experience in the Sepoy mutiny, and finally the Zulu war in Africa in 1879. No wonder its members rally to its grim emblem of the skull and cross-bones, with its motto "or glory" beneath. Reading the book, one can easily understand how the fame of the regiment compels its new men to become good soldiers.

The recent visit of the Bechuana chiefs to England is the occasion of the Rev. E. Lloyd's 'Three Great African Chiefs' (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams). It is a very crude sketch of the history of this South-African tribe, in addition to an account of its principal chiefs. The only one of their number who has any claim to be called "great" is Khama, perhaps the most enlightened African ruler of this day, whose principal aim is to prevent the sale of liquor to his people. Something is shown of the customs and religion of the natives, together with three specimens of their folk-lore, which bear a striking resemblance to other African tales, the hare being represented as having the mastery over the other animals through his cunning.

A second edition of Prof. John S. Mackenzie's 'Introduction to Social Philosophy' is published by Macmillan & Co. The changes introduced in this edition are, on the whole, slight, consisting chiefly of references to the recent literature of the subject, and of occasional footnotes. While Prof. Mackenzie's results are not, perhaps, very definite in character, the spirit of his book is philosophical, and his method of treating social problems is critical and suggestive.

'The Book of Athletics,' published by the Lothrop Publishing Co. of Boston, is edited by Norman W. Bingham, Jr., a distinguished college athlete. It is an ambitious effort to cover the whole athletic field in twenty-four short chapters, and the verdict must be that the effort is not a successful one. The subject has been pretty thoroughly threshed out of late years on both sides of the Atlantic, with perhaps excessive elaboration, and it is not easy to imagine a *raison d'être* for this sketchy volume. The print is good, but the illustrations uneven, and some of them preposterous—especially those at page 30 and page 48. In the latter case, four gentlemen of normal size are represented as playing lawn tennis in a court about 10 feet long by 5 feet wide.

It was a good thought to offer new editions of the great classics in a handy form, with introductions by eminent scholars. Mr. Page's to Virgil, in Macmillan's "Parnassus Series," is chiefly literary, including Tennyson's well-known ode; Mr. Leaf's to Homer is critical. But it is obvious that whatever merit the contents have, it is the form to which the publishers chiefly mean our attention to be directed. The volumes are in glazed boards, emblazoned with classic designs in dull Pompeian red, and wrapped in covers like the case of a caramel. The paper is very white and very rough; uncut in every sense of the word, with ragged edges, and a top that needs a paper-cutter; the type very black and rather pretty in the Virgil, very fantastic in the Homer, meant to imitate a diminutive uncial MS., and giving all scholars past fifty very distinctly to know that the end of the century outstrips them even in its Greek alphabet. It is well to have pretty pocket editions; but Virgil and Homer are the last books to have *fin-de-siècle* elegances thrust upon them.

A little work, 'Unsere Muttersprache, ihr Werden und ihr Wesen,' by Prof. Dr. O. Weise (Leipzig: Teubner), deserves the special attention of that vast majority of students and teachers of German who, from choice or necessity, are devoting themselves to the literary rather than the philological side of the study. The essay, which was awarded a prize by the Allgemeiner Deutscher Sprachverein, is designed for cultured readers who are not specialists; even a knowledge of Old and Middle-High German is not requisite for its comprehension. On the other hand, the author has kept abreast of modern scholarship, and references to the works of most of the leading specialists are abundant. The intimate relation between the language and the genius and life of the people is kept before the reader throughout the book, a feature which distinguishes it from Behaghel's well-known work on the same subject. Commendable care has been bestowed upon the style, which is as easy as comports with the nature of the work.

Klee's 'Grundzüge der Deutschen Litteraturgeschichte,' although about the size of Kluge's 'Nationallitteratur' or König's 'Abriss,' is quite different from these, and might serve as a good companion-book for either. While these two aim to give the reader a brief account of the lives of the great writers and the contents of their works, Klee endeavors to show the rise and development of the literature and its factors. Instead of analyzing the great classics, he shows how they were influenced by previous productions, and how they in turn influenced subsequent ones. The biographical portions of the book are frequently in the form of a syllabus, merely giving topics for the teacher to enlarge upon or for the reader to look up elsewhere. The treatment of contemporary writers is even far more meagre than that in Wells's recent 'History of German Literature'; the writers of the seventies and eighties are discussed in about two pages, while the radical leaders of the present decade are spoken of as the naturalistic school, but Sudermann and Hauptmann are the only ones mentioned.

Siberia is the subject of the two articles of most general interest in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for October. The first is a description of its navigable streams and their relations to each other. The writer shows that it would not be difficult so to connect them with a few canals and roads as to make a complete system of water communication throughout the country from the mouth of the Amur to Archangel. By this means the development of the land would be hastened. The other article is a statistical account of the province of Yeniseisk, from which we learn that the population in 1891 was 461,000, of whom 4,050 were Armenians. The population is slowly increasing, though the death-rate of the towns is greater than the birth-rate. Scarcely a tenth of the arable land is cultivated, the principal products being corn and potatoes.

Ten thousand people are occupied in washing gold, the product for 1891 being 6,878 pounds, or less than half the amount obtained twenty years ago. There are a few manufactories, tanneries, and breweries, the entire annual business of the province amounting to about eight million rubles.

The principal article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November is by Mr. J. Dodd, a resident of the island of Formosa for twenty-five years. Referring to the great decline of the trade in camphor, once the principal export, and the reckless destruction by the Chinese of the camphor forests, he expresses the hope that since there is an increased demand for the gum in the manufacture of smokeless powder, the Japanese will take immediate measures to replant the waste lands. Tea is now by far the most important article of export, Tamsui alone shipping annually about twenty million pounds. The mineral wealth, especially in gold and iron, is known to be considerable, though a large part of the island is still unexplored. Coal and sulphur are found in large quantities, and in several places in the interior there are flowing springs of petroleum which are unworked because of obstructions on the part of the mandarins. In another article Mr. Healtey urges the claims of Akik, a port on the Red Sea south of Suakin, to be the terminus of the proposed railroad to Khartum on the upper Nile.

Sun and Shade (New York Photogravure Co.) continues in its last three monthly issues its examples of color printing, which still show a want of complete control of the primary colors employed in the three or more impressions. In the November issue the view from nature of Prospect Park is more interesting than its predecessors from pigments, because more difficult from the conditions of the process; but it leaves something to be desired.

The *Photographic Times* for January not only will be profusely illustrated, but will begin the serial publication of an 'Encyclopædic Dictionary of Photography' on a scale not yet attempted.

A new mode of producing alcohol, by which its price will be reduced by four-fifths or nine-tenths, must revolutionize many arts. Carbide of calcium and zinc-scraps mixed are acted on by dilute sulphuric acid. Ethylene results. This gas, led over hot sulphuric acid, makes ethyl-sulphuric acid, now used to make ether. From ethyl-sulphuric acid alcohol can be directly distilled. In this way, the promoters promise to produce 96 per cent. alcohol needing no rectification for something like 25 cents a gallon; but it is impossible to verify this figure. Still, something like that may be hoped for. When, thirty or forty years ago, Berthelot made his first announcement of the production of an "organic" body by synthesis—it was, by the way, the same acetylene which is now influential in producing the ethylene for the first step of the above process—nobody dreamed that it meant anything more than the overthrow of the theory that "organic" compounds can be produced only by vital processes. To-day it has become an economic truth. The maxim is: Do not make high products merely to break them down to obtain low products. Do not resort to the agencies of growth to make celluloid and starch, when all you want is the far lower compound, alcohol.

The Prussian Minister of Education, Dr. Julius Bosse, has given yet another proof of his liberal attitude towards students regardless of sex, by granting permission to a contingent of sixty seven American women to attend certain winter lectures at the University of Berlin. This apparent "favoritism" to our countrywomen has drawn forth a protest from German women, many of whom have been excluded from the same courses. There seems little doubt that German women who desire university instruction meet with every obstacle that custom and law permit from the hands of German professors.

What might seem like a temporary check to the movement for the higher education of women in Great Britain has been given by the Royal Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons, London, in refusing the petition of the London School of Medicine for Women for the admission of its students to the examinations and diplomas of these professional colleges. While it is true that the students of the London School of Medicine for Women may obtain legal status by passing the examinations of London University or the Society of Apothecaries, they are still so far handicapped by ancient prejudice and the privileges of vested rights that, if they desire a diploma from a college of physicians or surgeons, they must go to Ireland or Scotland or the Continent to procure one, thus increasing needlessly the expense and fatigue of their examinations. It is interesting, therefore, to find that, in spite of small adverse majorities, the debates and divisions of these autocratic bodies register a real advance in general professional opinion as to the right and fitness of women to become medical practitioners. Of the 109 fellows present at the Comitia of the Royal College of Physicians, 50 voted in favor of the women's petition.

—An interesting point in the law of literary property is raised by the correspondence in the *Critic* of October 26 and November 2, concerning the reprinting of a story by Mrs. R. H. Davis without her permission. The publisher, it seems, claims that, having bought certain property—apparently the good will of a defunct periodical—he acquired the right to republish any contribution thereto. He did this in the case of Mrs. Davis's story without even mentioning that it had been previously printed. Now this is a matter not provided for by our statutes, nor has such a case, to our knowledge, come to trial in this country; but, in default of specific statutory provision, our courts usually follow English precedents, and we have one applicable in the case of the Bishop of Hereford vs. Griffin, in 1848. The Bishop had written an article for an encyclopædia, and some years later the defendant, having bought the copyright of this, reissued the plaintiff's article in another form. He was, however, enjoined from continuing the publication, the judge holding that the copyright rests in the author except in so far as he specifically parts with it, and that the right to publish in one form did not authorize the use of the same matter in another form. The opinion is given at length in the *Literary World* of March 25, 1848. As Miss Mary E. Wilkins made a similar complaint a year or two since, it would appear that American authors are not aware of their rights in the premises.

—The placing in the Public Library of Boston of the new decoration by Puvis de Chavannes has stimulated an interest in that eminent painter, and L. Prang & Co. publish in pamphlet form a sketch of him by Lily Lewis Rood. The summer number of *Modern Art*, from the same publishers, is also largely devoted to the great modern decorator and to his virulent critic, Dr. Max Nordau. Neither Miss Rood's pamphlet nor the translation from Roger Ballu in *Modern Art* can be said to give much in the way of illuminating criticism or of interesting fact, both being attempts at saying, in more or less eloquent language, that the writers find Puvis's work very beautiful. How and why it is beautiful they help one little to discern. One of the illustrations in the pamphlet, a female head, will give a new view of Puvis's art to many. Mr. G. Bernard Shaw's letter on Nordau is another exposure of that bumptious person's entire ignorance of art. Mr. Shaw characterizes Nordau's art criticism as "the work of a pretentious ignoramus, instantly recognizable as such by any expert," adding, "I copy his bluntness of speech as a matter of courtesy to him." But although Mr. Shaw gives many instances of Nordau's blundering, he does not succeed in showing that writer's radical misconception of art so thoroughly as does Nordau himself in a criticism of Puvis de Chavannes's Boston decoration, which the editor of *Modern Art* reproduces in the same number from a Vienna newspaper. This, while more violent, is in the vein of his remarks in the *Century* on the same artist. Puvis is "affected" and "insincere" because his color is non-natural. If not insincere, he must be diseased. All this is, of course, the result of a failure to understand that the end of Puvis's art is not representation, but decoration, and that the actual truth of nature is neither here nor there. Fact, both of form and color, has been purposely sacrificed to the flatness and simplicity desirable in mural painting, and the critic who fails to understand this, and finds fault with a decoration for not being realistic or for lack of fulness and richness of color, merely condemns himself.

—The London Bibliographical Society does much good work in a quiet way, and its publications, though not apt to be advertised or boomed, are always well worth having. The latest is an 'Iconography of Don Quixote, 1605–1895,' by Mr. H. S. Ashbee. The list he gives of pictures of every kind, paintings, engravings, and drawings, done to illustrate the work of Cervantes will, however, interest the bibliophile rather than the artist. Mr. Ashbee himself laments, in his preface, that these have been, as a rule, unimportant. "It must be owned, I fear," he writes, "that no work of art emanating from Spain's most famous literary production can be placed in the very foremost rank." This is in a large measure true. From Coypel downward to Doré, few of 'Don Quixote's' illustrators produced work that from the artistic standpoint is worth preserving. This is all the more curious because the subject seems ever to have attracted, and one finds artists as different as Chodowiecki and Stothard and Bonington and Devéria, all making an attempt to treat it pictorially. It was natural that so picturesque a figure as the Knight of La Mancha should have appealed to the men of 1830. *L'Artiste*, the organ of the Romanticists, published numerous illustrations of the story. Daumier made it the motive for more than one painting. Mr. Ashbee mentions his "Don Quixote et Sancho se rendant aux noces de Gamache," exhibited in the Salon of 1850; and we have seen a couple of large oil studies by him which were so beautiful in color, so poetic in feeling, that we have always wondered why Daumier should be best remembered as a caricaturist. There is not, it must be confessed, much effort to tell the story, but one of these studies, which shows Don Quixote a strange, gaunt, but majestic figure, with Sancho Panza in a wild, rocky pass of the Sierra Morena, seems to us, vague impres-

sion as it is, to possess more of the sentiment of Cervantes than any of the elaborate illustrations, full of all sorts of correct detail. Of the illustrated editions, one of the most interesting belongs to the same period. This is the volume illustrated by Tony Johannot, whose drawings for it were engraved on wood by some of the best French and English wood-engravers of the day, among others the Thompsons, Williamses, and Orrin Smith, who were all pupils of Bewick and Clennell. It is a book now sought by the collectors because of these engravings. Quite as interesting, and really more successful artistically, is the English edition with drawings by A. Boyd Houghton and engravings by the Dalziels, published in 1866 by Frederick Warne. Houghton is one of the greatest illustrators who ever worked in England, and if Daumier was the most satisfactory painter of Don Quixote, Houghton must be said to have been the most sympathetic and vigorous interpreter in black and white. Little else is of special note in the long list. Mr. Ashbee has done his work most thoroughly. He gives at the end a good index and useful tables of editions and authorities consulted. His monograph has been admirably printed at the University Press of Aberdeen.

—The Society of Illustrators in London is but a comparatively youthful organization, not quite two years old; but it has not been idle, and already it is prepared to give its first public exhibition, as is appropriate, in an illustrated volume to be published shortly by Messrs. Macmillan in New York and London. This is called 'The London Garland,' and the wonder is that, without waiting for the Society of Illustrators, the book was not made long ago. London is, for the artist, the most picturesque place in the world, and it is one where many poets have sung; an illustrated anthology seems, therefore, almost inevitable. The Illustrators have secured the best of literary editors in Mr. W. E. Henley, whose knowledge may be relied upon and whose own "Voluntaries" gives the true spirit and beauty of London, in its fogs and in its sunshine, on its river and in its parks and streets, more truly, probably, than any verses ever yet written. He begins the collection with Chaucer and Lydgate; he includes, of course, Drayton, the Thames of whose 'Polyolbion' flows through London, and Ben Jonson and Herrick and Suckling; Pope and Gay and Carey, among others, represent the eighteenth century; while, from the time of Keats and Praed and Hood to the present, there is almost too much to choose from. All the great poets of later generations, Tennyson, Rossetti, Matthew Arnold, as well as a host of the lesser, have had their songs to sing of London town. The illustrations are as varied as the verse. Mr. Whistler and Sir Seymour Haden contribute, Mr. Whistler illustrating Mr. Henley's "Old Chelsea Bridge," so that here will be had the happy combination of the two men who, above all others, have known how to express the mystery and poetry of the Thames in paint and in words. There is work from draughtsmen as opposed in their manner and methods as Mr. Abbey and Mr. Beardsley, Sir James D. Linton and Mr. Anning Bell. There is a design by Mr. Frederick Sandys, who, it has been suggested, was not included among the pre-Raphaelites, though their contemporary and in close sympathy with their methods, because he was a more accomplished artist than any of them, and who, after having been forgotten for many years, is now beginning to receive the recognition he deserves. There are drawings by Mr. Parsons, Mr. Macbeth, Mr. Pennell, Mr. Partridge, Mr. Phil May, and Mr. Hatherell, and but few of the younger men of note have allowed themselves to be omitted from a really distinguished list. The chief interest, however, lies in the fact that never before, probably, has a book been produced on quite the same principles. Artists are accused of never being able to hold together, but here is a notable proof that they can. The drawings number almost a hundred, and all have been done by the Illustrators solely for the love of their profession. Whatever profits there may be, and, judging from advance sheets, these should not be small, will go, not to the artists themselves, but to their society.

—M. Henri Fazy is well known to historians for his numerous careful and valuable works upon the history of Geneva. As director of the archives of the city and canton, he has brought to light many valuable documents concerning the Republic of Geneva, the importance of which, both in political and religious history, cannot be overestimated. M. Fazy's last work, 'Les Suisses et la Neutralité de la Savoie, 1703–1704' (Geneva: W. Kündig & Fils), throws light on a little-known episode of the War of the Spanish Succession. Among the enemies whom Louis XIV. had aroused by his ambitious policy, was Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy. This able and ambitious prince, afraid of having to bear the brunt of the attack of the French armies, entered into negotiations with the Swiss Republic, offering to incorporate his ancestral duchy of Savoy in the Confederation if the Swiss Diet would guarantee its neutrality and thus protect his Italian possessions from invasion on that side. Louis XIV. soon heard of the offer of his enemy, and proceeded on his part to offer the Swiss strong inducements to refuse the tempting bait which Victor Amadeus held out. Both sovereigns were represented in Switzerland by diplomatists of the very first order, and the despatches which M. Fazy publishes reveal a campaign of diplomacy of the very highest interest. At one moment, the French envoy, the Marquis de Puisieux, at another the Savoyard envoy, M. de Mellarède, got the best of the struggle, and the different parties in the Swiss Diet were handled by them with the skill of accomplished chess-players. The question of the neutrality of Savoy lost its importance in 1704 after the Duke of Marlborough's crushing defeat of the French army at Blenheim, but, at the time, it was of really European importance, and it quite deserves to be drawn from the oblivion in which it has hitherto lain.

—For the first time in the history of total eclipses of the sun, a popular excursion has been organized to witness an impressive phenomenon of this character. Heretofore confined solely to scientific men and such natives as may chance to be along the line of the lunar shadow, this most spectacular of natural events will now be witnessed by a party of tourists in Lapland. The Orient Steam Navigation Company of London propose to send one of their steamships to Vadsö in the Varanger Fiord, about 30 degrees east longitude, in order to convey any travellers who may wish, to this point in the path of totality. Leaving London on July 21, the party will visit Odde, Bergen, Naes, Molde, Trondhjem, Hammerfest, and the North Cape, reaching Vadsö on August 3. The eclipse occurring the 9th, the steamer will leave August 10, and arrive in London by the 17th. The round-trip fare for this unique journey will be 40 guineas, and it is suggested as especially desirable that early booking be made, since the excursion promises to be very popular. Parties of astronomers from France, England, and other European countries will establish observing stations at or near Vadsö, whence the line of totality runs across Nova Zembla, northern and eastern Siberia, and the Hokkaido or Yezo, the northernmost of the large islands of Japan. The astronomer royal of England, Mr. W. H. M. Christie, will go to Yezo with an observing party, travelling by way of America and the Pacific Ocean; and an American party, under Prof. Todd of Amherst, will also establish itself in the north of Japan. The yacht *Coronet* has been generously placed at the disposal of this last expedition by its owners, Mr. D. Willis James and his son Mr. Arthur Curtiss James of the New York Yacht Club, who also defray the other expenses of the trip. The *Coronet*, carrying the heavier and more bulky instruments, left New York a few days since for its long passage round Cape Horn, in order to be in time to meet the party at San Francisco when they shall have crossed the continent in the late spring. Thence the expedition in the *Coronet* will cross the Pacific, stopping at Honolulu for a week or two, and proceeding from there to Yezo by July 1, it is expected, so as to afford ample time for all preparations for the sun's total obscuration on August 9.

GRIFFIS'S TOWNSEND HARRIS.

Townsend Harris, First American Envoy in Japan. By Wiliam Elliot Griffis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. Pp. viii, 351.

JAPAN did not want to make the Treaties. That much is clear, and always has been. They were treaties of fear—not the gross fear of the Perry or the Elgin cannon, but of the speedy possibilities of countless future cannon and of war. But what has seldom been recognized is that this supplies a simple explanation of all the diplomatic delays, twistings, hindrances, "lies," which are so frequently chronicled in the Harris journal and elsewhere. If a waylaid traveller could persuade the robber to let him pass, by pleading his haste to his father's deathbed and by promising to return the next day with bountiful ransom, he would chuckle at the success of his diplomacy—his only available weapon—and would properly protest against imputations upon the morality of his trick or of his failure to keep his promise. No other was the condition of the Japanese, in their view, and even Sir Rutherford Alcock (p. xiv) has admitted that their dissimulation was a natural expedient of self-defence in the hour of danger.

Whether they ought to have opened their country to us, and whether we had a right to demand this by force, is not so clear, and perhaps never will be. Sydney Smith said: "I am for bombarding all the exclusive Asiatics, who shut up the earth and will not let me walk civilly through it, doing no harm and paying for what I want." But a larger view, in the light of Mr. Hearn's analysis of Japanese life and Miss Simcox's portrayal of Chinese civilization, may leave us in doubt whether these peoples, after all, will gain in what makes life worth living by their entrance into the "comity" of Western nations. That the latter have gained is beyond doubt.

Another thing which has been supposed not to be clear is, whether, assuming that gunboat treaties are of a shady morality, our own na-

tion, through its representative, shared in that reproach, or whether its commercial treaty of 1858 was secured by pure diplomacy and voluntarily given by Japan. This it is which was to be cleared up once for all by the present volume. What are the facts? By 1850, England, France, Russia, Holland, and ourselves were all casting eyes towards Japan. In 1854 Commodore Perry had exacted the promise of a commercial treaty, and in 1857 Townsend Harris, with full diplomatic powers, arrived to negotiate it. After months of arduous work he had by March 8, 1858, secured the draft, together with a promise pledging the imperial signature by April 21. Among his strongest arguments had been the lesson of "contemporaneous events in India and China [forcing China to fight or make treaties], and the presence of large British and French fleets in neighboring waters [China]," and the great importance of averting disadvantageous gunboat treaties or even war by arranging without delay a satisfactory treaty which should serve as a sample for the other nations then on the way (Harris, pp. 238, 314; Alcock, p. 196). By June 18 he had agreed to postpone the date of signing to September 4, owing to difficulty in getting the imperial signature; and on that day he returned from Yedo to Shimoda to wait for September. Late in June the British and French fleets took the Peiho forts, and China's fate was sealed. On July 23 the *Mississippi* arrived at Shimoda with the news of this event and of the approaching departure of the foreign fleets for Japan on gunboat-treaty errands. Immediately Mr. Harris wrote to the Shogunate of "the very great importance of having the treaty signed without the loss of a single day." On July 27 he went up to Yokohama, on the 28th the Japanese commissioners came down with the treaty, and on the 29th it was executed. Before the end of the autumn the gunboat-treaty fleet appeared, and similar treaties were added.

What is there new in this? Absolutely nothing, except a few circumstantial dates. The whole story, as told by Mr. Harris himself to Sir Rutherford Alcock, first British Minister to Japan, has been before the world for nearly thirty years, in the latter's book, 'Three Years in Japan' (pp. 193-200). There are two questions, to be sure, that arise. One is, would Mr. Harris have succeeded if the fleet had never left China? Sir Rutherford thinks it doubtful, but Mr. Harris's journal makes the contrary nearly certain. The other and more important question is, Did Mr. Harris, though using no force himself, utilize the force of others as the lever for his demands? On this question there can be but one answer—that of Sir Rutherford Alcock, that, "while demonstrating the 'peaceful and friendly' policy of his own Government, he was really invoking the effective aid of the belligerent resources and prestige which were the objects of reprobation" (p. 199); and his editor's efforts (Harris, p. 318) to convey the contrary impression cannot avail. Nor is the impression, also conveyed by the editor (pp. vi, 317), that to European historians "his work and his moral influence are alike unknown" and "the historic page has a blank," in accord with the facts; for though the editor limits this charge to "most" historians, Sir Rutherford's treatment of the subject (pp. 33, 193) gives Mr. Harris full credit in perhaps the most popular book ever written on Japan short of Miss Bird's and the 'Mikado's Empire.'

This is detracting nothing from Mr. Harris's talents as a diplomatist. In Oriental intercourse there has been no diplomatic passage of such keen and admirable skill, apart from the labors of Anson Burlingame shortly afterwards, and the negotiations of the Pekin Diplomatic Corps on the audience question in 1891. Mr. Schuyler would surely have taken pleasure in naming Townsend Harris among the greatest American diplomats. The difference between his successful way and Sir Rutherford's unsuccessful way may be seen by comparing the former's methods on p. 246 and elsewhere with the latter's letter at p. 215 of his book.

Nor could a better editor have been found for these journals than the writer whose study of Perry's life and authorship of the 'Mikado's Empire,' together with the fullest acquaintance with Japanese affairs, had pointed him out as the person peculiarly fitted for this editorship. There is one article, however, of Dr. Griffis's creed, often to the front in this volume, but now and ever to be dissented from. This is that the Shogunate Government, the supreme political force and the agent of foreign intercourse until 1868, was a "sham," a "fraud," "built on lies" (pp. 25, 115), and so on. If we could imagine that the next Guelph should be forced to live in retirement at Balmoral, surrounded by Scottish nobles but bereft of all but that pomp and name of sovereignty which is instinctively sacred even to English radicals, the situation would be similar enough to that which Harris found. But this actual supremacy of the Cabinet and Prime Minister holding the Great Seals would be beyond doubt a constitutional and orthodox fact, affirmed by public will and custom; and if a traveller should inquire who had the power to make treaties or appoint a poet laureate, the sham and the lie would consist rather in naming the Guelph at Balmoral than in pointing out the Cabinet at London. The Shogun of Japan had for two centuries possessed constitutional power to make treaties, and he made both the Perry and the Harris treaties. It was only as a means of coercing the minority in the Government in an unprecedented emergency that the Emperor's seal was sought (though in vain) at Kyoto; and this situation appears to have been fully explained to Mr. Harris (pp. 121, 288, 300). It is unjust to apply such unfounded epithets to a Government which for two centuries kept feudal Japan in such a state of peace and plenty ("more like the golden age of simplicity and honesty," "security for person and property, universal frugality and contentment," says Mr. Harris, p. 198) as Europe would have been glad to see in any like period since the Christian era.

A more important matter is the apparent omission of one-half of the Harris material. Mr. Harris arrived in Japan in August, 1856, and left in April, 1862. His journal, here given, goes to February, 1858; and a short chapter fills in from other sources his doings till August, 1858. But of the remaining period (for full three years of which he was Minister Resident), including the time of Elgin's negotiations and the important three years at Yedo of which Alcock has given us a partisan account from the English side—of this period of Mr. Harris's great successes, there is practically nothing in this volume. Even the year of his departure from Japan is not given. If there were a total lack of letters, we ought to know it (yet the State Department has printed several); but it is unfortunate that no explanation is made of this gap covering one-half of the whole six years for which alone Harris is famous. A similar criticism must be made of the mode of dealing with the opinion of Mr. Harris, quoted without a reference, on p. 332, that "the extra-territoriality given to the people of the United States who are in Japan is against my conscience." This was a weighty word in its day, and helped Japan out on a crucial occasion. It occurred in a letter to Mr. E. H. House, now in Japan, and has been widely published. But there is no clue here to its origin or to the context.

WATTS'S DON QUIXOTE.

The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote of La Mancha. By Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra. Done into English by Henry Edward Watts. A new edition, with notes, original and selected. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 4 vols., 8vo. 1895.

THERE is a mediæval French formula, which was sometimes used by poets as a phrase of promise to their hearers, indicating the best thing to be obtained from their songs—*Joie et soulaz*, joy and solace. Perhaps the promise was not always fulfilled, and yet the phrase remains one of the most adequate statements we have of the true literary purpose. In our realistic and pessimistic days we have largely forgotten it; but we shall return to it, and Time will have accomplished one of his best strokes in consigning to oblivion those self-styled works of literature that do not give us this reward for our pains in reading them.

Of modern books few have succeeded in giving generations of readers this reward so abundantly as has 'The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote of La Mancha.' We shall not dwell anew upon its qualities—neither its lesser purpose as a destroyer of idle tales of chivalry, nor its larger human intentions, its humor, its pathos. All the world knows its wit and its eloquence, and has tasted the savor of its *españolismo*, perceiving how this yet manages to blend itself with a certain quintessential flavor of universal human emotion and experience. The man who has read it will not endure an exposition of it in terms of subjective and objective, or other jargon of fashionable criticism; and he who has not read it had best read nothing of ours till he has done so.

It is a pleasure to think that nowhere, except in his own country, has Cervantes found a more steadfast admiration than in England. If a knowledge of Spanish has failed him, as has too often been the case, the Englishman has not refused to put up with translations. When the First Part of 'Don Quixote' had been in print but seven years, and still three years before the author had published his Second Part, Thomas Shelton issued his hasty yet Elizabethan version of what had appeared (1612); and eight years later he had Englished the Second Part, completing the first translation of the book into a foreign tongue. Since Shelton the English public has never lacked translators of 'Don Quixote.' Through the seventeenth and eighteenth and nineteenth centuries they stretch, a long line, most of them mediocre, several of them abominably bad. It were an ungrateful task to resurrect them—Phillips, Motteux, Jarvis, Smollett, and the rest—though a patient public still has their wares offered it by the guileful modern publisher. We, too, have our translators, and better than these. Within fifteen years no less than three new English versions of 'Don Quixote' have appeared, and a fourth has already been announced. The first of the three was by Mr. A. J. Duffield (3 vols., London, 1881); the second was by Mr. John Ormsby, whose death is just announced (4 vols., London, 1885); the third, by Mr. Watts, appeared in an *édition de luxe*

in 1888, and has just been reissued, rearranged and revised, in a cheaper, though still very elegant, form. It is with these three versions, and particularly the last, that we shall here mainly concern ourselves.

Translating 'Don Quixote' is not a task that the literary tyro, eager to soar to fame on another man's Pegasus, or the literary dilettante, *homo unius libri*, can safely undertake. Not even a knowledge of Spanish gained by assiduous reading, or by actual familiarity with contemporary Sancho Panzas, will carry such to their goal. For the first need of the successful translator is style, and style of a kind that the modern man, from the nature of the case, is very unlikely to possess. It would almost seem as if Cervantes had here set a trap for the unwary. There is ever something so easy and apparently negligent about his manner, he gives so little sign of research and care, he seems so ready to say plainly and simply whatever the occasion demands, that the rare and precious quality of his language reveals itself only to him who is able to analyze the effects of words upon the emotions and the imagination, as well as upon the intelligence. This prose, that seems so unemphatic, so straightforward, and so clear, is also buoyant, is noble, is eloquent. This plain statement of fact is something more than statement of fact: it is fact so presented as never to intrude itself as such, and yet always to give a body of flesh and blood to thought. These general reflections are not the abstract formulas by which pure reason sums up the results of its processes; they are rather life and action mirroring themselves for a moment upon the brain. This humor of Sancho Panza, grotesque or coarse though it appear at times, is no more the mere natural untutored wit and wisdom of the gross Manchegan peasant realistically rendered than it is the jocosity of the courtier travestied in rustic garb. Cervantes has not several manners, adapted one to narration, another to eloquent moralizing, a third to vulgar wit, and so forth. On the contrary, he is a supreme artist, with a single style, ever the same in tone, yet capable of conveying the most various matters. Whether his story rise to the noblest meditations or decline to the most ludicrous adventures, he is never untrue to himself; he speaks always with the same air of indefinable courtesy and good breeding, with the same sure and tactful phrase, with the same just blending of fact and reflection. And such a style, we say, is the despair of the modern man. He who attempts to reproduce it finds pitfalls on every side. If he would give its buoyant gayety, he becomes jaunty; if he would retain its freshness and directness, he becomes colloquial, or even slangy; if he would render its fine seriousness, he grows rhetorical; and if he would preserve its well-bred air, he takes refuge in vagueness and generality of phrase. In truth, the art of this prose has been understood but for a brief time among Englishmen. The Elizabethans knew the secret of it, though they did not always practise it; and with them the secret died.

There is, then, but one safe course for the modern translator of 'Don Quixote' to take. He must turn to the single Elizabethan translation of the book we have, and must make that the basis of his work. There will, of course, be much to change. Shelton was far from sound in his Spanish, and he wrought with unpardonable haste; but his manner is right, the true manner of Cervantes in 'Don Quixote.' Subsequent translators have now and then hit upon a happy rendering, and all such must be culled and saved; but Shelton alone has found the style that is the style of the original.

It is to the credit of the first of our recent translators, Mr. Duffield, that he should have seen this, and so initiated the proper treatment of 'Don Quixote' in modern English. Furthermore, long years of study (twenty, he tells us) had enabled him to straighten out many a tangle that had baffled his predecessors. And yet, with all its many excellences, his translation was not a final and adequate one, for it had two qualities that are not qualities of 'Don Quixote'—it was quaint and it was jaunty. Picturesque, accordingly, it constantly was, but it rarely had the simple and noble ease of the style of Cervantes. It abounded, moreover, in curious renderings, justifiable, perhaps, by isolated examples, but improbable in the connection in which they stand. The field, then, was fairly open for another competitor, and none more worthy could have appeared than Mr. Ormsby. Already vouched for by an interesting version of the Poem of the Cid, and equipped with a knowledge of Spanish derived from long wandering in the peninsula itself, he succeeded in giving us a rendering whose fidelity and whose dignity are alike deserving of high praise. Here, too, however, there was a defect—in a sense, the defect of these qualities. Mr. Ormsby's prose is the prose of the modern Englishman, of all of us of the post Dryden time—a prose clear and sound, but also, by reason of its very decorousness, somewhat colorless and vague. And this is not the prose of Cervantes, for that is still the prose of the Renaissance, of the Elizabethans, not yet quite disengaged from poetry, still tinted with the flushings of the imagination.

And now comes Mr. Watts—he, too, with more than twenty years of study of 'Don Quixote' behind him, and with an at times excessive assurance of the defects of his predecessors. His method, furthermore, is the true one. He reverts to Shelton, and uses him wherever he can. When he must abandon him, he strives to keep to his manner, happily pillaging the other Elizabethans for locutions that will serve his turn. In his hands, then, Don Quixote appears once more garbed in the true fashion; and on the whole, beyond a doubt, his version deserves the palm over the other two. Yet not even here, alas! can we praise without but or if. This style, in the main so happy, has at times strange lapses both in taste and in idiom. Rarely does the reader finish a page without regrets over at least one locution, and there are certain recurrent forms that at last give positive torture.

But these may seem trivial complainings; and since in such matters example is better than precept, we shall perhaps do well to let the reader compare for himself the methods of our three translators. We will use for this purpose a passage chosen by Mr. Duffield to illustrate his own predecessors, namely, Don Quixote's brief eulogy of poetry (Part II. chapter 16), though the nature of it is such as to show each scholar in his best rather than in his worst or even average manner. And first Mr. Duffield:

"Poetry, noble sir, to my seeming, is like unto a gentle maiden, young in years, and of extreme beauty, whom to enrich, beautify, and adorn is the care of the many maidens who attend her—which be the other sciences—and she must be served of all, while to all these she must lend her lustre. But this same maiden will brook no handling, nor be haled through the streets, nor be published at the corners of the market-place, nor in the palace woods. She is made of an alchemy of such virtue that he who knoweth how to treat her may change her to purest gold of greatest price. He who enjoyeth her must keep her within due bounds, not allowing her to run into unchaste satires or impious sonnets. She must by no means be vendible, unless for heroical poems, or woeful tragedies, or for pleasant and artful comedies; she must not be left to the touch of jesters, nor of the ignorant vulgar, incapable of knowing and esteeming the treasures which she holds enshrined within her. Nor think, sir, that I mean here by the 'vulgar' merely plebeian and humble people, but rather that all who are ignorant, whether lord or prince, must be reckoned among that crew. Thus, he who with the requisites I have mentioned holds commerce with Poetry, shall become famous, and his name be honored among all the polite nations of the world."

And next Mr. Ormsby:

"Poetry, gentle sir, is, as I take it, like a tender young maiden of supreme beauty, to array, bedeck, and adorn whom is the task of several other maidens, who are all the rest of the sciences; and she must avail herself of the help of all; and all derive their lustre from her. But this maiden will not bear to be handled, nor dragged through the streets, or in the closets of palaces. She is the product of an alchemy of such virtue that he who is able to practise it will turn her into pure gold of inestimable worth. He that possesses her must keep her within bounds, not permitting her to break out in ribald satires or soulless sonnets. She must on no account be offered for sale, unless, indeed, it be in heroic poems, moving tragedies, or sprightly and ingenious comedies. She must not be touched by the buffoons, nor by the ignorant vulgar, incapable of comprehending or appreciating her hidden treasures And do not suppose, señor, that I apply the term vulgar here merely to plebeians and the lower orders; for every one who is ignorant, be he lord or prince, may and should be included among the vulgar. He, then, who shall embrace and cultivate poetry under the conditions I have named, shall become famous, and his name honored throughout all the civilized nations of the earth."

Finally, let us hear Mr. Watts:

"Poetry, gentle sir, I may liken, methinks, to a maiden, tender and of few years, and of all perfect beauty, whom it is the study of many other maidens—to wit, all the other sciences—to enrich, polish, and endow; and she has to be served of all, and all have to exalt her lustre. But this maiden cares not to be handled nor trailed about the streets, nor be made public in the market corners, nor in the purlieus of palaces. She is formed of an alchemy of such virtue that he who knows how to treat her will transmute her into purest gold of inestimable price. He who possesses her must keep her within bounds, not letting her run into base lampoons or impious sonnets; she must be in no wise vendible, unless it be in heroic poems, in doleful tragedies, or in merry and artful comedies. She must not suffer herself to be handled by mountebanks, nor by the ignorant vulgar, incapable of comprehending or of valuing the treasures which in her are enshrined. And think not, sir, that I call the vulgar here only plebeian and humble people, for every one who is ignorant, let him be lord or prince, can and should be included in the category of the vulgar; so he who, with the qualifications I have named, shall take up and treat poetry, shall become famous, and his name be held in esteem among all the polite nations of the world."

Assuredly, the superiority here does not lie with Mr. Watts at every point. In view of the figure, his 'polish' is less good as a rendering of the Spanish *pulir* than Mr. Ormsby's 'bedeck' or Mr. Duffield's 'beautify.' 'Impious' can hardly be the meaning of *desalmados*, applied to sonnets. 'Which in her are enshrined' is a bit of prettiness not to be found in the Spanish; and Mr. Watts would have been wise had he kept to Shelton's version of *no quiere ser manoseada*, she 'will not be handled.' Still, as it seems to us, his style has an imaginative color that Mr. Ormsby's lacks; while at the same time it is mainly free from extravagances like Mr. Duffield's 'haled through the streets' and 'reckoned among that

crew.' And, in general, these excellences characterize his translation as a whole.

We have left ourselves no space for the discussion of Mr. Watts's numerous notes and appendices. His Life of Cervantes, which really forms the fifth volume of this edition, we shall discuss in another article. We can only say here that as a commentator he shows wide but far from systematic or sure learning. He is not at all infallible in his linguistic remarks, and he occasionally commits an astounding blunder, as when (vol. iii., p. 417) he speaks of "the Latin tongue which had been imposed on Gothic Spain by the Romans," and says that "it is probable that Latin never was a spoken language in the Peninsula." His classification of the romances of chivalry is unsound; and his discussion of the difficult Amadis question shows no acquaintance with the results of modern investigators like Braga and Carolina Michaelis de Vasconcellos. Still, a translation of Don Quixote must be judged mainly by literary rather than philological canons; and such a judgment will be in the main not unfavorable to Mr. Watts. Yet we do not think Mr. Santayana need give up his projected version by reason of the unapproachable excellence of this latest adventurer in the field.

The Adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan. By James Morier. With an introduction by E. G. Browne. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. —Also, with an introduction by the Hon. George Curzon, M.P., New York: Macmillan.

Mr. E. G. Browne, in his biographical and descriptive introduction to 'Hajji Baba,' expresses a doubt whether any Englishman who has not read Mr. Morier's once famous book can, "in the full meaning of the word, be described as cultivated." If this reproach may be so freely construed as to include Americans, an opportunity for wiping it out immediately is afforded by this fine Chicago edition in two volumes, as well as by the handsome if less pretentious one-volume edition in Macmillan's series. Barbarians, indifferent to the seal of cultivation, are also put in the way of filling several hours with delightful entertainment.

"The art of a story-teller," said the dervish Kessehgou, one of Hajji's associates in crime, "is to make his story interminable, and still to interest his audience, and it is that which marks the man of genius." Accepting the dervish's definition, Mr. Morier was unquestionably a man of genius, for the interest in the adventures of Hajji is so well kept up, with so little appearance of effort, that it seems as if the recital might go on for ever providing distraction for dull moments. During the first quarter of this century, Mr. Morier was an attaché of English missions to Persia, and for six years had charge of the English embassy in Teheran. In these years he published some volumes of travel in the East which he felt to be so defective in spirit and vividness that he resolved "to collect so many facts and anecdotes of actual life as would illustrate the different stations and ranks of a Mussulman community, and then to work them into a connected narrative." It is interesting to observe one who was first a man of action, not of letters, falling instinctively upon the method in fiction best fitted to reproduce and explain life, and achieving such good results long before that method had been given a name and made to serve as a battle-cry. This is not to say that he originated his method, for he acknowledges a suggestion from 'Gil Blas,' and Hajji's personal place in Western fiction is in the picaresque division, in the ranks of the astute and irreclaimable rogues.

Hajji tells the tale in the first person, and his manner is purely Oriental—grave, deliberate, ironical, approximating most closely to story-telling in the living voice, and farthest from that technically informed construction which aims at literary and dramatic effect. The Persian point of view is so consistently maintained that the foreign observer is revealed only occasionally by severity of satire, while the Englishman appears aggressively but once, when the Shah is made to remark: "A Russian puts on a hat, a tight coat, and tight breeches, shaves his beard, and then calls himself a European. You might just as well tie the wings of a goose to your back and call yourself an angel."

The success of Mr. Morier's assumption of Persian character may be largely attributed to the fact that he was not a professional *littérateur*, and thus escaped betrayal by European traditions, conventions, theories, and prepossessions. Hajji's revelations are not hampered by any suspicion of responsibility to a Christian conscience. He knows there are such abstract qualities as sincerity and truthfulness, but they appear to him ludicrous and silly, positive indications of madness when displayed in practice, as by "a certain tribe of infidels called Ingliz, the most unaccountable people on earth, who live in an island and make penknives." Lies, treachery, hypocrisy, cruelty to inferiors, and cringing before the mighty, have for him no immoral or base significance. These are everybody's weapons, and to use them perfectly is to be an object for public worship and private envy and despair. Therefore, when Hajji comes in collision with a more subtle deceiver than himself, and is completely overreached, he wastes no time in reflection on the futility of evil courses, but scornfully asks his victorious antagonist whose dog he is, declares fervently that God is great and Fate implacable, and directs his energies elsewhere, feeling chiefly that he has learned a thing or two from a more accomplished player in the game of life. Life, indeed, presents no other aspect to him than that of a game in which each man's wit plays for his fortune, and his spontaneous, impregnable cynicism makes Rochefoucauld appear a superficial dilettante, if not an ingenuous child of nature. From the day he leaves the house of his father, Kerbelai Hassan, one of the most celebrated barbers of Ispahan, until the day of his return to that city, a splendid personage in the confidence of the Grand Vizier, he is a magnificent example of devotion to self-interest.

His vicissitudes are extreme, and his adventures of every variety, comic, tragic, melodramatic, and astonishing. He is by turns merchant and pilgrim; a prisoner with Turcomans, and an assistant to the court physician; a water-carrier and street-vender; a dervish and companion of dervishes; a soldier and a saint. He bastinadoes as an official and is bastinadoed as a fakir. He invades a harem and leads an expedition against invading Russians. He journeys to Constantinople, a ragged seller of pipe-sticks, and, pretending to be a rich merchant of Bagdad, marries the widow of an Emir. But his fraud is discovered, and he is cast out from luxury, pursued by the imprecations of enraged relations-in-law. It is after this unhappy episode, when, far from home, depressed in spirits, and very hungry, he appeals for justice to his country's ambassador, that his great talents are recognized, and he becomes important in international affairs. All the scenes through which he passes, and his accompanying procession of strange and picturesque figures, are described with extraordinary minuteness and clearness. The description is not limited to externals, but involves a disclosure of dominant characteristics, motives, and passions. Seemingly innocent of any desire to inform, Hajji depicts his countrymen in their homes, streets, and bazaars, serving at court and dwelling in tents, fighting, trading, praying, marrying, burying, and bribing—the last named occupation being a recognized industry, very important and highly considered.

To the accuracy of these descriptions travellers, diplomatists, and scholars have for half a century given willing testimony, and the traditional advice to those who would see Persia aright still is: Take an English saddle and a copy of 'Hajji Baba.' For those who would spare themselves discomfort and expense, an easy chair and 'Hajji Baba' will do as well, if not better, for they can contemplate the amusing rascal undisturbed by the suspicion that he is lying in wait for them at every turn, and that neither foresight nor preparation can avail them for salvation from his incalculable duplicity.

The Comedies of William Shakespeare. With many Drawings by Edwin A. Abbey. Harper & Brothers. 1896.

It was inevitable that Mr. Abbey should sooner or later undertake the illustration of Shakspere. His production has been so enormous that the books specially fitted for his style of illustration were fast being used up, and here was the greatest of them all waiting at his hand. And yet we imagine that it was not without trepidation that he began the task, as it certainly was not without fear that the announcement of it was received. Could even Mr. Abbey do justice to Shakspere, or could he even do justice to himself in so difficult an enterprise? The work is at last completed, and the drawings, most of which have appeared from time to time in *Harper's Magazine*, are now gathered, with the text of the plays, into four noble volumes.

That the illustrations are beautiful in themselves it is unnecessary to say. Mr. Abbey has lost none of his skill with the pen or his hardly lesser skill with the brush, and he has never done anything technically better than these 131 drawings. All of his charm of touch and grace of style are here, and all of his feeling for beauty and knowledge of form. His backgrounds are admirably invented, his costumes are carefully studied and delightfully rendered, his women are as lovely and as graceful as ever and his men as well drawn. Taken as merely fine examples of the modern art of book illustration, nothing could be better, and perhaps nothing by any one else could be so good. But do they adequately illustrate Shakspere? There's the rub. In many cases they undoubtedly do so as nearly as might be expected of human powers. In the forest of Arden Mr. Abbey is at home, and those which may be called the pastoral comedies of Shakspere he is admirably fitted to interpret. *Rosalind* and *Viola* and *Perdita* are exquisite creations, and *Touchstone* and *Sir Andrew* and *Sir Toby* are thoroughly delightful. With these people he is on as intimate a footing as with Sally in our Alley or Miss Hardcastle, and we are delighted to have his aid in furthering our own acquaintance with them. With *Isabella* and *Beatrice* we feel that his intercourse has been something less friendly, while *Titania* and *Ariel* he can know only to bow to. As for the person he introduces to us

under the name of *Jack Falstaff*, we take him for an arrant impostor. The real *Jack* was not fat only as to the waist, nor did he have this weazened, baked-apple face. He had a leg of goodly girth, and a jolly, noble countenance adorned with a "great peard," and was altogether another man.

In other words, the range of Shakspere's imagination is too great for Mr. Abbey's, and he cannot follow everywhere, even in the comedies alone. There is a passion too deep, and a humor too broad, and a fancy too high, for him. Mr. Abbey is but a man, and but one man, and we may not fairly expect of him the performance of a task that were too hard for an army of illustrators. What he has produced is the best set of illustrations to the comedies of Shakspere yet seen, and a gallery of drawings the beauty and merit of which it would be impossible for another than himself to equal; and this is enough in all conscience.

Considerations on Painting: Lectures given in the year 1893 at the Metropolitan Museum of New York. By John La Farge. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THIS is one of those all too rare books on art written by an artist of standing who knows whereof he speaks, and who is also possessed of a fascinating literary style which lends a charm even to the discussion of dry and technical matters. Of Mr. La Farge's position as a creative artist in paint it is unnecessary to speak, and those who have read his charming Letters from Japan which were published in the *Century Magazine* will be apt to think him almost as admirable and subtle an artist in words. That such a man should be induced to lecture on painting and to publish his lectures in book form, was every way desirable; yet many who went to be instructed from his lips must have been puzzled and disappointed, as will be many who now read him in print, to find how little that is definite and peremptory he has to tell them. Surely, a practitioner of Mr. La Farge's eminence must have strong opinions and strong feelings about the art he practises—must think this right and that wrong, this good and the other bad; but such feelings and opinions, if he has them, he has here carefully suppressed, and there is not a peep of them between the covers of his volume. Dogmatism he abhors, and those who want an authoritative settling of vexed questions and a body of doctrine ready prepared for their swallowing, may go elsewhere with their money. Rather the tone of the book is one of gentle scepticism and of humorous doubt of the validity of any or all doctrine, or of there being any possible final settlement of any question whatever. "I might, perhaps, have shown you more distinctly," he says, "that a white thing is white, and that a black thing is black; nor do I object to doing so in a proper place and time, for, of all things, what we begin to doubt of is the well known, and we can never be too sure that twice one is two—only, what is one and what is two?"

The "place and time" have undoubtedly much to do with this inconclusiveness. Mr. La Farge was lecturing in a museum and to art students, and he may well have felt that the most important lesson of a museum is the lesson of catholicity, and that the art student, generally a very positive person, needs to be taught nothing so much as that there are many kinds of good art, and that all methods are good which express the mind and the vision of a sincere artist. These, too, are the lessons that the lecturer's own habit of thought peculiarly fitted him to teach. So he has produced a series of lectures that can have had only a broadening influence upon the minds of those who heard them; lectures full of suggestion and of thought, full, too, of wit and of delightful anecdote and of charming expression, but of which the final end and result is somewhat elusive. One must often read between the lines and seize upon fleeting hints and half-suggested meanings to perceive that, even with Mr. La Farge, black is after all black, if not so black as it is painted, and that twice one is still two, in spite of unresolved doubts as to the essential nature of one and of two.

Marmontel's Moral Tales. Selected by George Saintsbury. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

MR. SAINTSBURY has perhaps done wisely, not in editing a translation of a Selection of Marmontel's 'Contes Moraux,' but, if he must edit them, in choosing a "bookseller's version" made a hundred years ago, rather than a bookseller's version of to-day. But even a hundred years ago they should have known better than to translate 'Contes Moraux' by "Moral Tales"—a title which would be a little ludicrous if given to the contents of the original volumes. There is nothing *im*moral in them, but they are as little moral as Marmontel's 'Mémoires' or as Marmontel himself. Mr. Saintsbury has weeded out all but the strictly proper, even excluding the one ("Heureusement") which Sainte-Beuve especially commends; and one would have thought this weeding would have put him on his guard about the title, and would have suggested to him that the true rendering of 'Contes Moraux' would rather be something akin to 'Sketches of Society,' since the French *moral* is scarcely ever translatable by the English 'moral.' The two words are among those pseudo-synonyms of the two languages that are wholly different in meaning—words between which it is most important always to feel the distinction. It is therefore droll to find Mr. Saintsbury saying that Miss Edgeworth took the title of *her* 'Moral Tales' from Marmontel. She (who knew French *intelligently*) would have been aware that, if there was any borrowing, it was rather in the title of her other volumes, 'Tales of Fashionable Life.' Marmontel's stories are tales of fashionable life—the fashionable life of his own day and also of the days of Alcibiades and Solyman, of the Samnites and the Sylphs. He says himself (in the interesting original preface, not given by Mr. Saintsbury): "I have endeavored throughout to paint either social conditions (*les mœurs de la société*) or unsophisticated emotions (*les sentiments de la nature*), and this it is which leads me to give this collection the title of '*Contes Moraux.*'"

The charm of these little stories, and a charm that does not wholly vanish in a translation, is in the vivacity with which they depict the mutual relations of French men and women in the eighteenth century. The frequent dialogues, though occasionally extraordinarily dull (as dull even as the plots), are often extraordinarily lively, and Marmontel justly prided himself on being the first modern author to do away with the "he said" and "she said" of written dialogue, at the same time rendering it impossible to mistake the speaker. Even when fairies become interlocutors, they are full of wit; and a fairy was needed (for neither man nor woman could have dared) to utter the famous saying, that bears repetition yesterday, to-day, and to-morrow, "Rien ne ressemble tant aux hommes que les femmes."

Of the volume before us there is no occasion to say more than that it is prettily illustrated. "Chris. Hammond" must be short for Christina, not Christopher, Hammond. The little drawings have the grace and delicacy of a woman's pencil, and one tries to forget that the originals were illustrated by Moreau *jeune*. A translation a hundred years old is not worth criticising, and Mr. Saintsbury's editing still less so; so we seem to have only commendation to bestow. Yet there is a confusing misprint on p. 378 of "days" for *months*.

Margaret and her Friends; or, Ten Conversations with Margaret Fuller upon the Mythology of the Greeks and its Expression in Art. Reported by Caroline Healey Dall. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1895.

THESE ten conversations were held by Margaret Fuller at the house of the Rev. George Ripley in Boston in 1841. The other end of the conversation was sustained by Emerson, Alcott, Elizabeth Peabody, the Ripleys, and others of the coterie—twenty-odd in all; and Caroline Healey, considerably younger than the others, was the chiel that took the notes. The book will not edify the classical student. Even after allowance is made for the growth since that day of philological science, Miss Fuller's inspiration, if we may rely on the present document, was remarkably untrammelled by knowledge. Her notions of Greek mythology, as here reported, were based on local collections of casts, gems, etc., interpreted chiefly by the light of Ovid's poems! She apparently held that the myths originated in the age of Plato (see page 29); she thought "the 'Odyssey' was written when Homer was young and romantic," and she used interchangeably the Greek and Latin names of the gods.

With such data as these, Margaret and her friends sat themselves cheerfully down to "spiritualize" the myths. A familiar event is thus described: "The Indomitable Will had dethroned Time, and, acting with Productive Energy, . . . had driven back the sensual passions to the bowels of the earth, while it produced Perfect Wisdom, Genius, Beauty, and Love; results which were more excellent if not more powerful than their Cause." Frank Shaw felt a not ungrounded misgiving as to how these personifications "suggested themselves in that barbarous age," and "it was acknowledged, as a matter of course, that only a few preserved any consciousness of the original significance of the mythology." In fact, the book serves as a mile-stone to show how the penchant for facts has advanced in the last half-century. There is a very wide conviction to day, among women as well as men, that, before speaking *ex cathedra* on any subject, it is better to burden one's self with the facts. The magazines are inclined to think that, by her pursuit of information, the college woman has choked the muse; at all events, she and all of us hold with him who sings that "parting with knowledge we have not got is the hardest parting of all."

It is a far cry from Margaret Fuller to Jane Harrison. But the student of psychology will be interested in the effect of a little acquaintance with ancient art on a fine and impressionable mind, and to note how nearly Miss Fuller possessed the gifts that Rousseau bestowed on his ideal woman: "du goût sans étude, des talents sans art, du jugement sans connoissances."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Banks, Rev. L. A. The Christ Dream. Hunt & Eaton. $1.20.
Biddle, J. A. Social Regeneration. Hartford: Student Publishing Co. $1.50.
Bird, Robert. Joseph, the Dreamer. Scribners. $1.50.
Blaney, H. R. Old Boston. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.50.
Carpenter, Rev. W. B. The Great Charter of Christ: Being Studies in the Sermon on the Mount. Whittaker. $1.50.
Carr, E. S. The Development of Modern Religious Thought, especially in Germany. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.
Complete Poetical Works of Oliver Wendell Holmes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Cox, Marian R. An Introduction to Folk-Lore. London: David Nutt.
Davis, M. W. Molière's Les Précieuses Ridicules. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35c.
Drummond, Henry. Joy, Rest and Faith. W. B. Ketcham. 15c.
Eaton, Seymour. Banking, Transportation, and Foreign Trade. Philadelphia: P. W. Ziegler & Co.
Ebers, Georg. Im Blauen Hecht. Berlin: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt; New York: Westermann.
Flügel, Ewald. Neuenglisches Lesebuch. Erster Band. Halle: Max Niemeyer; New York: Westermann.
Foote, Mrs. Mary A. The Cup of Trembling, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Fraser, Prof. A. C. Philosophy of Theism. [Gifford Lectures.] Scribners. $2.
Gilman, A. W. The Gilmans of Highgate, with Letters from S. T. Coleridge. London: Elliot Stock.
Granger, Prof. Frank. The Worship of the Romans Viewed in relation to the Roman Temperament. London: Methuen & Co.
Hayens, Herbert. Under the Lone Star: A Story of Revolution in Nicaragua. T. Nelson & Sons. $2.
Hayes, J. C. The Old-Fashioned Garden, and Other Verses. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston & Co.
Horton, George. In Unknown Seas. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Jameson Mrs. Anna. Legends of the Monastic Orders. Legends of the Madonna. Memoirs of Italian Painters. 3 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $3.
King Stork and King Log: A Study of Modern Russia. By Stepniak. 2 vols. London; Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners. $5.
Kingsley, Charles. Hereward the Wake. Macmillan. 75c.
Knight, A. L. Leaves from a Middy's Log. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.
Lane, Mrs. Charles A. Stories for Children. American Book Co. 25c.
Lang, Andrew. My Own Fairy Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lang, Andrew. The Red True Story Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lanson, G. Gustave Flaubert. [Pages Choisies des Grands Écrivains.] Paris: Armand, Colin & Cie.
Laurie, Annie. The Little Boy Who Lived on the Hill. San Francisco: William Doxey. $1.
Lavisse, Prof. E., and Rambaud, Prof. A. Histoire Générale, du IVe Siècle à Nos Jours. Tome VI. Louis XIV., 1643-1715. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Anatole. Israel among the Nations: A Study of the Jews and Antisemitism. London: Heinemann; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Lewis, J. H. How to Buy Life Insurance. Denver: The Author.
Magruder, Julia. Child-Sketches from George Eliot. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Mathews, Brander. Bookbindings Old and New: Notes of a Book-Lover. With an Account of the Grolier Club of New York. Macmillan. $3
McClelland, M. G. Mammy Mystic. Merriam Co. 75c.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Girls New and Old. Cassell Publishing Co
Miller, Rev. J. R. Family Prayers for Thirteen Weeks. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.
Miller, Rev. J. R. The Blessing of Cheerfulness. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Mitchell, Rev. David. "Alone with God," and Other Sermons. Jersey City: Albert Datz.
Mitford, Mary R. Country Stories. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Montresor, F. F. The One Who Looked On. Appletons. $1.25.
Morley, John. Essais Critiques. Traduits de l'Anglais. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Moulton, Prof. R. G. The Proverbs. [The Modern Reader's Bible.] Macmillan. 50c.
Mounteney-Jephson, R. Sword and Song. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Nesbit, E. A Pomander of Verse. London: John Lane; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Newell, W. W. Words for Music. Cambridge, Mass.: C. W. Sever. $1.
Oliphant, Mrs. M. O. W. Old Mr. Tredgold: A Story of Two Sisters. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
O'Neill, James. Garrison Tales from Tonquin. Boston: Copeland & Day.
Patmore, Coventry. The Poetry of Pathos and Delight. Selected Passages. London: Heinemann; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Phelps, W. L. George Chapman. [Mermaid Series.] London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Porter, Rose. About Men: What Women have Said. Putnams. $1.
Raife, Raymond. The Sheik's White Slave. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.25.
Roberts, W. The Book-Hunter in London. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $5.
Robertson, J. M. Buckle and his Critics: A Study in Sociology. London: Sonnenschein & Co.
Roche, J. J. Ballads of Blue Water, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Rose, N. J. Window and Parlor Gardening. Scribners. $1.25.
Round, J. H. Feudal England: Historical Studies on the XIth and XIIth Centuries. London: Sonnenschein & Co.
Russell, G. W. E. Letters of Matthew Arnold. 1848-1888. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.
Russell, W. C. A Three-Stranded Yarn. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. $1.25.
Saintsbury, Prof. George. Essays in English Literature. 1780-1860. Second Series. Scribners. $2.
Sanborn, Alvan F. Moody's Lodging House, and Other Tenement Sketches. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Scott, F. N. Webster's First Bunker Hill Oration with Other Revolutionary Addresses. Longmans, Green & Co. 60c.
Sedgwick, H. D. A Letter by Capt. Cuellar of the Spanish Armada to King Philip II. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.25.
Seeley, H. G. The Story of the Earth in Past Ages. Appletons. 40c.
Seeley, L. B. Fanny Burney and her Friends: Select Passages from her Diary and Other Writings. Scribners. $1.25.
Seeley, L. B. Horace Walpole and his World: Select Passages from his Letters. New ed. Scribners. $1.25.
Schoenfeld, Prof. Hermann. German Historical Prose. Henry Holt & Co. 80c.
Shaler, Prof. N. S. Domesticated Animals: Their Relation to Man and to his Advancement in Civilization. Scribners. $2.50.
Shearer, Flora M. The Legend of Aulus. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Tallack, William. Penological and Preventive Principles. 2d edition. London, Wertheimer, Lea & Co.
Uchimura, Kanzo. The Diary of a Japanese Convert. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Vane, Capel. The Desire of the Moth. Appletons. $1.
Villari, Prof. Pasquale. The Two First Centuries of Florentine History. Vol. II. London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $3.75.
Walworth, Mrs. J. H. An Old Fogy. Merriam Co. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 12, 1895.

The Week.

THE President's choice of a Supreme Court Judge is an admirable one. Judge Peckham is well qualified by character, ability, and temper for service on the bench, and he has now the added advantage of many years' experience as a judge, first of the Supreme Court of this State and later of the Court of Appeals, in which he now sits. His training has thus been of the very best, and he will enter our highest tribunal with every promise of rendering effective service for a good many years. The only criticism that can be passed upon the selection is a tribute to Judge Peckham, that his promotion to the federal bench weakens the highest court of his own State, and leaves a vacancy that it will be hard to fill.

We are sorry to record another "insult" on the part of Great Britain to this our nation, viz., the slowness of Lord Salisbury in answering the President's "definite inquiry." Lord Salisbury well knew that Congress met on the first Monday of December, and that the President had to compose his message during the previous fortnight, and that numerous Congressmen were waiting to offer warlike resolutions based on the British despatch. Were the British Premier really friendly to us, he would have seen to it that his answer got here in time to be of use in stirring up hostile feeling to his own grasping country. Yet he let Secretary Olney's communication lie unnoticed for nearly six months. What this artful peer will probably say in excuse when he is brought to book, is, that during this period he has had pressing on him affairs of vast moment in Turkey and the far East, requiring daily, nay hourly, attention, and involving tremendous responsibilities; that this he has considered real business, while, as the Venezuela trouble has now lasted for forty or fifty years, he thought that six months' more delay in settling it would make no difference, particularly as no action on it was contemplated by any one; and that, as its main use was as a topic for American Jingoes, they would not be sorry to be able to thunder about it for half a year longer. He will doubtless add, that President Cleveland could very well simply say in his message, after the manner of European diplomatists, that "Lord Salisbury had not yet been heard from." But there are few among us, except the hired Cuckoos of Great Britain, who will be deceived by these crafty excuses. That he meant by his delay to insult us, and to withhold from our legislators material for their speeches to which they were entitled, and which, under the Monroe Doctrine, he was bound to furnish, only the Cuckoos will deny. This ignoring of the exigencies of our politics, we may be sure, would never be dreamed of had we a navy commensurate with our population and resources. British sympathizers will do well not to trespass too far on the patience of our people. Mr. Cleveland did well, we think, to show his contempt for his Lordship's petty malignity by going off to shoot ducks before the despatch arrived. There is something about ducks which makes them peculiarly appropriate instruments of scorn.

There was an almost unbroken series of civil wars and revolutions in Venezuela from 1846 to 1870. In 1870 the country became peaceful for a while under Don Guzman Blanco. There were several small rebellions between 1870 and 1888. In this year Crespo, the present President, was engaged in the fighting. But the most furious and largest revolution came off in 1891, over an amendment to the Constitution. It began April 6, and continued with many pitched battles till October, with the usual accompaniments of wholesale imprisonments, massacres, executions, and confiscations. Crespo then got into power, and is there now, but the news of Saturday seems to indicate that another rising against him has begun. Now, this has a good deal of bearing, doubtless, on Lord Salisbury's unwillingness to arbitrate about the settled portion of the disputed territory. It has on it 40,000 British subjects, and the settlers enjoy under British rule permanent peace, security for life and property, and good courts and British criminal law, and appeals in civil cases to the judicial committee of the Privy Council. What the Venezuelans propose—we are not now discussing the right or wrong of the matter—is that all these people should become Venezuelans, and fight for their lives, and be overrun by revolutionary armies about once in three years. They naturally would bitterly protest, if there were any probability of such a thing, and in all likelihood abandon their possessions and move over the line. They have settled where they are, in full confidence that they were on British soil. If Lord Salisbury were to hand them over to Venezuela, he would do what we believe no civilized state has ever done—transfer a portion of its population, against their will, to the rule of a semi-barbarous and unsettled government. No men can understand the feelings of these people better than the Jingoes themselves. There is not one of them who would not treat a proposal that he should become a "Dago" as an insult. We went to war with Mexico and took Texas from her for the avowed purpose of saving the American portion of the population from Dagoism If Lord Salisbury followed our example, he would fight for the settled portion of the disputed territory, and say the Venezuelans forced it on him. Of course, all these considerations will seem childishness to the Jingoes, if not insulting to this our nation.

The *Économiste Français*, after publishing a table showing that the exportations of the United States to Great Britain in 1894-5 amounted to $387,170,000, while their exportations to all the rest of the world put together amounted only to about $400,000,000, asks "how it is to explain the persistence with which Americans give themselves the pleasure of teasing their principal customer, notably at this moment about Venezuela." "For a long while," it says, "there has existed between England on the subject of British Guiana and Venezuela a dispute about territory called Pomaron, just as there exists another of the same sort between Brazil and France, and it would be easy to raise many others like it between the various American nations." The explanation is not very far to seek. The rational, sober-minded people remain silent on foreign questions to avoid abuse by the newspapers and being suspected of "un-Americanism," and they let the half crazy, the grossly ignorant, and the scheming, rave unchecked, and hurl defiance not only at England, but the whole human race outside this continent. It would be difficult to find a noisy Jingo who knows anything about foreign commerce or its importance.

The Alaskan boundary line is to be settled shortly by British and American commissioners in Washington, after the surveyors have made their report on the verbal description in the Russian treaty of cession. If they are unable to agree, the matter is to be referred to an international commission of arbitration. But, pending the decision, the Canadians cunningly determined to insult our nation by establishing a mail route on our territory. They have "organized" a district on their side of the line, at the request of the local traders, put a police station on it, and set up a custom-house, which is all very well. But they have also made a contract with somebody to carry the mails from Juneau in this district to Yukon, on our side of the line, and, as we hold, in the disputed territory. Their mail line will thus run over forty miles of our soil. But better no mail and no letters, every good American will say, than a foreign mail of this description. The contract has undoubtedly a "string to it." It means a sort of preemption of the territory in question. Our mail-carriers, the Canadians will say, have been on this route for a year. Do you

mean to say we would run mails on foreign territory? No; the country through which these mails run unmolested is ours. The answer to this from a people 70,000,000 strong is obvious. We must fight; we must stop these mails; we must avenge this insult. We must call home our President from his duck-shooting, and make him attend to this more serious business; trifling as he may think it, Congress is in no mood for delay. Every letter delivered at Juneau deepens the man's infamy—if, indeed, this be possible.

Mr. L. E. Chittenden, in a letter to the *Tribune*, admits that "the President is partly right when he attributes the [financial] difficulty to the outstanding $356,000,000 of legal-tender notes redeemable in gold." But Mr. Cleveland, it seems, "forgets to mention that as early as April, 1866, his own party, aided by a few greenbackers and weak Republicans, tied the hands of Secretary McCulloch so that he could retire only $4,000,000 per month, and in February, 1868, wholly suspended his power of redemption or retirement." What Mr. Cleveland "forgets" is certainly cast into the shade by the achievements in the same direction of Mr. Chittenden and the *Tribune*. The amendment which "tied the hands of Secretary McCulloch" was insisted on by a House of Representatives chosen when the Republicans swept the country by a majority of 406,000. It was submitted by a ways and means committee made up of the select financial authorities of the House. It was adopted without dispute in the Senate, the only serious opposition coming from a Senator of high standing in the Republican party, who objected, not to the restrictions of the amendment—he himself had proposed a similar restriction—but to any law giving the Secretary power to retire the greenbacks. "There is no necessity," Mr. Sherman remarked, in April, 1866, "for this bill for funding the debt. . . . In my judgment, the amount of legal tenders now outstanding is not too much for the present condition of the country. . . . I do not wish now to cripple the industry of the country by adopting the policy of the Secretary of the Treasury, by reducing the currency."

Senator Chandler must have had a keen eye for a coincidence in introducing a bill for international bimetallism just one day after the German Chancellor had opened the Reichstag without a syllable about the subject. The omission must appear ominous to those who were so sure last March that Germany was coming to the help of silver against the mighty. Even the Boston bimetallists, even President Andrews, must now see that international bimetallism has gone oblivion-wards during the past eight months at an accelerated rate of speed. The Balfour bubble burst last September, and now comes Hohenlohe with a long account of Germany's evils and dangers and their suitable remedies, but not a word about bimetallism. How high and dry that Boston bimetallic circular of February, '94, has been left by the stream of time, and how glad most of its signers would be now to get their names off it!

Speaker Reed has announced that this is to be an economical Congress. There is to be no "cheese-paring," after the vicious Democratic method, but rational and well-considered economy. This will be among Mr. Reed's toughest jobs, if he seriously undertakes it. Already the public-building bills are flowing in like a tidal wave, and propositions for coast-defences, costing $75,000,000, are appearing in either house. The truth is, nothing is so unpopular in Congress, or, apparently, in the country, as economy in public expenditures. This is especially the case when economy means retrenchment. Secretary Morton is finding this out. He is about the only administrative officer who took the situation seriously, and, hearing that the Government's revenue was running low, resolutely set about cutting down expenses. In his own department he has saved many thousands of dollars, particularly in the matter of suppressing the seed-distributing nuisance. But already angry Congressmen are inquiring what he means by such impudence, and are proposing to have him investigated or impeached. So hard is it to distinguish between wicked "cheese-paring" and virtuous economy.

Among the financial nostrums of the day none has more adherents than the policy of requiring customs duties to be paid in gold. This requirement, it is said, would furnish all the gold the Government needs for the redemption of greenbacks and for every other purpose. It has a very plausible look, but what does it imply? It implies, first, a premium on gold, since it discriminates against all other forms of money for this particular purpose, and fixes in the public mind a preference for gold. It involves also a repudiation of one of the promises made when the Government began to issue silver dollars, namely, that they should be legal tender for all debts and dues, public and private, "except where otherwise expressly stipulated in the contract." It involves also repudiation of the promise that silver certificates and Treasury notes of 1890 "shall be receivable for customs, taxes, and all public dues." Moreover, no advantage to the Treasury would be gained by it except by ignoring (that is, repudiating) the "parity clause" of the act of July 14, 1890, commonly called the Sherman act; for if gold dollars and silver dollars are to be kept at par with each other, nothing would be gained by requiring customs duties to be paid in gold exclusively. It may be assumed, without going into the subject further, that these several promises are not going to be repudiated. The whole financial strength of the Government has been, and will continue to be, directed to the end of keeping all kinds of money at par with gold. Nothing less than this will save us from a panic much worse than that of 1893. The opinion prevails on the other side of the water that we are destined to see a premium on gold before we reach the end of our financial misbehavior. This is an error, although a very natural one. The powers of the Secretary of the Treasury under the coin-purchase act are practically unlimited. Under this act he could sell bonds at 50 cents on the dollar if necessary, and we have had the repeated assurance that all lawful means to preserve the public credit will be employed.

The *Tribune* is naturally gratified at having won over Stove-Polish Morse to its tariff views. Speaker Reed may remain obdurate for a time, but in the end he will have to bow before the combination of the Congressman and the newspaper most laughed at. The *Tribune*-Morse bill is a little one, of only "twelve lines," not meant as "a permanent measure," but "obviously intended as a bridge," and avoiding the "mass of details" so awkward to statesmen parting the protectionist spoil. As it simply revives the more flagrant schedules of the McKinley bill, it is clear that there can be no question at all of bothersome details. Revived schedule G covers only 81 sections and ten octavo pages; schedule J, 18 sections and four pages; schedule K, 33 sections and twelve pages, and so on. These are not details, they are only a "little bill of twelve lines," statesmanship reduced to its lowest and simplest terms. We say simplest advisedly, for if there is anybody but the *Tribune* and Stove-Polish Morse so simple as to suppose such a bill could be passed without months of ruinous agitation and intrigue and corruption, he has not yet been heard of. The *Tribune* itself does not really suppose it, but only takes this way of venting its spite on Speaker Reed.

Fifty years ago this month Simon Cameron took his seat in the United States Senate. On Monday his son and successor in the Senate, Don Cameron, announced his intention to retire at the end of his present term. The father served in all eighteen years in the body, and the son has now sat there for eighteen years. Each held for a brief period the office of Secretary of War, and the father was also for a brief period Minister to Russia. In office or out, Simon Cameron was the chief figure in Pennsylvania politics for a long period before he turned over the senatorship to his son in 1877, and the machine which the father had built up during this long period served to keep his weaker successor the practical dictator of the com-

monwealth for many years afterwards. The history of American politics records no other case where father and son have wielded such despotic power over two generations of voters, nor is there any parallel for such disgraceful abuse of power as under this long Cameron dynasty. Thomas F. Bayard entered the United States Senate in 1869 as a representative of Delaware on the same day that his father retired after having been elected for three terms, and the grandfather had served eight years in the same body, after several years in the House, early in the century. Each of the three had been a potent force in the politics of the commonwealth throughout his life, and the Bayard family has thus been longer conspicuous in Delaware than the Cameron in Pennsylvania; but in the smaller State each son came to his place by virtue of ability rather than birth, and no Bayard ever rendered the name of his house a synonym for political tyranny and corruption.

In New York city, Croker has for years received the "campaign funds" and the blackmail money for Tammany, and has never made any report as to the amount he got or what he did with it. In Chicago such funds have been turned over to the Democratic county committee, which also has made no report. At last a protest has been raised against this way of doing business. M. C. McDonald, a prominent member of the party, at the meeting of the county committee last week, charged that during the past two years there had been turned into the party treasury $300,000 from assessments levied on city employees, $100,000 from assessments on disreputable houses, $300,000 from forced contributions made by gamblers, and $50,000 from prominent Democratic candidates for office; that most of this money was not devoted to party purposes, but was used for trips to pleasure resorts in this country, European tours, and the building of expensive houses by the men who handled it; and that even the funds expressly contributed by honest Democrats for honest purposes were not generally so used, and that, when they were so disposed of, no account of expenditures was ever made. Startling as these charges are—or would be if such things had not long been suspected—McDonald's charges are not denied, and their truth is universally accepted. The story affords an interesting glimpse into the profits of the occupation of "politician" in a large city.

South Carolina has a new constitution, the convention which has been in session at Columbia for a number of weeks having adjourned on Wednesday week. Like the convention of five years ago in Mississippi, this body assumed the power to declare the instrument which it had framed operative without ratification by the people. There are precedents for this course in the early history of the country, the first constitution of New York, among others, having gone into effect without submission to the voters. At present, however, there is not a State in the North where such a thing would be thought of, because the people would not endure what would now be considered a usurpation of power by their servants. The feeling would undoubtedly be the same among the whites of the South if new constitutions were summarily declared in operation which took the suffrage from a large proportion of the white voters. As the new qualifications, however, are not designed or expected to disfranchise whites, but only blacks, this method of accomplishing the desired result provokes but little protest from among those who have the means of affecting public opinion. Apparently most of the whites are satisfied to live under a constitution which they have never endorsed, but which accomplishes the main purpose for which a new constitution was desired.

The whites of South Carolina, like their brethren in Mississippi five years ago, think that they have practically eliminated the black vote. Undoubtedly they have adopted measures that will keep that vote small for some time; but nobody who has watched the surprising developments as to negro suffrage during the past quarter of a century, will feel any assurance that this result is going to be permanent. Twenty-five years ago another set of politicians figured out conclusively on paper that the party supported by the negroes would control such States as South Carolina and Mississippi with ease, because a large majority of the adult males were negroes, and the negroes had been given the right to vote. But within ten years the white minority had secured control of both of these States, although theoretically the negroes were allowed to vote. Qualifications for the suffrage have now been adopted, in each State, which theoretically disfranchise most of the blacks, but it would not be surprising if the practical result should be such a stimulation of education that within ten years almost every colored man, when he became old enough to vote, would know enough to pass the educational test. It is a fact of no little significance that the number of negroes who got their names on the registration list in Mississippi rose from 9,036 in 1892 to 16,965 in 1895, thus almost doubling within three years. Nobody can tell in advance how any constitution is going to work.

The *Investors' Review* hits off Mr. Chamberlain rather neatly when it remarks that people who charge him with political inconsistency do not take sufficient account of the commercial form of his intellect. It says: "We never read any of Mr. Chamberlain's speeches without thinking what a splendid commercial traveller he must have been. The last article he takes in hand is always the finest he ever had to vend, and now he vends 'imperialism' better than any." Old-age pensions and the other social reforms which were the burden of his speeches six months ago, are now laid aside like so many unsalable goods, and the "federation" of the empire dangled before the bulging eyes of the people who gather before his counter. The description of the goods, moreover, is always able, if a little shaky as to facts, and the air of sincerity about the whole performance is fine. But what need Mr. Chamberlain care for such nagging criticisms when the despatches tell of his dining twice in one week at Windsor, and of the old Birmingham Radical and his family now being in high favor at court? Political consistency has no such charming results to point to.

In presence of the complications in the Orient, the annexation of Madagascar by France has almost been lost sight of. On November 27 the new Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. Berthelot, read a statement in the Chamber affirming that Madagascar was not simply under a French protectorate, but was henceforth a French possession. Ex-Premier Ribot naturally wanted to know what had become of his treaty with the Queen; had that been repudiated? Not at all, rejoined Berthelot, it had only been "modified." Madagascar was a French possession, that was the main thing; and the Chamber, madly applauding, approved by a vote of 426 to 56. Details of administration of this new French territory were left conveniently vague, though it was said that all contracts and engagements made by the Hova Government would be sacredly respected. As the territory thus quietly, not to say cynically, taken over is considerably greater in area than all France, it seems as if a well-considered plan of government were desirable before annexation: as if the blunder of trying the prefecture system in Tonkin should be guarded against; as if the question of necessary ships and army, and their cost, should be carefully weighed, and the general colonial policy of France soberly discussed. But that is not the way territorial acquisitions are made nowadays. Make haste to grab your nettle, and fix up your hand the best way you can afterwards. Doubtless one motive of the French colonial madness, attaining its very pitch in this Madagascar business, is to show the Germans that other people can annex and colonize and expand as well as they. But the dearest foe of France, supposing Germany to be such, could ask for no harder blow to French power than such dissipation of military strength, such new burdens of taxation, such new opportunities for political intrigue and corruption, as are certain to result from these wild colonial ventures of France.

THE PRESIDENT ON VENEZUELA.

THE President's observations, in his message, on the Venezuela matter were of a nature to satisfy neither our own Jingoes nor the British. He leaves the main points of the controversy in obscurity. He "protests against the enlargement of the area of British Guiana in derogation of the rights and against the will of Venezuela." But this is begging the question. It is taking the side of Venezuela in the controversy, and thus disqualifying ourselves for acting as arbitrators should we be asked to do so. It assumes gross wrongdoing on the part of Great Britain before her side of the case has been heard. If Great Britain is really seeking to extend her territory "in derogation of the rights and against the will of Venezuela," there is nothing to arbitrate. We have only to consider whether or not we will take up arms in behalf of Venezuela.

Nor does the President throw any light on the nature of the controversy. He proposes to submit "the whole controversy" to arbitration. But what is "the whole controversy"? As we understand it, Great Britain is willing to arbitrate as to the boundary line through unoccupied territory, but declines to do so as to territory of which she has long had undisputed possession, and which is now settled by 40,000 British subjects, who do not desire to become Venezuelans, and have invested their capital without anticipating any such contingency. This territory the Venezuelans now claim because it has recently become a gold field. But if they may call on Great Britain to arbitrate her title to this, may they not call on her to arbitrate her title to other and more populous districts of Guiana, and in fact to the whole of Guiana? It must be remembered that Venezuela is a semi-barbarous state, not in the least governed by our notions of diplomatic reasonableness and courtesy, and would just as soon claim the whole of Guiana as not, if she thought there was a chance of our supporting her contention. She does not belong to "the family of civilized nations," properly so called, and we are just as much interested as Great Britain, in fact more interested than Great Britain, in repressing the extravagances and absurdities of these protégés of ours. To ask Great Britain to arbitrate any and every claim such a state may make is an absurdity which, if presented to us, we should promptly resent.

Moreover, the doctrine that all claims of a weak state on a strong one ought to be arbitrated because of its weakness, is a novelty in international law and morals. There are no warmer friends of arbitration than we are, but we have always supposed that the reason for arbitration was to be found in the nature of the case and not in the comparative strength of the parties. If I am a very strong man and have a dispute with a very small and weak one, I cannot, because of my physical superiority, let him slap my face when he pleases, and then propose to arbitrate on the nature, extent, and gravity of the insult. We should not think of accepting such a doctrine for our own use. When we were on the point of going to war with Chili in 1891, we should have scouted the idea of such a thing. Its general acceptance by strong Powers would in truth put a very powerful weapon of injury and arrogance into the hands of weak and semi-civilized ones. We must remember that, in meddling in other people's quarrels, we are making precedents by which we must be bound ourselves, unless we mean to part company with the rest of the civilized world and throw in our lot with Debs, Coxey, and Altgeld.

The question, too, what we should do if Venezuela were to yield voluntarily to Great Britain, by way of "a trade," the territory which the President says Great Britain is now wrongfully claiming, is one on which the President should have thrown some light, for his remarks inevitably suggest it. Should we be compelled to forbid the settlement of the controversy in this way? And if we did forbid it, what would become of Venezuela's sovereignty? Any such interference with her discretion would be tantamount to the assumption of a protectorate, which would inevitably carry with it responsibility in general for the acts of her Government and citizens in their foreign relations. The rest of the civilized world would never tolerate our protection of the whole of the Spanish-American States against the legitimate consequences of their own wrongdoing. There is a dispute, leading to a suspension of diplomatic relations, now pending between Venezuela and France and Belgium. Are we in that also? Must we settle it, or approve of the settlement? The crop of quarrels which might grow out of this would speedily change the character of our own Government and the course of our own political development. The experience of mankind thus far shows that a fighting, aggressive republic never remains a real republic very long.

Lastly, let us say that it is a cardinal rule of international intercourse to carry on negotiations on such terms as shall make it easy for your adversary to yield your point; and the more difficult your point is, the more careful should you be in putting it to him. The "mise en demeure," which is the French term for asking for a categorical, or, as Mr. Cleveland calls it, a "definite," answer, is something which diplomatists usually avoid unless they are prepared for the contingency of a refusal. Are we prepared for a refusal on the part of Lord Salisbury to litigate the title of England to territory of which she has long held adverse possession, and which is now settled by a large body of her subjects? Have we considered what we shall do if he says, "No, I won't"? There are two ways out of the embarrassment in which this answer would place us. One is to fight; the other is to submit to the imputation of negotiating in brave words which have no meaning—which is not pleasant for a first-class Power. Mr. Cleveland has doubtless considered, that, besides the dangerous element among us which would rejoice in a war as a period of confusion and turmoil and lawlessness, there is a strong political element which, like its predecessors in all ages, would rejoice in it as a means of diverting attention from troublesome domestic questions, such as the currency and the tariff, and as an excuse for enormous taxation. What these mischief-makers desire is something which every American statesman should consider in his foreign policy, for they, no less than the foreigners, are enemies of our institutions and traitors to popular government. Every despatch he writes on foreign matters is, and ought to be, in reality also addressed to the Jingo element among ourselves.

AN ILLUMINATING PRAYER.

THE prayer of the chaplain, at the opening session of the House of Representatives, is of considerable value as illustrating the effect of Jingoism, not only on our morals but on our religion. Here it is:

> "Heavenly Father, let peace reign throughout our borders. Yet may we be quick to resent anything like an insult to this our nation. May prosperity smile upon our land, and peace and happiness come into every home. So may Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done on earth as it is in Heaven, through Christ our Lord. Amen."

We do not believe there is any record of the offering of another petition of this sort by a Christian minister. In the Middle Ages, and even in our day, Christian ministers have prayed freely for the victory of their nation in time of war, and they pray freely in time of peace that the enemies of their nation may be confounded. But even Bossuet, who had to make Louis XIV. acceptable to the Almighty, and even Joseph de Maistre, who treated war as a divine institution, would have recoiled from praying for war as a blessing. We pointed out very recently that we were the only nominally Christian people, and in fact the only civilized people, that produced public men who were not ashamed to call for war as a means of educating the young or making trade brisk, or as a means of gratifying the national pride; and not for war, either, with any particular Power or in any particular quarrel, but for war generally with anybody who could be fastened on as an enemy—in fact, war for fun. This shocking spectacle has been reserved for our country in the 107th year of the republic of Washington and Franklin.

In fact, we have an increasing body of politicians among us who talk of it, and teach our children to talk of it, as if it were a game of football, with a large list of casualties; and yet when we think of the floods of misery which pour over the length and breadth of a country from even one battlefield, the savage contempt for

humanity with which every victor gazes on his dead and wounded, one can hardly help feeling that the prayer for the coming of God's kingdom which rises every day from millions of lips, is the most frightful mockery of which the Christian world is guilty. Among even the most military of European states, war is treated to-day as a deplorable but inevitable mode of settling disputes. It has been reserved for American statesmen to treat it as a useful national tonic, to be sought after, and not simply accepted. The great national advantage of being out of the way of fighting and slaughter, in which the founders of the republic rejoiced, we treat as a calamity, and reach for quarrels or seeds of quarrels as eagerly as a toper seeks his bottle.

But the Washington chaplain goes one step further than the politicians. For some Congressmen we do not think there is much use in praying. But the one proper prayer for those whose case is not hopeless, is, that they may be endued with grace, wisdom, and understanding. These are the only things a Christian people can ask for their legislators either from the God of peace or from the God of battles. This is the only prayer appropriate to the work they have to do. What the chaplain prays for is that they may be endowed with a resentful, vengeful spirit, and cultivate readiness to take offence. If duellists and swashbucklers were praying men, which they hardly ever are or were, this is exactly what they would pray for. We have made much fun of the Southerners for the readiness to stab and shoot which this quickness to resent insults has produced among them. We have shown them a thousand times that readiness to take offence is the mark of either an uncivilized man or a fool; that the more eager you are to resent insults, the more insults you are sure to receive. But real Jingoes pass most of their time looking out for them and calling attention to them. In their eyes the whole world is constantly trying to insult or "put upon" the United States, and it is mainly to chastise these people that they want a large navy.

No wonder, therefore, that Chaplain Couden took it into his head to pray for an increase of the swashbuckler spirit, for Congress to be made more quarrelsome, more vindictive, more ready to make widows and orphans, to blow human bodies into small pieces, to burn towns, and lay waste farms, and ruin trade, and issue greenbacks, and cheat creditors, and turn the thoughts of young men away from industry and charity, and to fill their hearts with hatred of their fellow-men and joy over their misery, and generally to roll back the tide of civilization. We hope we shall not be considered irreverent when we speak of the astonishment with which the Author of the Sermon on the Mount must have received this petition from one of his own ministers, above all when he learned that the minister was praying for the Legislature which is charged with the superintendence of the latest effort of men to make reason and the will of God prevail in the conduct of human affairs.

THE BERING SEA AWARD.

It is earnestly to be hoped that the present Congress will dispose of the award of damages under the Bering Sea arbitration in a manner creditable to the national dignity. That the last Congress should have left the matter as it did was not surprising, considering what the character of that body was. From this one, Republican though it be, one expects better things. The question is one which could arise only between civilized peoples. The whole machinery of arbitration bespeaks a high degree of civilization, and to allow its working to be arrested and nullified by semi-barbarians like Senator Morgan would be distinct retrogression. Sending him abroad as one of our jurists to sit on a really august international tribunal was bad enough. To allow him to undo its work after he got home would be still worse. If we were to adopt the Jingo theory of international respectability, it would be safe to say that we should have to bombard two flourishing European cities in order to wipe out the discredit which the employment of such men as Senator Morgan in responsible places abroad brings upon us. It is such agents as he, and not our failure to kill people and destroy property, that diminish our weight and influence in the civilized world.

The treaty under which the Paris tribunal sat, agreed by article 14 to "consider the result of the proceedings of the tribunal of arbitration as a full, perfect, and final settlement of all the questions referred to the arbitrators." The arbitrators found that the United States had no jurisdiction in Bering Sea outside the three-mile limit. It followed from this that all the seizures of British ships made by the American cruisers were illegal, and that the United States were liable in damages. The questions as to "the value of the said vessels and their contents or either of them," and the question whether they were "wholly or in part" the property of Americans, were left "to future determination." The determination was to be reached by a "mixed commission" on the facts.

The total of the British claims for damages, including compensation to British subjects imprisoned by the American courts, with interest, was $780,000. In the course of the negotiations for this mixed commission, to use Mr. Gresham's language, "these claims were subjected by both governments to a thorough examination both upon the principles and facts which they involve." He—that is, we, the United States—therefore suggested (August 21, 1894) that in order to save the expense, trouble, and tedium of a commission, the matter should be settled by the payment of a lump sum of $425,000. His first offer was $400,000. The British asked $450,000. They "split the difference" and settled on $425,000. It now looked as if the matter was arranged, barring the inquiry as to the ownership of the vessels. When the appropriation of the money came before Congress it was opposed by Mr. Cannon on the ground that the majority of the vessels were owned by Americans, and that only $103,000 was due. To this was added the statement by Mr. Hitt that not only were "the real owners" Americans, but they "were engaged in an occupation forbidden by the laws of their own country," and were entitled not to compensation, but to fine and imprisonment. As to the unlawfulness of the occupation, Mr. Hitt was mistaken. The original bill which made it a criminal offence to kill seal in Bering Sea made the American dominion cover the whole sea. This was amended by the Senate, and the amendment accepted by the House, after conference; and the effect of the amendment, reported the managers on behalf of the House (March 2, 1889), was "to leave out of the House amendment the words that are descriptive of the waters of Alaska." This restored the waters of Alaska to the domain of international law, and made seal-killing outside the three-mile limit a lawful occupation. Therefore, whatever the nationality of the owners, they were not debarred from compensation on the ground of nationality

Now comes the question, what is their nationality? There does not seem to be any full evidence on this point. Nor does it appear on what grounds Senator Morgan's assumption rests, that they were "rascally and recalcitrant Americans who hired themselves out to the British flag to rob the Government of the United States, violate its laws, and dishonor the country." All this appears to be the product of a half-savage imagination. Morgan's language cannot be approached from the civilized point of view. It would be as much a waste of time to examine his argumentation in detail as that of King Kaffee Kalkalli.

The British answer to this is, that any British vessel seized under the British flag must, by the British law, belong to a British subject. A foreigner cannot own her. But the owner may borrow of a foreigner by mortgage on the ship. There appears to be no doubt that many, or some, of the ships seized in Bering Sea were so mortgaged to Americans, who had advanced money to the Canadian owner to enable him to engage in the season's sealing. This is all that can have possibly made such mortgagee "a rascally and recalcitrant American." Under the Morgan system of jurisprudence his making such a loan entitles his own Government, without a shadow of legal authority, to seize the ship, which was his only security, and lock up the owner so as to make such security worthless. We do not believe a

more remarkable debate than that in which Morgan produced these juridical flowers, was ever heard in the history of either witenagemots or parliaments.

It will be easily seen, from this brief sketch of the facts, that the whole affair is a national scandal. That such a scandal should have arisen in such an assemblage of wild men as the last Congress, is not to be wondered at. This one plumes itself on coming from the ranks of the intelligent and really patriotic portion of the population. Our liability has arisen under a judgment by which we solemnly agreed to abide. The amount has been settled by our lawfully constituted representatives. The opponents of its payment are, therefore, "rascally and recalcitrant Americans" who are doing all they can to dishonor our flag and to bring arbitration into disrepute. In money matters nations should always be gentlemen and pay what they promise. When the bargain is struck, the time for haggling is over.

FALSE PRETENCES ABOUT REVENUE.

GREAT indignation exists among certain chronically indignant Republicans over President Cleveland's references in his message to the relation of deficient revenue to the Treasury embarrassments. He falsely pretends, they say, that money had to be borrowed solely to protect the gold reserve, not to pay current expenses, and that the root of the trouble is in a vicious currency, not in insufficient revenue. We are not set for the defence of the message in this particular. Mr. Cleveland frankly admits that the money obtained by bond sales was used in part to meet current demands on the Treasury; and the inference is, of course, unmistakable that the Treasury could not have met its obligations otherwise. But, technically, it is strictly true, as he says, that bonds were issued to maintain gold payments; and it is also strictly true that, taking the condition of the Treasury as it is to-day, the difficulty is not in the amount of money, but the kind of money, on hand. We are perfectly willing to concede, however, as we have many times conceded, that the element of distrust caused by visibly dwindling revenues should enter into any broad discussion of the financial troubles of 1893–'94.

But allowing the worst charges of insincerity against the President to be true, what is to be said of the logic and the sincerity of the present Republican or, rather, protectionist contention? That contention is, that a surplus revenue will at once and of itself cure the currency sore. The way to get a surplus revenue is to clap on higher duties. Hence the cry for a speedy reënactment of the McKinley tariff, and the protectionist rage at Speaker Reed for declaring that nothing of the kind ought to be or can be done.

Now, there is a fine incoherency in the very terms in which this ultra-protectionist demand is couched. We must stop these "vast importations," which are crushing us to the earth and taking all our gold from us, the *Tribune* tells us. Precisely so, echo Judge Lawrence and the Ohio wool-growers; give us a tariff on wool with steadily rising rates that shall shut out *all* foreign wool. That is what all the protected industries want—a tariff which will stop or reduce to the minimum all importations. That is simon-pure protectionism, and that we can understand. But that it should be urged in the same breath with a demand for a greater revenue out of customs duties—that this exclusive, Chinese-wall protectionism should now be put forward under the guise of a tariff for revenue—is too sharp a corner for the average slow-moving mind to turn. A high tariff was never before defended as a revenue measure. Nothing is so disgusting or irrelevant to a good protectionist as to talk to him of a revenue in connection with a tariff. Revenue means importations, and to stop importations is the very end and aim and natural working of a protective tariff. To pretend anything else is to be guilty of false pretences.

The insincerity of the present demand for high duties as a means of filling up the Treasury with gold will appear doubly flagrant to any one who stops to note the effect on Government revenue of prolonged tariff discussion and the enactment of new tariffs. Irregularity, vitiated estimates, spasmodic ups and downs in receipts, with resulting uncertainty at Washington and anxiety in business circles all over the country, are the invariable accompaniments of such discussion and such laws. It was so with the McKinley tariff, it was so, to a considerable extent, with the Wilson tariff. The income of the Treasury depends in a peculiar degree upon the stability of trade and the permanence of fiscal laws. Nothing throws the Treasury upon its beam-ends more quickly than the unsettling of business conditions. Let a tariff bill be now precipitated and drag along for six months (the very shortest time, certainly, in which it could be passed, if at all), and the Treasury deficit to be provided for would be doubled or trebled in the act. A new high-tariff bill might be entitled an act to disorganize and derange public finance, but never one to come to the rescue of an embarrassed Treasury.

How was it with the McKinley bill? Did it stop the "vast importations"? Did it increase the revenue? Did it come within miles of producing the revenue predicted? All these questions must be answered in the negative. Importations were enormous during the pendency of the bill—so enormous that the enraged McKinley threatened, at one time, to make them pay the higher duties by way of anticipation. This is the normal course of business in passing from a low to a high tariff. It would be the course now if a new McKinley bill were visible on the horizon. The bonded warehouses would be stuffed with foreign goods, and the maddened protectionists would be helpless. Then when the higher duties went into effect, where would the increased revenue come in? Just where it did in the first months under the McKinley bill, or at the rate of nearly $8,000,000 a month decrease. The estimates made by Senators Allison and Aldrich for the first year's operation of the McKinley tariff were $40,000,000 out of the way. This shows how safe a thing it would be now to reënact such a law as a revenue measure. The revenue might prove as delusive as the pretensions with which the bill is urged.

This being so, the country ought to rejoice at the *Tribune's* moderation in not taking the direction of Congress out of Speaker Reed's hands. It might dictate the policy to be pursued, it says, but it refrains. This is really wise, as the Speaker has an unfair advantage in appointing the committees which the *Tribune* might not be able to overcome without a hard fight, dangerous to party harmony. Mr. Reed has unmistakably said (representing, we may add, the evident and overwhelming opinion of manufacturers and business men the country over) that there must be no tariff agitation this winter. This makes it practically certain that there will be none, and that when the next protectionist tariff comes up, if it ever does, it will have to be defended on some other ground than the false pretence that it is necessary for revenue.

SPEAKER AND CANDIDATE.

WE have had one President who had previously been Speaker of the House of Representatives. James K. Polk presided over the lower branch of Congress from 1835 to 1839, and in 1844 was elected to the higher office. We have had two men who were nominated by their party for the Presidency some years after they had served in the speakership—Henry Clay, as the candidate of the Whigs, in 1844, and James G. Blaine, as the candidate of the Republicans, in 1884; while John Bell, who had preceded Polk as Speaker, was the candidate of the Constitutional Union party for President in 1860. We have had one case where a man who was at the time Speaker received a number of electoral votes, but Clay's candidacy in 1824 was before the introduction of the modern system by which each party holds a national convention to name its choice, and the contest of that year between Jackson, Adams, Crawford, and Clay was in every way outside of the methods that now prevail. It is, therefore, an unprecedented spectacle which we are to watch for the next few months, while Thomas B. Reed will be at once Speaker of the House and an open candidate for the Presidential nomination of the Republican party. Under these conditions Mr. Reed may easily be the most picturesque per-

sonage in public affairs for the next half year.

Mr. Reed gained his first prominence in Congress as a critic. Coming into the House in 1877, while the Democrats controlled that body, he attracted notice for his success in "nagging" his opponents during the next four years, and he maintained his reputation in this regard when, after the single Republican House of 1881-83, his party again went into the minority for six years. A somewhat indolent disposition made him too easily satisfied with performances that rendered him conspicuous without much demand upon his powers, and he left no such record for effective service in the work of legislation as was made in a much briefer period by his New England colleague, George D. Robinson of Massachusetts, for example. But long service and prominence as a leader of the minority entitled him to aspire to the speakership when the Republicans returned to power in 1889, and he secured the nomination in the party caucus without much difficulty.

In the opening session of the Fifty-first Congress Mr. Reed for the first time exhibited his constructive and positive powers. Chosen Speaker of a House in which his party had a very narrow margin, he introduced new and unheard-of methods for ruling the body, pushed through schemes for unseating Democrats until the Republicans secured a working majority, and had rules adopted under which the McKinley bill and the Force bill were railroaded through the House; the tariff measure being also approved by the Senate and made a law before the elections of November, 1890. The victorious Speaker left Washington for a stumping tour through the North that seemed to him one continuous series of triumphs, and returned to his home in Portland full of cheerful confidence, only to find that the nation had repudiated his work by an overwhelming majority, and that his party had secured scarcely a quarter of the next House of Representatives.

Mr. Reed's previous incumbency of the office showed his conviction that the Speaker should be the leader of his party and the dictator of its policy. His record in the First-first Congress would prevent his sinking in the Fifty-fourth into the position of a mere judicial official, bound simply to hold the scales even and do justice to all parties. Moreover, as a Presidential candidate, least of all men could he afford now to seem to shirk responsibility. He must frame a definite policy and carry it out. The Speaker's situation, however, is very different now from what it was six years ago. There was then no Presidency in sight, and no clash of rival ambitions for an impending nomination prevented his rallying a united party to his support. Now he presides over a body of Republicans many of whom oppose his own aspirations and would like to thwart them. The press of his party is equally divided as to the matter of candidates. Moreover, neither in Congress nor outside is there anything like unanimity of opinion as to the proper course for the Republicans to pursue in the House. Mr. Reed's suggestion of a do-nothing policy has already provoked indignant condemnation from party organs of prominence. The *Iowa State Register*, for example, immediately published an editorial article on the "First Duty of the New Congress," which said, among other things:

> "There is no doubt as to the demand for prompt action by the new Congress, and it should at once proceed to revive American labor and American business in the only way by which they can be revived, by increasing the duties on competing foreign goods to a sufficient degree to provide ample revenues for the Government, and to protect American labor and business from competition in American markets with foreign labor. All Republican Senators and Representatives who work and vote on any other lines, will be traitors to their party and to the interests of the American people. The *Register* has no faith in any Congressman who does not stand 'first, last, and all the time' for an American government."

The public seems inclined nowadays not to take its politics very seriously. The popular desire to be amused promises to be gratified by the spectacle of a man who attained fame as the Speaker of "a Congress that did something," and who thereby landed his party in the ditch, trying to evolve a policy of doing practically nothing so as not to offend the country, while making noise enough to head off rival candidates for the Presidential nomination who can talk without his sense of responsibility.

GOLDWIN SMITH ON THE OLD TESTAMENT.

THE appearance of Mr. Goldwin Smith's article on "Christianity's Millstone," in the current *North American Review*, is a sign of the times. It is a striking thing that such a man as he should have written such an article; more striking still that it should have been published in a magazine of general circulation; most striking of all that its author should not have been immediately and bitterly assailed. Where are the polemics, where the religious passions and prejudices, of thirty years ago? What Mr. Smith has done is, to test some parts of the Old Testament by modern standards of historical credibility and modern standards of morality, and to declare, with great frankness, that he finds on every hand evidences of myth and fable as well as low and barbarous morality. In a style which, by its point and pungency, reminds one of the similar writings of Thomas Paine, he puts together some of the harder things to believe, and the still harder things to practise, in the Old Testament, and urges that it be cast off as "a millstone on the neck of Christianity." For such an article by such a man, so meekly received by the general public and the religious world, it would be hard to find a parallel.

Mr. Smith has, however, inevitably the air of a man not entirely at home in Biblical criticism. He seems to have taken up the subject where he dropped it more than thirty years ago, in the 'Essays and Reviews' epoch. But those thirty years, in the theological world, have meant more for light and liberality than the cycles of Cathay that preceded them. Of what has been done within the church and by professors of Christian theology, in that time, to promote a rational and historic estimate of the Old Testament, Mr. Smith appears, if not ignorant, at least too little regardful. To mention only English names, what Robertson Smith and Canon Driver and Prof. Cheyne have done in England, and men like Prof. Briggs and Prof. Moore in this country, to set forth the natural history, so to speak, of the Hebrew Bible, is too important to be ignored in any such general discussion as Mr. Smith's. Yet he does not so much as hint at it, or at the most fruitful hypothesis of Biblical criticism—the documentary theory—which is doing for criticism what Darwin's 'Origin of Species' did for natural science. One can but admire, too, the serenity and security with which Mr. Smith turns from the Old Testament to the New. We fear his own tests of credibility would, if rigidly applied to the latter, land him in as serious difficulties as those he enumerates respecting the former; and he makes no allusion to the fact that the great critical battle-field is now precisely in the New Testament; that the methods and theories which have wrought such sweeping changes in our way of looking at the Old Testament, are now being applied, with illuminating results, to the New.

And if Mr. Smith thus shows himself apparently out of touch with the critical conception of the Old Testament, we think he is also somewhat out of touch with the popular conception of it. This is a question, we know, on which there is room for great difference of opinion. What the great mass of people in the churches really think about the Old Testament, he would be a bold man who should undertake positively to say. Probably the great mass do not think about it at all. They feel compelled to have no theory whatever on the subject. But the significant thing is, that they remain singularly unaffected by other people's theories. One theory of inspiration or another may be preached to them, one explanation or another of moral and historical difficulties, and either is almost certain to be, with the great majority, like Carlyle's favorite "blessings that pass over our heads." A remark of Matthew Arnold's, in his recently published 'Letters,' is very much to the point. He said that Mr. Greg had an idea that some theory or other about the Bible prevented people from taking to the Bible. Then he added, "That is stuff. The mass of people take from the Bible what suits them, and quietly leave on one side all that does not."

The real grounds which ordinary Chris-

tians have for valuing the Old Testament it would be difficult or impossible for any one exactly to ascertain. A religious census on that subject would be more untrustworthy than Porter's national census. But in general it may be said that the lyric and prophetic books would stand first, for their beauty, their spirituality, their power over the universal imagination and heart; that then would come the more interesting biographical portions, then the racy stories, made as if for the delight of children, of which the oldest narrative is full, while the history, the theological doctrine, the surface morality, would be far down the list, if not wholly disregarded.

For pulpit use the Old Testament has become, we should judge, mainly a sort of homiletic treasury of curious texts, inviting to ingenious handling. Some sermons actually preached may illustrate this. "There is death in the pot" served as a text for a discourse on the wickedness of the human heart—that was the "pot," and "death" was in it in the shape of evil desires and sin. "Butter and honey shall he eat" was a distinct prophecy of Christ, according to one preacher—butter the product of the "sacrificial animal," and honey suggesting bees, and bees those stinging troubles of life which the Saviour was to experience. These examples are far down the scale, it must be admitted, but at the other end one can hear most original and edifying sermons, preached to cultured audiences, and got out of such texts as: "Behold, a smoking furnace and a flaming torch." This fantastic use of the Old Testament is not fitted to enforce an idea of it as an inspired document which its official expounders are to handle with reverence.

But how about the creeds and formularies of the church? Do they express the actual state of knowledge about the Old Testament, the common conception and use of it, not to say the ideas of it which are inevitable in an acute and trained mind like Mr. Smith's? That is another question. It is with the creeds that Mr. Smith has his quarrel, and as against the creeds—the official opinions of the church about the Old Testament—his assault is overwhelming. Of them, and of their mistaken assertions about the Old Testament, it may fairly be said, in his own words: "We do but tamper with our own understandings and conscience by such attempts at once to hold on and let go, to retain the shadow of a belief when the substance has passed away." It is not the Old Testament, but what the church, sinning against light, continues to assert about it, that is the millstone.

THE EASTERN QUESTION AGAIN.

ROME, November 22, 1895.

A WEEK ago the Eastern question seemed about to receive an answer, but it is like Brahma, "I keep, and pass, and turn again"—and no one is wiser as to the final solution. The strong and militant note sounded by Lord Salisbury in his Mansion House speech seemed the precursor of decisive action, and Italy, which is (after England) the Power most interested in the eastern Mediterranean, took up the note, and signified officially her intention of adhering to the policy of the English ministry. Letters from England say that the Government was (I say *was*) decided to go ahead even if alone, and force a solution securing the reforms and the safety of the Christians of Turkey. Of the outburst of public indignation in England you are probably better informed than I am here, but we have heard from the most authoritative sources that the nation, without distinction, was with the Prime Minister. The position so created was one which must have compelled a solution. Italy would have sent a fleet of ten or twelve ironclads, England twenty, and, between them, troops enough for the purpose intended. This was all that was needed, for the first entry of European troops into action would have led to the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire, and nobody knows this better than the pashas. The entry of England and Italy would have compelled Austria to move, and if then Russia attacked Austria, the *casus fœderis* of the Triple Alliance would have arisen, and Germany must have moved. The perception of this alarmed Austria, which is just now in the condition more or less of a lobster that has cast his shell, and, either under this or some foreign pressure, she proposed a plan for the joint action of all the Powers, but it is difficult to think that this plan was believed to offer any chance of efficacy by the Minister who proposed it. It had, however, one immediate success—it stopped the Anglo-Italian movement, which at once lost all its *élan*.

Austria's proposition was in the concrete satisfactory enough, but behind it lay all the practical difficulties which had beset the original English plan—it did not, and could not, as Austrian Ministers must have known from the first, command unanimity of the Powers. It was as follows: The united fleets were to rendezvous at Besika Bay to await the moment of action, which would have been when it was seen that the Sultan would not, or could not, effect the reforms demanded of him by the Powers—in the latter case from his being overawed by the fanatical element of his own people. In either case the fleets were to force their way to Constantinople, and, occupying the Bosphorus, put the Sultan in the necessity of abdicating or effecting the reforms; and in the case of his accepting the latter alternative, of supporting him against any Mussulman rising caused by his execution of the reforms. This programme was accepted by England and Italy, but, as was to be expected and must have been foreseen, Russia refused to accept any proposition which involved the application of coercion to the Turkish Government. The accord on the Austrian basis was at an end at once, and, as we are assured that an accord is arrived at between all the Powers, including Russia, we have the right to conclude that it excludes compulsion. This can be interpreted only as a momentary defeat for Salisbury. The Russians have scored a point in revenge for that made by England at Port Arthur, and we must wait for the disclosure of the new plan on which the Powers shall be agreed to know if England has gained any compensation. The *Corriere della Sera*, a leading journal of Milan, furnishes me with the details of the transaction thus far, and, from my own information, I am inclined to accept that of the *Corriere* as on excellent authority.

The situation *au fond* is very simple. England desires the reformation and solidification, under civilized administration, of the Turkish Empire, and the protection of all the races from the fanaticism of the others, not to speak of the financial and social development which might be attained under the auspices of an administration similar to that of Egypt. This would be a permanent barrier to the plans of Russia, whose persistent policy is to sustain the Turkish Empire as a whole till it is no longer coherent, and, when the end comes, to seize all that she can; and of course the longer this solution is delayed the more she hopes to get. Both plans look to the maintenance of the integrity of the Empire, but one for a distinct development in the future and the other for home consumption. The pretended accord between the six Powers is a fiction as respects compelling Turkey to keep her engagements. If it means that the Powers will go together as far as they are agreed, and that, when this is seen to be ineffective, those most resolute for reform will go on without the others, all one can say is that it is only an accord *pro tanto*, and leaves things just where they were, and the point of separation becomes the point of hostilities. The *Tribuna*, one of the best-informed papers in Italy, and an independent supporter of the Ministry, has the following statement of the position:

"What is the real signification of the rebus proposed by the head of the Foreign Office to the wits of his hearers? It seems this: The situation is so difficult and dangerous that there is need of doing everything to keep the Powers together confronting Turkey, and no Power intends to avoid this duty. To the good will and good intentions of yesterday has there succeeded to-day that complete accord of the Powers for a coercive action without which the situation has no apparent issue? Many telegrams of yesterday and to-day affirm it, and there is an air of optimism stirring to day. But if they speak for the hundredth time of the complete accord of the Powers, nobody shows how and on what proposal it shall be established, and in view of such a reserve the new assurances must have the effect of the melancholy refrain of an old song. The fear of a European conflict prevents this or that Power from taking any initiative against Turkey; the fear of remaining discredited before the Turkish Empire and the Mussulman element will probably induce Europe to take some steps if the Turkish Government does not succeed in restoring peace to the Empire. Still, the situation at present must be considered in the light of the negative reply given by Russia to the Austrian initiative—a negation which no interested denial serves to destroy.

"What did the Austro-Hungarian chancellery propose, in substance? To pledge the Powers to pass the Dardanelles in case the impotence of Turkey to reëstablish internal order became evident. Russia replies: 'I am convinced that something must be done, but I do not wish to engage in advance in any form of intervention.' She may have so replied to create a claim on the gratitude of the Sultan (who, by the way, contrary to current rumors, is very well); she may have done so with a desire to prolong, as far as possible, a situation full of uncertainties. But in any case she has declined an invitation which had the inestimable merit of making Abdul Hamid feel a decided will, and one determined to resolve, *sic et simpliciter*, the complex question of a substantial accord. Now it is clear that the accord which is under discussion—which was so praised by Berthelot in the ministerial council held yesterday in Paris, by Banffy in the Chamber of Deputies in Hungary—can be established only on bases different from those already indicated by Golutchovsky, and we may therefore hold that it is only formal; in other words, that the Powers are agreed to pray the good God that he will condescend to reëstablish order in the Turkish Empire to free them from a preoccupation which troubles them so much."

This seems to me to put the question in as simple terms as need be. I do not see how,

supposing the Powers have concluded to accept the Russian conditions of accord, they can accomplish anything. When this appears to the satisfaction of Europe, will England, whose premier has committed himself to the reform, *bon gré mal gré*, of Turkey, be satisfied to pocket the check? It is impossible to believe this. The position seems to me to be clearly indicated as one of delay, with the necessity of action intensified thereby. The intentions of England and of Russia are so radically opposed in all that concerns the treatment of the Sick Man that I cannot believe that either is willing that he should be treated by the other for a day. England, Italy, and reluctant Austria-Hungary are committed to the effective pressure for reform, Russia is committed against it. Conceding that Russia's objections have stopped the movement of the others for the moment, it appears impossible that it should not be resumed as soon as Russia's object becomes evident. The *Tribuna* concludes thus: "The question, however, which appears subject to an adjournment, is one of those which must inevitably be answered. The Turks of to day must expiate the victories of their fathers and restore to Christian Europe what the fathers took from it; so decides historical justice, and we believe that Turkey will for no long time sign protocols as a European Power." X.

GENERAL THIÉBAULT ONCE MORE.

PARIS, November 20, 1895.

A PROTEST must be made against the new fashion of publishing memoirs piecemeal, one volume after another, at intervals often so long that the reader has some difficulty in finding the thread which he was obliged to abandon. This method may be advantageous to the publisher, but it is rather irritating to the reader. Who would have thought, when the first volume of the memoirs of General Thiébault appeared, that it would be followed by so many others? I have now before me the fifth volume, which covers the period extending from 1813 to 1820. It contains so much that is interesting that it will certainly find as many readers as its predecessors. General Thiébault, who, it must be confessed, was quite unknown to our generation, is taking in our historical literature a place which is becoming by degrees more and more important. He gives us himself the means of judging him. With many faults, he has one virtue which is essential in history—he is perfectly candid, and he does not disguise the truth, or what appears to him the truth. He is passionate, irrational, he has many ill-founded likes and dislikes, but he has a decided personality, which, on the whole, becomes sympathetic to the reader. Shall I add that he was very handsome, if we may judge by the portraits which illustrate his memoirs, and that his personal charms had evidently much to do with the incidents of his career?

Volume V. begins after the great disaster of Napoleon's Russian campaign. Thiébault was coming back from Spain, a country which in five years had devoured as many men as Russia had in five weeks. He found in France universal anxiety. The army of Russia had disappeared as an army, but Alexander had a great reputation for generosity, and it was hoped that many prisoners would come back. These hopes were disappointed. Thiébault gives a terrible account of the treatment to which the French were subjected in Russia.

"I have," he says, "under my eyes the relations, one of an officer, the other of a high functionary; the first was in a column of 1,800 prisoners, the second in a column of 3,200. . . . Of these 5,000 unfortunate prisoners, only thirty saw France again, thanks to some worthy Russians who, at the risk of compromising themselves, took care of them and helped them. . . . Two hundred brave men, worthy of a better fate, perished in real torture, victims of infamous thefts and of barbarous speculations, while the Russian prisoners in France were treated with a solicitude which we were credulous enough to consider reciprocity. . . . Napoleons were taken for eight francs only; the inhabitants sold food to the prisoners at ten times its value; so the napoleon was really worth only 88 centimes."

When Thiébault saw the Emperor he found him much altered and very serious. "What a difference between his reception now and the last reception I had seen at Compiègne! What had become of those kings, archdukes, foreign princes, ambassadors, even of the Austrian ambassador? . . . All that glory, that pomp, those tributes had disappeared." Thiébault was placed under the orders of Davout and left for Wesel. He arrived just in time to take part in a council of war which had to judge Count Bentinck, accused of rebellion. He had great difficulty in saving the life of Bentinck, and his conduct on this occasion was as honorable as it was courageous, seeing that he made an enemy of General Lemarois, who had convoked the council, and of Marshal Davout. Thiébault had the command of the division of Hamburg, and he is very eloquent on the subject of the infatuation of the Emperor, who wanted to keep all his fortresses in Germany while he had to dispute French soil with the Coalition. "When he was fighting like a lion on the hills of Champagne, he was deprived of the 36,000 men left at Dantzig, of the garrisons of Stettin, Wittenberg, and Potsdam, of the 22,000 men of the garrison of Glogau, of the 32,000 men sacrificed in Dresden, of the 18,000 men shut up in Magdeburg, of the 36,000 men who went to Hamburg, and of the 80,000 conscripts who were called out in the countries which we should have gone through if we had retreated to Lille—a formidable total of 200,000 men, who, by annulling the efforts of the Coalition, might have saved France."

It would be tedious to speak of the daily difficulties which Thiébault encountered in Hamburg. His chief was more than usually out of humor, and in the best of times Marshal Davout was very severe, and left no repose or peace of mind to his subordinates. After the battles of Leipzig, Hamburg was blockaded; the Thirteenth Corps remained in it with Davout, who was soon cut off from all communication with Napoleon and the remainder of the French army. After a long period of isolation, he received a despatch from the Minister of War, ordering him to retreat: "What are you doing in Hamburg, Monsieur le Maréchal, when the enemy is at the gates of Paris?" It was too late now, and Davout could no longer escape. Thiébault would have us believe that Bernadotte entertained for a moment the idea of uniting his army with that of Davout and the French garrisons left in Germany. His own army was no longer in line, though he gained the victories of Gross-Beeren and of Dennewitz, and took a decisive part in the battles of Leipzig. He was not well satisfied with the allied kings and princes. He chose as an intermediary with Davout a former aide-de-camp of Dumouriez, who kept a hotel at Altona.

"Rainville appeared before the Marshal. He began with what was to serve him as an introduction, but when he came to approach the true object of his mission, he remembered suddenly the way in which the Marshal dealt with people and had them executed, the fondness he had for this sort of executions, his terrible provost, and even I do not know how many examples of people executed without a trial. Frightened by the idea that his fate depended on a moment of bile, caprice, or calculation, and trembling at the very thought of his having dreamed of playing for his life with such an adversary, this diplomat, less audacious as a diplomat than clever as an innkeeper, ran away from the Marshal rather than took leave of him, ran away from Hamburg rather than left the place, taking hardly the time to say to his introducer, who was waiting to hear the result of the conference, that the Marshal's character and reputation had not allowed him to break the silence. Thus vanished . . . the last way that remained of hindering the Calmucks, the Gascons of the north, treacherous Austria, arrogant England, and the allied mob, from defiling the soil of France."

Thiébault is, a moment afterwards, obliged to confess that the junction of Davout and Bernadotte could have been effected only too late. The tide was too strong and could no longer be resisted. Bernadotte remained with the Allies, consoling himself as he did at Leipzig, when he ordered some batteries to continue their fire: "A little more grape for those Frenchmen I love so much."

On the 9th of May, 1814, the French, blockaded at Hamburg, saw in the enemy's line the white flag, the flag of the Bourbons. Davout received a messenger, one of his own relations, who had been sent to him by the Provisional Government established in Paris. He summoned all his generals and told them that Napoleon had abdicated, and that the Bourbons had returned; he had received orders to give the white cockade to his troops and to proclaim Louis XVIII. He showed them a bundle of *Moniteurs* which he had received, and which gave all the details of the latest events. He retired, leaving his generals to confer on the situation. The result was an address [illegible] acceptance of the new order of things, [illegible]eived in a dignified tone, which was written [illegible] Thiébault. Between Hamburg and Düsseldorf, Thiébault found nothing but strangers and enemies, [illegible]here he had seen before soldiers and subjects of the [illegible] Empero The Rhine was not now guarded by Prussi[illegible] When he found himself in France, it seem[illegible] to him that he was "sur une terre d'aumône When he again saw French troops, they had no longer their tricolor flags and cockades. He had never been a courtier; he had won every grade by brilliant actions and hard work. He felt that, after so many struggles, France needed peace; but he felt as if the honor of the "grande armée" was his own honor, and he deeply resented the treatment which the remains of this army received from the Bourbons and the *émigrés*. His judgment on Louis XVIII., and especially on his brother, who became Charles X., and his sons, is severe, even to injustice. He is cruel to all those men who, for twenty-five years, had learned nothing and forgotten nothing. He shows us the Duke de Berry, passing in review a few regiments of the former imperial guard, and saying: "The English troops are finer"; the Count d'Artois saying that nothing was needed in France but Jesuits for gentlemen and Capuchins for the *canaille;* his wife speaking of the wives of the marshal and Napoleon's Duchesses as "Bonaparte's cooks."

Thiébault had to go to the Tuileries to be presented to the King, the princes and their wives, and he gives a curious account of the receptions of the new court. Louis XVIII. was very witty and fond of an ironical joke.

Napoleon's generals came before him in the midst of the *émigrés* who had been made generals. Some of the former, such as Lauriston, were noblemen by birth, but had dropped their titles under the Empire. One day, Lauriston arrived before Louis XVIII. with La Roche-Aymon, one of the new generals. The King said to the Marquis of La Roche-Aymon, "Good morning, General La Roche-Aymon"; and, turning to Lauriston, who had been aide-de-camp of Napoleon, he said, "Good morning, Marquis." If Thiébault is excessive in his dislike for the Bourbons, and draws too dark a picture of them all, his tone is quite altered when he speaks of the Duke of Orleans.

"When the Duke of Orleans," he says, "in 1793 was obliged to abandon France, he had already fought under its flag with as much success as valor, and in a few months he had seen fourteen combats, a siege, and battles marked by various acts of prowess; he had not yet attained his twentieth year. Out of France, he refused to fight against his country, though his death-warrant had been prepared in it, the death of his father was imminent, his brothers were in dungeons where they acquired the germ of maladies to which they succumbed, his whole family was banished and its immense property confiscated. Proscribed, abandoned, poor, left alone with his thoughts, even obliged to conceal his name and his rank, so as not to be turned out of Switzerland, where his sister had taken refuge, he bore his fate with stoical resignation."

After a long account of the life of Louis Philippe, Thiébault shows him on his return. He asked to be presented to the Duke at the Palais-Royal. The Duke received him with the greatest kindness, recalled to him circumstances which had brought General Thiébault in relations with his sister, and finally asked him if he wished to take service or not. Thiébault was always persuaded that the Duke of Orleans would have taken him on his personal staff if he had expressed such a desire, and was angry with himself for not having done so. The Duke of Orleans during the Restoration always surrounded himself with [illegible] generals of the Empire; he liked to have his sons take from them lessons in the art of war; he knew that the French people placed such men as Marbot (who became his aide-de-camp) above titled *gentilshommes de la chambre*. In fact, though he was one of the highest representatives of old France, he understood the new France better than anybody. Thiébault became one of the *assidus* at the receptions at the Palais Royal, which already contrasted much with those at the Tuileries. He went also often to Neuilly, which was the favorite residence of the Duke of Orleans and of his children. He saw there the Legitimists—the ultras, as they were called—mixing freely with the generals of the Revolution and the Empire. Louis Philippe tried to bring them together, but he understood the difficulty of a perfect fusion, and one day, in a moment of discouragement, he said to Thiébault, "What is white will remain white, what is blue will remain blue."

We come now to Napoleon's return from Elba, and to the part which Thiébault had to play in the extraordinary events that followed it.

Correspondence.

LYNCHING AND THE LAW'S DELAYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent Mr. F. M. Noa, in his discussion of "Southern Lynchings," asks the question, "Do not even intelligent people complacently accept the plea that all courts, juries, and judges are so incompetent that mobs must, like savages, take the law into their own hands?"

This question can readily and truthfully be answered in the negative. It is not reasonable to believe that the average intelligence and competence of the legal profession in America is greatly inferior to that of the same profession in England or continental Europe. But in this free country, where we frown upon all forms of arbitrary power except that of the political boss, the right of appeal from one court to another is interpreted so liberally, one might almost say so anomalously, that the public has naturally lost all confidence in the administration of justice in criminal cases. When a fiendish murder is committed by one who has money enough to pay lawyers' fees, or who is in a position to secure help for this purpose, however notorious his guilt may be, there is rarely any ground for hope that justice will be rendered with an approach to promptitude, and the chances are greatly in favor of the escape of the criminal. Human nature is neither better nor worse at the North than at the South, but the South has unfortunately a much larger proportion of ignorant and brutal population. It is scarcely more than a truism to say that the average negro is far less capable of civilization than the average white man. The South therefore cannot indulge the hope of escaping the many provocations which have brought upon its people the disgrace of frequent lynching. By all means let every obstacle be opposed to lynch-law in all sections of the nation, and let the county where the lynching occurs be made pecuniarily responsible, as has been wisely recommended recently by the Governor of Virginia. But much more important is it that the right of appeal should be curtailed. Curtailment does not mean abolition; it means that the opportunity for appeal shall be granted only when phenomenal ignorance on the part of the judge, or flagrant dishonesty on the part of a jury, can be promptly and overwhelmingly proved. Let the Governor of each State be freed from the necessity of entertaining pleas for executive clemency, and let the interval between the conviction and execution of the criminal be reduced to a minimum, a few days at farthest. If such changes in court procedure were established, we should hear much less of lynching, whether at the North or at the South.

One of the most conspicuous cases of leniency, carried out to a dangerous extreme, has been dragging along for nearly eighteen months in connection with the political ruffian and murderer, Bartholomew Shea, who in March, 1894, deliberately shot down Robert Ross at the polls in Troy. The case was one of the plainest on record, but, by the use of the right of appeal, the murderer still lives, though more than a year has elapsed since the date first assigned for his execution. He has been backed by a political machine, and, since the renewal of the sentence of death, the most shameless use of threats and intimidation has been applied to compel signatures to a plea for executive clemency. Happily the Governor's chair is occupied by one who cannot be expected to grant such a plea; but, in Germany or France, Bartholomew Shea would have received his deserts before an American court was even ready to begin the investigation of his case.

W. Le Conte Stevens.

Troy, N. Y., December 6, 1895.

EDUCATION IN NORTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In justice to North Carolina, and particularly to the white population of the State, I think it right that attention be called to certain statistics bearing upon education in the State. Prominence has recently been given in certain periodicals published in the North to the defects of education in North Carolina as compared with other States. The comparison is based upon data that are far from agreeing with the report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in North Carolina.

The census of school-children for 1894 shows an enrolment of 235,486 white and 123,899 colored; the average length of school term, for white, 64 days; colored, 60 days; amount expended for education, white, $587,522; colored, $265,131; amount received for education in taxes from whites, $747,843, colored, $105,210. From this it appears that the whites of North Carolina give for the education of the colored race $159,921 over and above the amount of taxes received from that race—a rather heavy tax upon a State that is not very wealthy. There are a few schools in the State for colored people endowed by Northern friends, and these are doing a good work; but it seems never to have occurred to these philanthropists that an endowed school for white boys is as much needed in the State as for colored, if not more so. The whites of North Carolina give more than a million dollars every six or seven years for the education of the negro race. If the rich North, while expending her many millions yearly in the education of her children, would only help out this State, by refunding in endowments the amount spent by the State upon the colored race, perhaps it would not be necessary so often to call attention to educational diagrams showing North Carolina at the bottom of the scale and Rhode Island at the top.

Junius M. Horner.

[At the North, too, the well-to-do classes are disproportionately taxed for the schooling of the poorer, but this is not regarded as anything extraordinary or particularly meritorious, since the welfare of all classes is seen to depend upon the widest diffusion of education. We apprehend that the philanthropists referred to would be inclined to think the overcharge to the whites in North Carolina, as in the South generally, a very moderate "refunding" to the blacks of what slavery robbed them of in property and intelligence.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Mr. Edward Roth, 1135 Pine St., Philadelphia, announces that his 'Complete Index to Littell's Living Age' down to 1895 will be resumed in February, 1896, with the first part of vol. ii., which may be wholly issued in the course of the year if the requisite support is given to his enterprise.

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, will publish this month 'Karma,' a tale by Dr. Paul Carus, illustrated by Japanese artists and printed on Japanese crêpe paper; and 'Lovers Three Thousand Years Ago,' as indicated by the Song of Solomon, by the Rev. T. A. Goodwin, D.D.

A sumptuous limited edition of Edmund

Spenser's 'Epithalamion' has been undertaken by Dodd, Mead & Co., with the aid of George Wharton Edwards, who frames each stanza in an ornamental border and gives it a full-page design. In hand, also, is 'Rip Van Winkle as Played by Joseph Jefferson,' now for the first time published, with illustrations, in three editions, of which two will be limited, and one signed in each copy by Mr. Jefferson.

The late "Felix Oldboy's" 'Walks in Our Churchyards: Old New York—Trinity Parish,' recovered from the *Trinity Record*, is about to be issued as a book by George Gottsberger Peck, 11 Murray Street.

'Movement,' by that great student of motion Prof. E. J. Marey, is in the press of D. Appleton & Co. It will contain more than 200 illustrations.

Macmillan & Co. will publish for the American Economic Association 'Letters of Ricardo to McCulloch,' edited by their discoverer, Dr. J. H. Hollander of Johns Hopkins University, and 'Race Traits and Tendencies of the American Negro,' by F. L. Hoffman; also, 'A Breath from the Veldt,' by John Guille Millais, F.Z.S., an illustrated volume supplementary to the same author's 'Game Birds and Shooting Sketches.'

The Burrows Brothers Co., Cleveland, have nearly ready 'Fringilla,' a first volume of poems by Richard Doddridge Blackmore, author of 'Lorna Doone,' with decorative and other designs in the mode of the hour by Will H. Bradley.

The Roycroft Printing Shop, East Aurora, N. Y., is about to issue for the holidays 'The Song of Songs,' a reprint of the text of Solomon with a study by Elbert Hubbard. The type was expressly cut after one of the earliest Roman faces; the initials will be rubricated, and the book handprinted on Ruisdael handmade paper.

The turning out of reprints and brand-new editions continues without abatement. As we anticipated, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have followed up their modified reissue of Mrs. Jameson's 'Sacred and Legendary Art' with her 'Legends of the Madonna,' 'Legends of the Monastic Orders,' and 'Memoirs of the Italian Painters,' each in one volume, the last-named being in part rewritten by the editor, Estelle M. Hurll, and the illustrations wholly new. We need not repeat our commendation of this laborious enterprise. The same firm have just added Holmes's Poems to the one-volume Cambridge Edition in which Longfellow, Whittier, and Browning already figure, for the benefit of prudent buyers and hasty consulters. It is handsome without and within, and offered at a low price. They have given a new dress of much elegance to the late Mrs. Jane G. Austin's 'Standish of Standish,' in two volumes, with etched illustrations, worthy of praise, by Frank T. Merrill. Finally, we may mention a plain and unpretentious edition of Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' copiously annotated by Dr. W. J. Rolfe for their "Students' Series of Standard English Poems for Schools and Colleges."

Tennyson is also being published piecemeal, but in a dainty manner and without note or comment, by Macmillan & Co.: the 'Juvenilia' and 'The Lady of Shalott, and Other Poems' have reached us. The pocket edition of Charles Kingsley's novels proceeds with 'Hereward the Wake,' and is still marked by great compression and small type and thin (though not too thin) paper. Maria Edgeworth's 'Popular Tales' and Jane Austen's 'Pride and Prejudice' swell that unnamed series in which forgotten and unforgotten classics are given fresh currency, and which in its manufacture has all the good qualities that one calls for in a popular edition. We mount several stages higher in Miss Mitford's 'Country Stories,' agreeably if not powerfully illustrated by George Morrow, and fashioned in letter-press and binding after 'Cranford' and the other classics which Hugh Thomson has embellished. Even more attractive typographically, and particularly well bound, is Hamerton's 'Imagination in Landscape Painting,' with twenty-four full-page illustrations. Of the several Macmillan serials we have from time to time noticed, the Dickens arrives at 'Our Mutual Friend,' from the author's corrected edition of 1869, with Marcus Stone's illustrations, and a briefer introduction than usual by the younger Dickens; the Balzac, edited by Prof. Saintsbury, arrives at 'Eugénie Grandet'; Mr. Aitken's Defoe adds 'A New Voyage round the World,' and, in two volumes, 'The Fortunate Mistress (Roxana).' The Balzac and Defoe are among the most charming of J. M. Dent's tasteful productions.

Charles Scribner's Sons have brought out in a uniform neat style the companion compilations, by L. B. Seeley, known as 'Horace Walpole and his World' and 'Fanny Burney and her Friends,' each with its portrait; and, following up the 'Munchausen' of a year ago, have printed in large type in one volume 'Sindbad and Ali Baba,' with illustrations by William Strang and J. B. Clark. The designs would not of themselves warrant a reprinting of Lane's translation in the one case and Scott's in the other, but they have at least an individual character. The Cairo text of the seventh voyage of Sindbad is given in an appendix, and this variant enhances the value of an edition that will be welcome to young eyes or old.

Besides a new "Students'" edition of Irving's 'Sketch Book,' with notes explanatory and critical by William Lyon Phelps, G. P. Putnam's Sons continue their "Fly-Leaves Series" (the name derives from Calverley) with Thackeray's 'Novels by Eminent Hands,' and, as a proper fellow to it, Bayard Taylor's 'Echo Club,' with a prologue by Richard Henry Stoddard. Taylor's talent for parody was exceptional, and it is well to have it recalled. Mr. Stoddard tells the story of his early acquaintance with Taylor, and of their poetic communings, aspirations, and friendly rivalries. These are pretty books, but all may not like the feel of the covers.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, have joined their imprint to that of Methuen & Co. in the beautiful London-made edition of Southey's 'English Seamen,' or the Lives of Howard, Clifford, Hawkins, Drake, and Cavendish, those bold sea-rovers. Southey's prose, stirring adventure, and fine book-making form a combination hard to resist.

Tammany's overthrow a year ago is the excuse for a new edition of Mr. Roosevelt's 'New York' in the "Historic Towns" series of the Messrs. Longman. The author tells briefly the story of the late revolt against Tammany, with what we must characterize as only half-candor regarding Republican responsibility for Tammany, but paying a deserved tribute to Dr. Parkhurst's initiative in bringing about the measure of victory achieved and already partly undone.

Dodd, Mead & Co. publish in handy form 'Abraham Lincoln's Speeches,' a selection made by L. E. Chittenden, ex-Register of the Treasury, with excellent judgment. It will serve as a vade-mecum in reading the history of the rebellion and of the antecedent period of preparation and agitation. The frontispiece portrait is reduced from F. B. Carpenter's well-known engraving.

"Thirty-first edition, revised and enlarged," is written on the title-page of Henry T. Coates's 'Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates), yet the earliest copyright dates back only to 1878. Comparison with the twenty-seventh edition of 1888 shows changes which were certainly worth while, as they take in Coleridge's "Dejection" and "Æolian Harp," Wordsworth's sonnet, "Sleep," and "Solitary Reaper," and Matthew Arnold's "Forsaken Mermaid," to mention only a part of the best. Changes are noticeable also in the illustrations; but no one will turn to this anthology for them.

Mr. Henry R. Blaney, an antiquarian who also handles the etcher's needle, shares with the public his etchings of 'Old Boston' (Lee & Shepard). They are reproduced, often on a diminished scale, by "process," which naturally does not improve them, but in the main they are vivid memorials of streets and buildings of many degrees of antiquity and curiosity. They are best justified when they are based on sketches by the author, and least when they attempt to translate prints (like Paul Revere's plate of Boston in 1768) so much better reproducible in facsimile. The few photographs intercalated with the etchings prove their superiority as historical documents when available. Mr. Blaney furnishes some account of each subject, with more or less particularity as to dates and authorities.

The art of etching seems to be wonderfully provocative of humbug. A few lines which, were they drawn on paper with pencil or pen, would escape comment, become invested with a wonderful interest when they are scratched on copper. Time was when Mr. Hamerton had to complain that the public knew nothing of etching; but that time is long past, and to-day an artist who fails as painter and draughtsman has but to publish his feebleness in several "states" to become a considerable personage. Something of this tendency to overrate the etcher is discoverable in Mr. Frederick Wedmore's 'Etching in England' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), and the fifty process plates he gives us include reproductions of a good many things that are important only because they are etched. Of course this is by no means true of all of them, and, beside the work of recognized masters like Whistler and Haden, we have that of more than one true artist. Most interesting of all, perhaps, is the exquisite drypoint "Étude de Jeune Fille" by M. Paul Helleu, a gentleman whose work can only by a stretch of courtesy be included in a book on English etching, but an artist we are delighted to be made better acquainted with. Mr. Wedmore's writing has a ponderous slightness and a solemnity of disguised commonplace which go far to explain Mr. Whistler's mischievous baiting of one who is nevertheless a great admirer of that sprightly artist.

Mr. Pennell will not add to his reputation as a writer on art by his latest book on 'Modern Illustration' in the Ex-Libris Series (George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). It is formless and inconclusive, and is marked by faults of style and taste, not to say of temper. An instance in point is the following: "I have done what I could to make a start; I only hope some one will carry it on; certainly I am sure some of my sincere flatterers will imitate me, as they always do." An invitation to carry on the work, coupled with the assurance that whoever does so will be called an imitator, can hardly be termed

cordial. The book is disappointing even in the matter of the selection of characteristic illustrations and their reproduction, in which matter we might expect to find Mr. Pennell at his best. We hope some one may take him at his word, and risk his displeasure by producing a better book on the subject.

Henri Beyle's 'Chartreuse de Parme' has just been made accessible to those who cannot read French, in an excellent translation in three volumes by E. P. Robins (New York: George H. Richmond & Co.). The publishers have accompanied the beautifully printed text with thirty-five illustrations by V. Foulquier, etched by G. Mercier. Of the tale itself, which is concerned with the intriguing life of a petty Italian court during the days that succeeded the overthrow of Napoleon, nothing need be said here. There are some who consider the 'Chartreuse de Parme' the greatest romance ever written in the French language, but they will always form a minority. Philistines—and admirers of Beyle are particularly apt to dub those who do not agree with them Philistines—may be referred, perhaps with some chance of converting them, to the passage in which Fabrice's experiences of the battle of Waterloo are described, and which deserves to be compared with the better known chapters in Thackeray's 'Vanity Fair' and in Victor Hugo's 'Les Misérables,' dealing with the same famous battle from a not altogether dissimilar point of view.

'Old World Japan: Legends of the Land of the Gods,' by Frank Rinder (London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan), contains twenty stories from the wonder-lore of the people of that country. The illustrations, which are by far the best part of the handsome book, are by T. H. Robinson. This artist has excellently preserved the essential features of the Far-Oriental legends, while yet blending the methods of both Japanese and European art. The stories are too short to contain the important elements of the Japanese originals, and some of the author's foreign additions mar their beauty and simplicity. In the descent of Izanagi into the "shadowy kingdom," for example, we read in these English pages that "Sounds as of lost souls struck his ear," etc.—all of which is decidedly un-Japanese. Only here and there can it be said that Mr. Rinder has improved upon the versions of Mitford, Chamberlain, Hearn, and Brauns. He says in his preface: "The sources from which I have drawn are too numerous to particularize." This, however, does not excuse the transfer out of Griffis's 'Japanese Fairy World' of two whole stories, and numerous hints and suggestions in other 'Old World Japan' legends. "Rai-Taro, the Sun of the Thunder-God" and "Princess Fire-Fly" not only were first printed in 'Japanese Fairy World,' but exist in no Japanese text, having been spun out of the author's own brain. Possibly "The Star Lovers" and "The Moon Maiden" in this volume might have been cast in their present form without consulting Mr. Griffis's book, but it is not at all likely. Yet there is no hint in the volume as to Mr. Rinder's indebtedness to the American author.

In 'Modern Battles of Trenton,' a history of New Jersey's politics and legislation from the year 1868 to the year 1894 (Trenton: J. L. Murphy), Mr. William Edgar Sackett conveys, in a sketchy and press-gallery style, a great deal of valuable political information. To no more compact and trustworthy source should we be able to send any one ignorant of the vital part played in New Jersey politics by railroad and water-front legislation, or of the way rival "rings" in either party have successively risen and fallen. Mr. Sackett's records of legislative votes, senatorial contests, and nominating conventions make his book of especial value for office reference.

Harper's Round Table (of the title-page, *Harper's Young People* of the running-title) for 1895 opens with a serial story, "Afloat with the Flag," and there is no lack of militarism between the two covers. Not only are such eminent Jingoists as Messrs. Lodge and Roosevelt among the contributors—the latter supplying a number of battle sketches—but a boys' company of Knickerbocker Grays is pictured, and the lady who furnishes the text prefixes the Jingo motto, "In time of peace, prepare for war." The climax is reached in a fictitious account of the bombardment of the Golden Gate—unless we find it in a portrait gallery of the officers of the infant National Society of Children of the American Revolution! The semi adult audience chiefly addressed is, however, treated to serious articles by Professors Shaler and Davis on the earth, moon, and stars, by Mr. Gibson on mushrooms, by Mr. Maxim on his flying-machine, etc., etc. A weekly bicycle route in the vicinity of New York has been a useful feature of the volume. Some colored cuts in the text are noticeable, and, as usual, Mr. Peter Newell's drollery of the pencil surpasses all.

No authentic portrait of Joan of Arc has up to the present time been known in France, all the representations of her being of a much later date than the epoch at which she lived. But the *Débats* of November 22 calls attention to the statement of a German pastor, Herr Gatrio, to the effect that there exist in Alsace two miniatures which reproduce the features of Joan, and which are very probably the work of a contemporary artist. The first represents the Pucelle in armor going into battle. She has helmet and cuirass on, and carries a banner on which is represented God the Father holding in his hand the terrestrial globe. The second miniature represents the same figure, save that Joan wears no helmet: her long locks float freely over her shoulders, and her head is encircled by the aureole of a saint. These miniatures are found in the collection of M. Georges Spetz at Isenheim.

In the last fascicule of the *Congo Belge*, M. A. J. Wauters tells the story of the singular discovery of a Flemish picture in the heart of Africa. It is a little panel, about eleven by thirteen inches in size, representing Christ, dressed in a red robe, in the act of giving a benediction. The figure shows against a green background. It appears that this picture was found in the palace of King Theodore at Magdala at the time when the English expedition to Abyssinia captured that town—that is, on April 13, 1868. One naturally wonders what curious chance should have carried a Flemish religious picture, dating from the first years of the sixteenth century, into the wild country around the sources of the Blue Nile. M. Wauters, in explanation, recalls the fact that the first embassy sent by the King of Portugal to the Christian ruler of Abyssinia was in the year 1520. It seems not unlikely that this object of devotion was among the presents then sent from Europe. M. Wauters suggests that it was meant for an altar picture. At first thought it seems, at least according to Western notions, somewhat small for this use, but it is of about the same size as the icons which are offered for the veneration of the faithful at the time of Mass in some of the Oriental churches.

Messrs. Alinari Bros. of Florence have completed their labors at Venice by the publication of their photographs of the mosaics in St. Mark's and the pictures in the Layard Collection. The mosaics should have special interest for Americans at present. The rage for elaborate and expensive decoration seems to have set in strong, and buildings almost beyond reproach architecturally are in danger of being spoiled artistically by paintings that may be pictures, but are not certainly fine decorations. Let our architects and library committees procure complete sets of photographs after the mosaics at St. Mark's, and note how they lose in value as decoration in proportion as they gain in pictorial skill. The earliest emaciated Byzantine figures, which, from the point of view of painting, have no existence to speak of, are essentially decorative, because they enhance the functions of the structure by calling our attention to the vital elements of the building. As the mosaics become more and more elaborate, gaining in arrangement, in spacing, in everything that would make them fine pictures, they become gross impertinences in the interior of the church; having, in fact, no closer connection with the building they disfigure than stick-fast can supply. The *facilis descensus* begins with the mosaics for which the elder Michele Giambono gave the cartoons.

L. Prang & Co., Boston, send us a great variety of calendars for the year 1896 in their excellent style of color printing, some in sheets knotted together with silk ribbon, some on single or folded cards. Christmas cards accompany these, and more ribboned booklets—of verse ornamented with violets or sweet peas, and "Six British Authors," all poets, showing on one sheet the man, a selection from his verse, and perhaps his home.

—In the December *Harper's*, Mr. Howells, in his farce, "A Previous Engagement," again employs is familiar method of occasionally opening up to the reader, through the bewilderingly intricate mazes of his dialogue, clear perceptions of the true values of his characters, imitating thus the actual trick of life, which can safely be depended on to now and then expose meanings that words have cleverly served the purpose of concealing. Richard Harding Davis and Caspar W. Whitney each supply, in a different way, an element of the healthy sensationalism that is founded on reality; the former by making known with an enthusiasm that is contagious the generally unsuspected attractions, natural and civil, of Carácas as a fresh place of resort for the unresting tourist; the latter in the spirit of adventure that animates this first part of "On Snow-Shoes to the Barren Grounds," a region which, though not to be recommended to the tourist at large, promises to yield a narrative full of excitement and novelty. Parallel to this last article in agreeable directness of narration is the one entitled "Wild Beasts as They Live," which, in *Scribner's*, also goes to correct the impression that nerve is not a product of the century. Here the illustrations, admirably reproduced from the etchings of Evert Van Muyden, and the text, which is by Capt. C. J. Melliss of the Bombay Infantry, are each of sufficient excellence to exist independently of the other, though their combination has brought out and intensified the best qualities of both. Another article, due to the pictorial and literary collaboration of Oliver Herford and Brander Matthews, gives scant room for hope that in partnerships of this kind joint weakness can be relied on to produce strength. Mr. Matthews employs—under a new name, "The Kinetoscope of Time"—the old device

of putting into word pictures his visions, or dreams, of scenes that are among the household words of literature the world over. The experiment of superimposing the text upon full-page outline illustrations, or of interlacing the text through them, although in vogue at the moment among some French draughtsmen of originality and talent, is one that always has the primary merits of clearness and legibility in the scales against it. Here the scales incline in favor of the primitive virtues. While even Dr. Van Dyke's admirers will be inclined to deny the complete success of his experiment in *Scribner's* in the line of ghostly fiction, those whose taste leans to detective stories will find in "The River Syndicate," by Charles E. Carryl, a capital tale of Scotland Yard and its personnel.

—A Christmas air is imparted to the *Century* by accounts of last summer's Passion Play at Vorder-Thiersee in Tyrol, and of Tissot's "Life of Christ." The illustrations to the latter are profuse. The two performances, of the peasants and of the artist, who is an Oriental traveller, are at the opposite extremes of sophistication; but of neither does the account rise above the level which, though it is painstaking, editors unfortunately are confirmed in finding good enough for magazine readers. A Christmas story by Frank R. Stockton has the requisite merry note, and contains its complement of the writer's humorous inventions and oddities. Another story by Rudyard Kipling, of which part of the action takes place in dreams, will inevitably invite comparison with 'Peter Ibbetson,' after which the most favorable verdict likely to be found will be that there are here passages of Mr. Kipling's individual charm. Mr. Riis's account of the farm-school experiment in Westchester County will be of interest to all students of social problems; and a paper describing a pleasant phase of Lincoln's character, from autograph notes of his own, relating to prisoners of war, should not be overlooked. But variety of topic rather than eminence in any is the pervading characteristic of this issue of the *Century*.

—The *Atlantic* again this month seems to give a basis for the optimistic conclusion that quality and not selling power may be the reason of a magazine's existence. Between John Fiske's "Starving Time in Old Virginia," "The End of the *Terror*," by Robert Wilson, and "The Defeat of the Spanish Armada," by W. F. Tilton, there is a certain nexus in picturing to the mind the manner of men our forefathers were, and what were their prowess and endurance during the century and a half in which they respectively conquered a new soil, exterminated piracy in New World waters, and drove an invading enemy from their shores in the Old World. A full nautical vocabulary at his fingers' ends will greatly add to the reader's appreciation of both the last, but in particular of the second of these papers, which recalls the style of Stevenson when dealing with similar themes, and which aims to supply the lack of a complete and accurate picture of the battles that preceded the flight of the Armada into the North Sea. Of lighter nature is Harriet Lewis Bradley's "Dorothy." This charming little paper is neither story, essay, nor sketch of travel, but contains a mingling of the attractions of all. Both Florence and Venice contribute a share in making the delicately drawn portrait of a child a small poem in prose. "A New England Woodpile," by Rowland E. Robinson, is another paper that faithfully and pleasantly presents the poetry and sentiment of its subject.

—It is difficult to say in two words what it is that makes a book of travels "old-fashioned," with that oldness of fashion that is uninteresting; but perhaps it is not cant to suggest that it is a want of sincerity. A book—and especially a book of travels—that is not spontaneous, that is written because the author, already famous, wishes to utilize his fame, is, of necessity, a lifeless book, and consequently a dull book, and therefore a book to be suppressed, not to be translated. Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole has not passed this judgment on Victor Hugo's 'Letters to his Wife,' and he has found a publisher (Boston: Estes & Lauriat) to print his translation. A translator is at least expected not to add to the difficulties of his author, but on p. 267 there is this note of three lines which occasions three questions: "I presume Victor Hugo meant this couplet, quoted in Littré:

> 'A ces mots il saisit un vieux infortiat
> Grossi des visions d'accurse et d'alciat.'"

(1.) Why remark that this is "quoted in Littré" rather than that its source is Boileau's 'Lutrin' (chant 5)? (2.) Why not translate the unusual word "infortiat"? (3.) Why print the names of two distinguished jurists of the thirteenth and sixteenth centuries, Accurse and Alciat, without capitals?—The title of this volume is entirely misleading. Its contents are 300 octavo pages of notes of travel in the Alps in 1839, in the Pyrenees in 1843. Of these 300 pages, 70 are nominally addressed to Victor Hugo's wife, in which there are, in different passages, exactly thirty "domestic" lines which would give the reader this information from within. All the rest (even of his letters to her) is addressed to the public—and the garrulousness of the great man in his note-books is surprising! These notes are advertised as not being included in any edition of Victor Hugo's works. We are left in the dark as to what this means. Mr. Dole should have stated if the book has appeared in France, and when.

—Francesco Bertolini, professor of history in the University of Bologna, has recently printed 'Letture Popolari di Storia del Risorgimento Italiano' (Milan: Hoepli), which treats in the form of popular lectures the chief topics in the making of Italy from 1814 to 1870. He gives also some interesting details concerning minor actors in the great drama, men like Zambeccari, Masina, and the Bronzetti brothers, whom the formal historians pass over with slight notice. The most important suggestion in the book, however, refers to Cavour's famous formula, "A free Church in a free State." This has usually been interpreted to mean that all reciprocally hampering bonds between Church and State should be abolished, and that the Church should pursue its spiritual mission without interference from the State. Prof. Bertolini argues that by "free" Cavour implied that the Catholic Church itself should be reformed, that the growth of papal and dogmatic restraints which have been imposed on its adherents should be abolished, and that liberty of conscience should prevail. Our purpose in this note is neither to accept nor reject Prof. Bertolini's conclusions—for that would require a careful examination of his arguments—but to call attention to his theory as indicative of the drift of opinion among Italian Liberals to-day. Such a theory may also be regarded as an answer to the extreme Clericals, who have, on the surface at least, become more aggressive during the last few years. Their recent attempt to regain control of popular education shows, for instance, that they believe public opinion more favorable to them than it was ten years ago. In point of fact, nine-tenths of the educated opinion in Italy is uncompromisingly opposed to any reaction; and when so eminent a professor as Signor Bertolini teaches his students at Bologna, and, through the publication of his lectures, teaches a wider circle of readers, that Cavour's principle means not only that the Church should be allowed to fulfil her spiritual duties untrammelled by the State, but also that the Church should reform herself according to the model of early Christianity, we have a noteworthy example of the attitude of Liberals towards recrudescent Clericalism.

—The Western churches have found the difficulties of missionary work among Mohammedans so great and the results so excessively small that they have almost ceased to labor among them. This failure has been generally ascribed to the peculiar rigidity and strength of Moslem religious tenets and to the penalty attached to conversion in most Mohammedan countries. Recent successful work among the Mohammedan Tartars of Southeastern Russia would seem to indicate that the failure might be largely due to the inability of the Western mind to understand and influence the mind of the follower of the Prophet. The centre and starting-point of all mission work in Eastern Europe and Asiatic Russia is the University of Kazan. Connected with it is a seminary for the preparation of missionaries to the Mohammedans and of native Tartars for the priesthood, and a school in which Tartar boys and girls are educated to be teachers. The head of this school is a professor of the Tartar languages in the University, and is himself a Tartar and a convert. The extent of the work may be realized from the fact that the seminary has sent out sixty-five native priests, and all the teachers are provided for one hundred and fifty schools. In a description of a recent journey in the Province of Kazan, Mr. W. J. Birkbeck, from whose account in the *Guardian* we have taken these facts, says that in one village where, thirty years ago, there were no native Christians, he found a church with 350 members and a school with 92 pupils. In another village all but two families had become Christians. Notwithstanding this successful propagandism, the Moslems and Christians live in perfect amity; the *mir*, or village governing body, frequently containing men of both religions. It should be added that the Government has no connection with the work, which springs entirely from spontaneous individual effort, the mission being one of the results of the awakening of Russia after the Crimean war.

RECENT POETRY.

THE almost simultaneous publication of new volumes by Eric Mackay, Alfred Austin, and Sir Edwin Arnold suggests the perhaps irreverent thought that the Laureateship is still open; and that a boom, so to speak, for any of these three candidates is at any time in order. Their claims all seem so slight that the mere consideration of either would suggest one of the very best of the *Punch* pictures, that in which the Queen, being in need of a new footman, anxiously inspects the dapper little figure of Earl Russell, eager and alert, in a page's buttons, with the doubtful conclusion, "I'm

afraid you are not large enough for the place, John!" No such doubt haunts the minds of these candidates, least of all Mr. Mackay, who, in his 'A Song of the Sea, and Other Poems' (Chicago: Stone & Kimball), flings out half-a-dozen full-fledged Occasional Odes, making the most of all recent events—each ode more turgid and sonorous than the other—as a sort of foretaste of what might be expected of him. Surely it would not be easy to outstrip a candidate who could extract the picturesque on this scale from that not very eminent personage the Duke of York, on his marriage (p. 109):

"The Captain of the Comrades of the Flag,
A captain of such fame
As should be talked of on the loftiest crag
Of proud and prompt ambition, as of yore,
For there's no heart that's English to the core
But loves him well and beats for joy of him;
And youthful eyes grow dim
As men rehearse the perils he has passed,
When, out upon the tearing, shudd'ring blast,
He has fulfilled new duties, not set down,
But done for pride of Country and of Crown!"

While Mr. Mackay thus elevates into sublimity the rather commonplace function of going to sea, Sir Edwin Arnold chooses rather to bring home the fruits of many voyages, and to test the literatures of many tongues. In 'The Tenth Muse, and Other Poems' (Longmans) the tenth muse is the Press; but the rest of the volume is given mainly to translations from the Persian, the Japanese, and so on. Then he cruelly checkmates Mr. Mackay's Duke of York poem by dedicating his book to the Duchess of York, inserting eight lines written in her album, and throwing in a longer poem written "by request of H. R. H. the Princess Beatrice." But Mr. Alfred Austin, the candidate now most conspicuously before the public, has a method still different from either of these—that of striking a wholly new and most fortunate vein. Dr. Johnson said of the traveller Jonas Hanway, who had written a successful book, followed by an unsuccessful one, that he had made a reputation by travelling abroad and then lost it by travelling at home. Mr. Austin has reversed this; and, after writing eight or more volumes of poetry so mediocre that they have not attained the small honor of an American reprint, he has now achieved, in 'Veronica's Garden' (Macmillan), a prose book, only here and there interspersed with verse, and giving us the very freshness and fragrance of an old-fashioned English garden. It has, moreover, a series of illustrations so charming that they would redeem a poorer book. Decidedly we give our vote for Mr. Austin as Laureate—at least if he will pledge himself to put his prose into prose hereafter, and not to present it in the form of verse.

Mr. William B. Yeats is perhaps the most interesting figure in English contemporary poetry, as he, with his following—Lionel Johnson, Katharine Tynan Hinkson, and the like—afford, with their Celtic fantasy and purity, the best antidote to that now besmirched Oscar Wilde spirit which still asserts itself sometimes in the 'Yellow Book' and even in the "Rhymers' Club." His new volume of Poems (London: Unwin) includes most of what was contained in the volume, 'The Wanderings of Oisin,' published in 1889, and some other fragments; but the name of the wanderer is now given as Usheen. There are also included his two exquisite fairy dramas, "The Countess Cathleen" and "The Land of Heart's Desire," productions so fanciful and so plaintive that they seem to create a world of their own. Aubrey de Vere and Sir Samuel Ferguson had already opened the doors of the old Irish literature, and its charm is such that it makes the visitor to Dublin University Library look with envy on its great roomful of untranslated Erse books. The rough and grim Norse legends look almost brutal beside these flowers of fable. Mr. Yeats does not explain why he omits from this collection some of his charming verses from the 'Rhymers' Book' (second series) about those people of the air who seem to have given him the freedom of the city. To him Ireland is "a Druid land, a Druid tune," and the simplicity of its old-time peasant life, the quaint kindliness of its old priests, have an ever-new existence. Some of his very songs are half folk-songs; thus, the following (p. 267) was called originally "An Old Song Resung," and was founded on three lines sung by an old woman in Sligo. "Salley" means "willow."

DOWN BY THE SALLEY GARDENS.

Down by the salley gardens my love and I did meet;
She passed the salley gardens with little snow-white feet.
She bid me take love easy, as the leaves grow on the tree;
But I, being young and foolish, with her would not agree.

In a field by the river my love and I did stand,
And on my leaning shoulder she laid her snow-white hand.
She bid me take life easy, as the grass grows on the weirs;
But I was young and foolish, and now am full of tears.

A wholly new edition of 'Skeleton Leaves' has appeared (Longmans), with a preface from which it appears that the author's real name is not, as heretofore announced, Frank Leyton, but Hedley Peek. We have heretofore noticed this volume, and now note with a certain reverence the statement in the preface that the author has read with attention more than a hundred reviews of his book "from all parts of the English-speaking world" and has carefully weighed them all. Another reappearance is that of 'The Magic House, and Other Poems,' by Duncan C. Scott (Boston: Copeland & Day), who is on the whole the best of the new brood of Canadian poets; but it is new only in the title-page, on which the former place of publication was Ottawa. It certainly looks a little like "annexation," in literature at least, when Mr. Scott removes his publication office to Boston, and Mr. Roberts and Mr. Lampman their residence to the United States. But they have all derived a certain flavor of mountain and salt air from Blomidon and Grand Pré which they will retain, it is to be hoped, when transplanted.

The Rev. H. C. Beeching adds another to the library of Christmas selections under the name of 'Christmas Verse' (London: Methuen). To those not surfeited with Walter Crane's mannerisms, it will be a recommendation that this artist illustrates the book. Of the collection it is difficult for the critic to think quite so well as the editor does, and it would be impossible to think much better, judging by his preface. The Christmas compiler who discards "God rest ye, merry gentlemen," as inappropriate, and Domett's noble hymn, "It was the Calm and Silent Night," as forgotten (p. ix), may naturally be found complimenting Drummond of Hawthornden in the notes as being "the Lord De Tabley of the seventeenth century" (p. 171). The remark forcibly suggests that rustic critic who observed to the late Edwin P. Whipple that, as he looked at it, "Go-ethe was the N. P. Willis of Germany." It is fair to say, however, that Mr. Beeching has gleaned a few new pieces not included in the better compilation of a previous year, 'Carols and Poems,' by Mr. A. H. Bullen.

Mr. Ernest Rhys's edition of 'The Lyrical Poems of Sir Philip Sidney' (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan) is not to be compared in attractiveness or in annotation to Mr. Pollard's edition (1888) of the 'Astrophel and Stella' series of poems; and as these comprise more than half the book, the consideration is of some importance. But he adds also the scattered poems from the 'Arcadia' and others from various quarters; and this, with the compactness and cheapness of the little volume, must justify its existence. Mr. Ernest Chambers has achieved a more difficult editorial task in his admirable volume of 'English Pastorals' (Scribners), with a preface which really adds to our thought and knowledge on the subject.

It is perhaps unfortunate that in Mrs. Annie Field's new volume, 'The Singing Shepherd, and Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), she unconsciously borrowed for herself the title assumed by the young Australian poet, Miss Eleanor Montgomery. But it is the only thing about the book which is not felicitous, and it stands as the fit, crowning memorial of an eminently gracious and beneficent life. Ever since, during the civil war, she struck its poetic note more finely and sensitively than any one else in 'The Future Summer,' she has produced at intervals a series of poems more marked than those of any other American woman by evenness of texture and elevation of tone. Mrs. Moulton alone equals her in habitual execution, but is shallower in thought and emotion; Helen Jackson and Emily Dickinson are beyond her in passion and originality, but the former of these was often uneven in execution, and the latter had no conception of any such quality as evenness. In this little volume alone we have page after page of calm thought, always fitly clothed, and almost never disappointing. Few women in America have been brought personally in contact with so many fine minds—through her life-long hospitality to the cultivated men and women of two hemispheres—and yet there is no trace here of the undue influence of any one of these; the personal note being just the same as it was thirty years ago, only attuned to a finer expression as the years go on. We take one extract to show the fearless elevation of her thought (p. 60):

ON WAKING FROM A DREAMLESS SLEEP.

I waked: the sun was in the sky,
The face of heaven was fair;
The silence all about me lay
Of morning in the air.

I said, Where hast thou been, my soul,
Since the moon set in the west?
I know not where thy feet have trod,
Nor what has been thy quest.

Where wast thou when Orion past
Below the dark blue sea?
His glittering, silent stars are gone,
Didst follow them for me?

Where wast thou in that awful hour
When first the night wind heard
The faint breath of the coming dawn
And fled before the word?

Where hast thou been, my spirit,
Since the long wave on the shore
Tenderly rocked my sense asleep
And I heard thee no more?

My limbs like breathing marble
Have lain in the warm down;
No heavenly chant, no earthly care
Have stirred a smile or frown.

I wake: thy kiss is on my lips:
Thou art my day, my sun!
But where, O spirit, where wast thou
While the sands of night have run?

Miss Gertrude Hall's translation of 'Poems of Paul Verlaine' (Chicago: Stone & Kimball, "Green Tree Library") is an unusually good piece of work. Verlaine is the most conspicuous figure among the later French poets, and though his personal traits are not in all respects pleasing, he has brought a new element of melody into French verse as distinctly as Swinburne did into English. Both of them may "trench more than needs on the nauseous," in Browning's phrase; but their contributions, apart from that, are not to be ignored. Verlaine's feeling for nature is far be-

yond the customary conventionalism of French verse; and though his sentiment is usually sentimentality, and of that short-lived quality which recalls the *mot* current, even in Diderot's day, that the Methusaleh among Paris love-affairs died at six days old, yet Miss Hall has bravely ignored this, and even the sentiment seems almost genuine in her hands. She has not yet mastered the art, which almost died with Longfellow, of making a version literal and graceful at the same time. For instance, in the "Colloque Sentimental" she says (p. 13):

"In the deserted park, silent and vast,
Erewhile two shadowy glimmering figures passed.
Their lips were colorless, and dead their eyes;
Their words were scarce more audible than sighs."

But see how much simpler and brighter are the successive touches in the original:

"Dans le vieux parc solitaire, glacé,
Deux formes ont tout à l'heure passé.
Leurs yeux sont morts et leurs lèvres sont molles,
Et l'on entend à peine leurs paroles."

Not that the translation, for a rhymed one, is not passable, but how many phrases and images enter into it, beyond the Dantesque directness of the original! Most of the poems translated by Miss Hall may be found in Carrière's 'Choix de Poésies' of this author; while even that contains some which she has discreetly avoided, and which might well, combined with his sentimentality, have led to the application to Verlaine of the phrase given in his day to Rétif de la Bretonne—*le Rousseau du ruisseau*. It was all the more needful to rescue the best of this soiled man of genius from his worst, and Miss Hall has done it with rare grace and expression.

It seems quite superfluous to complain of the decline of this nation—or even of the city of Boston—in poetry, when Boston still holds a poet who, like Aldrich, has only to stretch his fingers carelessly through his volumes already printed and bring forth a cluster of pearls like his 'Later Lyrics' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Who else is there living—and how many dead—who has attained such perfection, not in *vers de société* alone, but in fine and terse utterance? No single poem here can claim to equal Aldrich's noble "Fredericksburg" sonnet, but this comes very near it—the tragedy, not of a nation, but of a soul (p. 68):

ANDROMEDA.

The smooth-worn coin and threadbare classic phrase
Of Grecian myths that did beguile my youth,
Beguile me not as in the olden days:
I think more grief and beauty dwell with truth.
Andromeda, in fetters by the sea,
Star-pale with anguish till young Perseus came,
Less moves me with her suffering than she,
The slim girl figure fettered to dark shames
That nightly haunts the park there, like a shade,
Trailing her wretchedness from street to street.
See where she passes—neither wife nor maid.
How all mere fiction crumbles at her feet!
Here is woe's self, and not the mask of woe;
A legend's shadow shall not move you so!

This seems to us incomparably finer and more powerful, we must own, than the cruder tragedies of Mr. Howells's poems, which have not equally passed through the alembic of the muse, and hence seem not merely more distasteful but less effective. It is hard to say what inherited quality, or what doom of early theology, was upon him when he wrote the series of painful pictures which fill the misnamed pages of 'Stops of Various Quills' (Harpers)—misnamed, because they offer only a monotone of sadness. Rejoicing in the enlarged human interest which has done so much for his fiction, we can only mark with pain the morbidness which the same influence seems to have laid upon his verse. Men of all ways of thinking in this age are generally agreeing that all is not dark, that there is light somewhere; but in Mr. Howells's poetic pages there is none—neither the hope of religion nor the cheerfulness of agnosticism lights them up. Even the genial Mr. Pyle, in his illustrations, lavishes "Melancholia" or "Janua Mortis" on page after page, and sometimes makes even his skeletons grotesque, as where (over poem xv.) one is running and fiddling in pursuit of a plump little boy who is running away and visibly roaring. This occasionally ludicrous effect is the only relief from the more than sombreness of the book, which may easily cast a shadow over the whole lives of many impressible young people who happen to receive it for a Christmas present.

When a man who has been modestly writing patriotic and domestic verses all his life abstains until he is nearly eighty from publishing a volume, he is to be praised at least for the abstinence and congratulated on his life's fulfilment. Mr. Henry Stevenson Washburn's 'The Vacant Chair, and Other Poems' (Silver, Burdett & Co) contains at least one piece, the title poem, which had a wider circulation during the war than its purely poetic merits would justify. In this he was only linked with another author of much wider fame, the Rev. S. F. Smith, D.D., whose thick volume of quite mediocre poetry, 'Poems of Home and Country and Sacred and Miscellaneous Verse' (Silver, Burdett & Co) makes the reader wonder more than ever how fame is won. The immense popularity of "My Country, 'tis of Thee" was grudged by no one to the kindly author who lived long enough to reap his reward of fame almost in one harvesting; yet it is impossible to find the secret of its success in the poem itself. But, as the French saying is, it is not enough to be a great man; one must come *à propos*. Dr. Smith's brief fragment of autobiography and General Carrington's sketch of him are of real value, as showing a simple, wholesome, and stainless life prolonged in years and reaching its fit climax at last. It is pleasant, in our complex and changing civilization, to think that such lives can yet be lived.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, who has made himself known in various ways as translator and editor, now issues a small volume of various poems under the name of 'The Hawthorn Tree' (Crowell). Without marked or varied originality, they have an agreeable flavor of cultivation, and the very titles and mottoes are suggestive of choice lore. From his favorite Russian literature he draws this pretty fancy (p. 109):

"O'er the yellow crocus on the lawn
Floats a light white butterfly.
Breezes waft it! See, 'tis gone!
Dushka, little soul, when didst thou die?"

'Poets' Dogs,' collected and arranged by Elizabeth Richardson (Putnams), is a delightfully miscellaneous compilation of poetry about dogs, ranging from Homer and Virgil to Gilder's fine poem of 'Leo.' The plan is well executed, and is so good in itself that one wonders why it never was tried before—if it never has been. 'In Camphor' (Putnams) would be stronger if concentrated into one or two poems. A monotone of grief, however simple and tender, forfeits its effect upon the mind.

Mr. Alfred C. Eastman issues a collection, 'Poems of the Fair' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), whose conception is excellent and its selection good; and while the illustrations (his own) are of a somewhat rough and-ready description, the showy book may well lie on many a farmhouse table and give pleasure. Mr. James Jeffrey Roche, who has succeeded not merely to the editorship left vacant by Boyle O'Reilly, but to his remarkable gift of writing true American lays with an Irish quill, gives us some ringing and graphic 'Ballads of Blue Water' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.).

Miss Ina Coolbrith, in her 'Songs from the Golden Gate' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), will retain her old readers from the *Overland Monthly* and many who have since known her well-modulated and sometimes unusual and suggestive verse; and Grace Denio Litchfield also issues a volume, 'Mimosa Leaves,' gracefully illustrated by Helen and Margaret Armstrong (Putnams).

Mrs. Elizabeth Stoddard, who is not merely a poet's wife, but in her own right a poet, issues her scattered Poems in a volume (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) full of strong conception and vigorous expression, as are her novels, and, like them, sometimes over-condensed and almost always sombre. No one of these poems, perhaps, surpasses in execution her "Mercedes" (p. 90), which appeared many years ago in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

MERCEDES.

Under a sultry, yellow sky,
On the yellow sand I lie;
The crinkled vapors smite my brain,
I smoulder in a fiery pain.

Above the crags the condor flies,
He knows where the red gold lies;
He knows where the diamonds shine.
If I knew, would she be mine?

Mercedes in her hammock swings;
In her court a palm-tree flings
Its slender shadow on the ground.
The fountain falls with silver sound.

Her lips are like this cactus cup;
With my hand I crush it up,
I tear its flaming leaves apart;
Would that I could tear her heart!

Last night a man was at her gate,
In the hedge I lay in wait:
I saw Mercedes meet him there,
By the fireflies in her hair.

I waited till the break of day;
Then I rose and stole away,
But left my dagger in the gate,
Now she knows her lover's fate!

AN ESSAY ON TRUSTS.

Trusts; or, Industrial Combinations and Coalitions in the United States. By Ernst von Halle. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE author of this hand-book was requested in 1893, by the Verein für Social-Politik, to make a report on industrial combinations in the United States, and the present volume is one of the results of his report. One is not a mere translation of the other; a great deal of the report has been omitted, and much has been rewritten and rearranged. The appendices contain a collection of valuable legal documents. It should be said that the author was in Chicago in 1893, and his essay shows not only a careful study of the subject, but a very considerable familiarity with the law and institutions, as well as the habits and manners of this country. It should be said, also, that the Verein für Social-Politik is, as its name implies, an organization formed for the purpose of investigating economic and legal questions as they concern society rather than the individual; the author evidently being one of that large number of people who have been infected with the idea that the old "individualistic" political economy is a thing of the past, and that we stand upon the threshold of a new era, in which we are to have a brand-new science, based on a broad view of what society at large wants, fears, and hopes. Whether Herr von Halle is still steadfast in the faith, however, we have grave doubts.

His report, carefully examined, amounts to this: That whatever Trusts may be, or whatever the future of Trusts may have in store for us, thus far they have not produced, nor have

they shown themselves capable of producing, any of the extraordinary economic effects which their enemies charged them with designing. Summed up in one word, the charge was that Trusts were designed to introduce monopolies; that is, they were to control the markets, to fix prices, and to enjoy as a result what revenues they pleased. Now, as a matter of fact, there is no evidence that they do control markets, they have not been able to regulate prices, and, so far from making what dividends they please, they seem to be able to do so no more than railroads—monsters against whom precisely the same charges were as persistently brought not so many years ago.

On the latter point the proof is overwhelming. At p. 81 is given a table showing the dividends paid by fifteen Trusts on their preferred and common stock; the organizations selected appear to be simply those best known and most assailed on account of their monopolistic tendencies. It may be assumed, therefore, that, to use the language of the late Mr. Gould, they did not go into business for "missionary" purposes, but are just as greedy and eager for dividends as any other corporations in this wicked, weary world. Strange to say, they seem to have had great difficulty in earning money. In these industrial organizations there are usually two classes of stock, common and preferred, besides some bonded indebtedness. As the money which must be provided for interest on the bonds, and to a certain extent the preferred stock, constitute a first charge, in order to get at the actual power to earn profits, whether legitimately, or by fixing prices, or controlling markets, or "squeezing" the public in any other way, we must look at the common stock. If common report, or Herr von Halle, is to be relied upon, the anticipations of those in control of these organizations must have been of wealth beyond the dreams of avarice. To the mind of Col. Mulberry Sellers, when he reflected that there are just twice as many eyes in the world as there are people in it, what a fortune there was in store for any one who controlled the patent for his invaluable eye-cure! How much more, then, for him who controls any one of the articles of prime necessity—sugar, cotton, leather, etc. If the astute men of business who organized the great Trusts believed, not a half but a hundredth part of what they were told about their own powers, they showed the most commendable moderation in over-capitalizing the stock of these fifteen concerns, as we are assured they did (p. 80), by from 200 to 500 per cent.

It was a brilliant dream, but the awakening has certainly been rude. Of the fifteen Trusts given, the first has paid no dividends whatever on its common stock; the second none since June, 1893; the fifth none; the seventh none since January, 1893; the ninth none since 1891; the tenth none since March, 1891; the eleventh none since April, 1893; the twelfth none since June, 1893; the thirteenth none since January, 1893; the fourteenth and fifteenth none whatever. Of the remainder, one has paid 2 per cent., one 10, and one 12. One (the Sugar Trust) has paid more, and we all know how. Now for monsters and octopi and Briareuses, it must be said that this is a pretty poor showing. It may, and very likely will, be said, that the explanation is that the officers have stolen all the money. But besides there being no proof of this (except in one or two cases where the extent of the dishonesty is pretty well known), it would prove altogether too much, for capital would no longer seek employment under such conditions. What the table really shows, and what the author himself seems to perceive, is, that the Trusts do not differ from corporations and other aggregations of capital, except in the fact that they are called by a different name; they neither fix prices, nor control markets, nor make what money they please, no matter how much they "overcapitalize" themselves; and, after a panic, they suffer in the same way that all other concerns do.

Most people, from hearing Trusts spoken of as gigantic combinations of capital, which, through their control of the markets of the world, threaten to swallow up everything else, have been led to think of them as overtopping all other corporations. In fact, they do not compare in importance with railroads. The bonded indebtedness of the fifteen concerns referred to above amounts (in round numbers) to $65,000,000, with common and preferred stock in proportion. Any one of a dozen "trunk lines" owes more. To compare such a corporation as the Pennsylvania Railroad or the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy with the notorious Distilling and Cattle Feeding Co., with its beggarly $11,500,000 of debt and $35,000,000 of stock (we take the figures from the table), is to compare a giant with a pigmy. It is hardly necessary to say that, for the control of markets, a railroad has a power compared with which that of a Trust is mere impotence. It is between all "non-competing points" apparently complete master of the field. And yet railroad rates continually go down.

So do all prices. Herr von Halle has no proof to offer that the creation of Trusts has had any appreciable effect in putting prices up or keeping them up; but so far as he offers any evidence it is the other way. A table (p. 73) gives the price of crude and refined petroleum for twenty-four years. The price of the former has sunk with great steadiness from 9.19 in 1870 to 1.50 in 1893; of the latter from 26.35 in 1870 to 5.22 in 1893. Stranger still, a diagram of the prices of sugar for the last fourteen years shows a reasonably steady decline.

"Experience has taught, and probably will make it more and more apparent, that, in the long run, only those Trusts are successful which succeed in steadily cheapening and improving their product. Whenever they have raised prices unwisely, competition, allured by the prospect of great gains, has arisen at once to such an extent as to endanger the very existence of the undertaking. The Starch Trust has attempted for a while to keep prices unreasonably high, and, in consequence of the enormously increased competition, was at one time believed to be on the verge of ruin" (p. 70).

If it be asked why, unless to control prices, Trusts should be formed, the answer is, in order to reduce the expenses of management, and to avoid perpetual underselling for the purpose of gaining control of the market—in other words, ruinous competition. What has made them possible is the telegraph and telephone, and, so far as the consumer is concerned, they come into existence to aid in the process, so important to him, of cheapening production and steadying prices.

Of course, there is no convincing a true "anti-monopolist." But what is meant by a monopoly? A Trust certainly enjoys no legal powers that the companies of which it is composed did not enjoy before. The only difference is that it is a larger concern than any one or more of them. It has no right to prevent any competitor from entering the field and competing with it in production and sale. But this is what a true monopoly would be. The French Government has, for instance, a true monopoly of the sale of tobacco. No one can sell without its permission. When the Standard Oil Company obtains the right to prevent others from producing and selling oil, then it will be a monopoly. The notion of a Trust being a monopoly comes, in the last analysis, from the delusion that it controls prices. Of course, if it could fix a price so *low* as to crush any competitor who appeared, the result would be the same as if it had authority by law to prevent competition; and the argument apparently is that it first fixes prices as low as it pleases to crush out competition, and then as high as it pleases to make dividends. But the fact is that it does neither.

That there are great abuses connected with Trusts is not to be disputed, and of these some striking instances may be found in Herr von Halle's pages. But at the present moment the important question seems to be, as in the case of the anti-pooling railroad law, whether our anti-Trust legislation has not been wholly founded upon a delusion. Those who examine the facts and arguments presented by our author will probably conclude with him that the repeal of the present anti-Trust laws is desirable.

"Passed, as they were, merely for political purposes, even those politicians who sought by their passage to soothe popular feeling do not expect them to be complied with. And the multiplicity of laws of such a character is a great danger to the community. It explains to a large extent the astonishing immorality in politics and in the political thought of large classes. The necessity of circumventing so many laws because they prescribe things simply impossible, must in the long run undermine the sense of legality and respect for law" (p. 147).

As an instance of this sort of circumvention, the following is curious: One of the participants in a pool makes a contract with a mill in Maryland for the delivery of 300,000 tons of rails. This, however, is a mere form; it is not intended that the rails shall be delivered. The important clause in the contract is one which binds the purchaser to pay the seller (in case he does not take the rails) one dollar per ton as a penalty. No rails are made or delivered, but the purchaser refuses to receive any, pays the $300,000 penalty, and the mill goes out of business. Such, at least, is the transaction (p. 62) as we understand it.

RECENT FICTION.

The Amazing Marriage. By George Meredith. 2 vols. Scribners.

The Front Yard, and Other Italian Stories. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. Harper & Bros.

The Red Cockade: A Novel. By Stanley J. Weyman. Harper & Bros. 1895.

"STYLE," Mr. Meredith assures us, "is the mantle of greatness; and say that the greatness is beyond our reach, we may at least pray to have the mantle." But it is almost a Joseph's coat in which he has wrapped 'The Amazing Marriage.' A certain "Dame Gossip" of his has the reader's ear in the first three chapters, and a fine, loosely hung tongue she proves hers to be. Then Mr. Meredith abruptly claps an extinguisher upon her, and takes the floor in his own person, sparing of explanatory words though affluent in symbolic short cuts of speech. The obscurity and difficulty often charged upon his writing—cut down as many of his sentences are to the bareness of an algebraic formula—seem beside the mark to the present reviewer. True, you sometimes have to read a line twice to see ex-

actly what it means; but what other novelist would you read twice without feeling imposed upon—what other would you think it worth an effort to understand? Ideas make a crabbed style tolerable, and Mr. Meredith's are more numerous to the square inch than you often find in fiction. Far deadlier as a defect than his short-hand style is a certain whimsicality and grotesqueness of execution which marks and mars his latest novel. The "Dame" is for ever bursting in, and his struggles with her loquacity cease to be even amusing after a time, and from the first destroy all sense of artistic repose and finish. It is exasperating to run upon this grimacing just as some passage has almost persuaded you that Meredith was never greater.

As to the substance of his tale, he intimates at the end that his effort has been "to render events as consequent to your understanding as a piece of logic, through an exposure of character." But we are bound to agree with him in thinking this effort "vain." He elaborately provides a parentage for his Carinthia which has passion and reckless impulse for its dominant note, and then flouts heredity by making her a creature of cold tenacity and pulse never off the regular. Her brother is like unto her, and why the pleasure-loving Henrietta should have flung over the Earl of Fleetwood for his penniless self is explained only on the ground that he had a "splendid figure." Fleetwood himself seems a being made up of mutually and violently repellent qualities, though in the great crisis when he could not quite humble himself enough to win back his estranged wife, finding it easier to renounce wealth and rank and turn monk, he almost wears an air of humanity and consistency. His marriage is truly amazing, though not for the reasons intimated in the book—its suddenness and whim, that is, the grotesque circumstances of it, the wife's placid acquiescence in insult and abandonment. These things might have overcome us without our special wonder, but that a loveless union should have developed in the deserted wife an ideal worship of her husband which outlasted ill treatment of all kinds and endured every form of profligacy except tricking her brother out of a wager (this was what destroyed the last trace of wifely devotion); that Fleetwood himself should have come, too late, to love madly an unseen wife whom, seeing, he had loathed—this surely is amazing to the point of flat incredibility. Perhaps Mr. Meredith is most of all contemptuous of his reader's understanding, however, in his treatment of his young cynic and philosopher, Gower Woodseer. Brought early and ostentatiously under Carinthia's spell, only to cheat reasonable expectation, he is sent off cheerfully to marry a prize-fighter's buxom and tender-hearted leaving. He might at least have stopped making epigrams after that. Disappointed as we must feel, therefore, with 'The Amazing Marriage' as an "exposure of character," we yet cannot deny it that distinction of style, that lavishness in ideas—there are enough in these two volumes to equip a smaller novelist for life—and that constant striking at big game, which have given Mr. Meredith his place.

The volume of Italian tales by the late Miss Woolson displays her amiability and grace more abundantly than her stronger qualities. All the stories are about Americans long domiciled in Italy, pursuing art, society, and climate, and enjoying that idleness which is cheaper and less invidious in Europe than at home. They are easy-going, pleasant people, their national traits surviving exile, and their ridiculous or contemptible aspects so softened by the author's kindliness and humor that the absurd appears a little pathetic and the ignoble not altogether base. Only one incident, "Neptune's Shore," weighs heavily on the spirits. The tragic moment here comes too suddenly and harshly. It may be doubted whether the satisfactory portrayal of a man of Byronic moods came within Miss Woolson's scope; at all events, the sketch of John Ash strikes us as the least spontaneous and natural she ever made. Her competent grasp of American character and the American point of view is finely illustrated in the story of "The Front Yard." The incongruity between Prudence Wilkins of Ledham, New Hampshire, and the Guadagnis of Assisi is obviously provocative of laughter; any one might see the fun, but few are those who could observe so nicely and depict so truthfully the tearful side of Prudence's attitude towards the awful family imposed on her by marriage with the fascinating Tonio. Her lifelong toleration of the termagant grandmother, the disreputable uncle, the handsome, worthless stepchildren, and the accumulated dirt of centuries, is a touching example of Puritan principles triumphing over the world, the flesh, and a family of devils incarnate. The stories turning on social complications are more commonplace than "The Front Yard," yet in all of them we feel "the touch of a vanished hand" and hear "the sound of a voice that is still."

Every one who has read Mr. Stanley Weyman's books and followed his meteoric career as an historical novelist, must have felt morally certain that, sooner or later, he would write a novel or series of novels of which the scene would be laid in France during the period of the Revolution. Where Dumas and Dickens and scores of others have failed, Mr. Weyman has not succeeded. He has had the wisdom, indeed, in 'The Red Cockade,' to lay his scene in the French provinces during the early months of the Revolution, and not in Paris during the Reign of Terror; but this is not because he feels himself incompetent to deal with that difficult period, for he threatens, towards the end of 'The Red Cockade,' to carry the history of his characters further into the days when the guillotine bore sway. It need hardly be said that he treats the French Revolution after the usual conventional English fashion. He represents the peasants as a set of brutish and savage beasts, though it has been proved to demonstration by recent French writers that the French peasants were much better educated under the *ancien régime* than they were for the half century that succeeded the Revolution, while the haughty nobleman of fiction, striking people with his cane, defying the *canaille*, and dying at their hands, plays his usual part. As a novel, 'The Red Cockade' does not deserve criticism, but it may be worth while to point out at least one of its most glaring errors. A Protestant nobleman is introduced who declares (p. 266) that he is excluded from all office, that he cannot appear at court, and that in the eyes of the law he does not exist. Now the most cursory knowledge of French history would have shown Mr. Weyman that the French Protestants had been by no means badly treated during the reign of Louis XVI., and that full civil rights were granted to them by royal edict in 1787. But it is not so much in his actual facts as in the general tone of his novel that Mr. Weyman exhibits his ignorance of the history of the period with which he deals.

A Literary Pilgrimage among the Haunts of Famous British Authors. By Theodore F. Wolfe, M.D., Ph.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1895.

Literary Shrines: The Haunts of Some Famous Americans. By Theodore F. Wolfe, M.D., Ph.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Little Journeys to the Homes of Good Men and Great. By Elbert Hubbard. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

So far as the outward appearance of Mr. Wolfe's books is concerned, it is only their color which confesses their close relationship to the guide-book family, and this may be an accidental trait. They are as pretty specimens of book-making as one could wish to see. The method is not to take up an author and follow him topically through the successive stages of his life, but to go from place to place, and, emphasizing the associations of each in turn with the most celebrated person of its vicinity, then proceed to gather up the minor associations of the locality; consequently we find ourselves returning to one author after another time and time again. Dealing with literary celebrities, the books nevertheless fail of being literary productions. Their rhetoric inclines to that of the panoramic delineator, while the poets, and especially the poetesses, are too uniformly "sweet." But evidently the author has been a diligent traveller, and he has been to many places that are rich in literary associations. He depends, however, much more upon his reading than on his personal observation for his matter, and he interlards his sentences with a multitude of quoted words and phrases that make his style a kind of frosty stubble, possibly justified by the necessity thus laid upon us of hearing the celebrity speak for himself of his beloved haunts.

Sometimes the writer's own description, where we can check him, is infelicitous. "Sumptuous" is certainly not the right word for the home of the Sargents where the Boston Radical Club held its meetings. The geography of the coast of Massachusetts in the vicinity of Salem is not a little mixed (p. 139), and mention is made of Celia Thaxter's "gifted poet-brother" (p. 140), where the relationship was not so close. There is no attempt to make the emphasis proportionate to the celebrity of the personal subjects. No friend of Robert Collyer will object to the half-dozen pages accorded him in the Yorkshire chapter (in which Haworth's "pavement of rude stones" does not tally with our recollection of their precarious smoothness); but why should the mention of Bryant be merely casual, and, although so brief, incorrect in some particulars? The statement connecting "Thanatopsis" with Williamstown can hardly be made good, and Hampshire, not Berkshire, furnished the material of his happiest woodland inspirations. The statement about Lowell's grave is certainly open to the construction that his headstone bears the motto, "Good Night, Sweet Prince!" A few things of this sort which one stumbles on in the most casual reading, breed a fear of wider haste and carelessness; but much patient grubbing must have gone to the amassing of so many local and personal details, and the connection established between an author's work and his surroundings is often interesting.

Mr. Hubbard's 'Little Journeys' is very differently conceived from Mr. Wolfe's two volumes. Like those, it is extremely pleasant to the eye, but it touches only a dozen people of reputation where Mr. Wolfe's volumes deal with

as many score, and is much less specific in its descriptions of localities. Either Mr. Hubbard's acquaintance with them is as casual as that of the average tourist, or he is indifferent to them except as points of departure for his discursive comments. Once on the spot, he cares more for some incident, personal to himself, reflecting the provincial inappreciation of a world-wide fame, than for any physical details. Moreover, he is sparing of such facts as the encyclopædias furnish, preferring to give us something of his own. The quality of this is mixed, but, with much that is the overflow of mere animal spirits, there is much of happy characterization and genuine appreciation. The parallel between our ignorance of Shakspere and George Eliot is worse than silly, it is so recklessly untrue. And, however ignorant we may be of George Eliot's beginnings, Mr. Hubbard has done nothing to enlighten us. If anything can be gathered from his inarticulate statement, it is that she was born at Nuneaton, as she was not, and that she spent her childhood in the house where she was born, whereas in fact she left it for Griff House when she was but four months old, and at Griff House, of which Mr. Hubbard has not a word, she spent the first twenty-one years of her life.

For the sake of readers who will certainly be discouraged by the thinness of the initial sketch, it should be said that the others are much better. But Mr. Hubbard does not tell us from what private sources he got his impression of Mrs. Carlyle as a gentle, patient woman, content to be a worm beneath her husband's grinding heel. All the sources heretofore made public suggest a different opinion, and one entirely favorable to Mrs. Carlyle's ability to take care of herself in an interchange of domestic incivilities. The Ruskin paper has the advantage of reporting a visit to its hero, but at Hawarden Mr. Gladstone was not at home. All the other papers deal with people who are dead and gone, the last with Shakspere; its conclusion being a plea for a Shakspere monument in England, not for his glory, but for her honor.

This Goodly Frame, the Earth: Stray Impressions of Scenes, Incidents, and Persons in a Journey touching Japan, China, Egypt, Palestine, and Greece. By Francis Tiffany. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. Pp. 364.

THE word "touching" on Mr. Tiffany's title-page is appropriate in more than one sense. His motto, everywhere save in Japan, was "Touch and go." His days on Chinese ground were about five. He escaped the leading-strings in which personally conducted Innocents are led captive, except on the Nile, where Thomas Cook was sovereign, and yet he seldom got out of the rut worn by Cook's tourists. In fact, many of the wonders which these pilgrims often behold were beyond his tether. Such were the Inland Sea of Japan; Fateh-pur, that grander Pompeii; and all India south of Pondicherry; above all, ten days up the Yang-tse to Han-kow, and as many on horseback from Jerusalem to Damascus. When Mr. Tiffany bade adieu to Egypt he had already supped full of globe-trotting, and the hungry edge of his appetite was dulled. "Constantinople" figures as a heading in his table of contents, but he confesses that he did not go there at all. Though he did turn aside for a day at Baalbec, rain appears to have prevented his inspecting its quarry and Trilithon. To Greece, though it shows five titles in the list of topics, he said Hail!—and, in some five days, Farewell! But scarcely any world-circler has surpassed our traveller in discerning and describing the salient points in all the mighty maze through which he wandered at will. In gazing on the Taj Mahal, Sir Edwin Arnold overflowed with a no more superfusive rhapsody of words. The multitudinous flies settling undisturbed on a naked Egyptian infant he constrains to contribute to the interpretation of Egyptian character and history. In India he deduces a characteristic proof of predestination from a baby monkey clinging with all four hands to the belly of its acrobatic mother. Not a few such trifles are turned to account so cunningly that to us they are no longer trifles.

Not many pages can one read in these "Stray Impressions" before the Scriptural flavor and aroma betray a minister, and that one who understands better than most of his order, or of any order, how to use the best words of the best of books without abusing them. Ere long it is borne in upon the reader more and more that he has to do with a volume of sermons, if not in form yet in fact; and one that would have been published under that name, had not sermons, for obvious reasons, become a tainted word. Though the reader, like the present writer, live a thousand miles from Boston, he is sure that every experience of the minister abroad first turned out a song and then turned out a sermon. And he is glad of it: each exalts the other. The Scriptural illustrations and accommodations are pat and apposite. A faulty word now and then (as "*later* rain" for latter) should probably be laid to the printer's charge. This, however, is more than can be said of "vultures" for eagles (p. 317). Much less can such a defence be made—not even through appeal to the Revised Version—for the phrase, "Now lettest thou thy servant die," put into the mouth of Elijah (I. Kings xix, 4), which not only is a misquotation, but mars and even contradicts the meaning. But our preacher wrests a certain Moslem legend more than Scripture. That myth, as he gives it, holds that, "after their expulsion from the garden of Eden, Adam and Eve were penally transported to Ceylon" (p. 149). But, according to Moslem books, the orthodox view is that Adam only and alone was penally transported to Ceylon; that he built to the mainland the bridge which still bears his name, and went in search of his wife, who had been penally transported to Arabia, where she was found at the end of 200 years. (See Hughes, 'Moslem Dictionary.')

In supposing that, previous to the Cook invasion, all tourists ascended the Nile by dahabiyeh, our recent voyager is somewhat mistaken. Long before, when the Khedive bought a new steamer for the delectation of his harem, his habit was to present the old one to some minion. Such a vessel was offered to strangers for a voyage to the Cataract, and afforded the present writer, among others, nearly thirty years ago, much more comfort than he obtained in 1891 from the navy that Cook had built. At Jeypore an elephant belonging to the Maharajah was sent for Mr. Tiffany and his friend to ride up and down a mountain. This is dilated on as a mark of special favor, the crowning mercy in an *itinerarium ecstaticum*. But such elephants are as plentiful as blackberries. They are never refused to any Cook tourist. One was sent to the present writer, though he was not of that crowd. The mahout gets a rupee, his master gets glory, the elephant exercise, and the rider adds several cubits to his stature.

Modern travellers, affecting a sort of incognito, refuse to disclose the year of their peregrination. Nor is our author above this infirmity, but his chronicle at last proves a tell-tale. His adventures were after the locomotive had reached Jerusalem and before the Japanese invaded China; that is, he rounded the world during the last lustrum.

Impressions and Memories. By James Ashcroft Noble. London: Dent; New York: Putnams. 1895. 12mo, pp. 173.

MR. NOBLE, known to Americans as the author of an interesting, if not indispensable, book on the sonnet, has collected in a pretty volume various fugitive essays with a wide variety of titles. The introductory disquisition inveighs against the heresy of scientific criticism so called, and somewhat mistily extols criticism as "persuasion—the justification of impressions." So far as a solution of the familiar vexed question is concerned, the discussion does not much help us on. Mr. Noble's own Impressions, however, are distinctly readable, and are sometimes characterized by a quality which, unless too rudely examined, passes agreeably for subtlety. Thus, in fruitful vein the writer essays an elaboration of Hawthorne's paradox that a selfish person may be lovable. Later there is a suggestive scrap about the relation of music and form—with never a word, however, concerning the symbolists or the apposite speculations of various musicians. Elsewhere we have a blithe contention that the hypocrites of fiction—the Pecksniffs and Blifils—are monsters unknown in real life; that Bulstrode is your real hypocrite—a man under the sway of a double set of impulses, which by sophisms he makes to harmonize. So the author flits on from one ingenuity to another, warily avoiding all tedious stays.

Mr. Noble's applied criticism is sympathetic and careful, but it is not learned. He writes, for instance, with delicate appreciation of Holmes, and, again, he succeeds in lauding Du Maurier's pictures without reminding us of Mr. James's more pretentious tribute. But when he comes to discuss the music of prose, he makes the surprising assertion that not until recently has the doctrine gained general assent that metre is inadmissible in good prose. If we err not, that doctrine has been a commonplace of critics from Aristotle to Dryden and from Dryden to Prof. Saintsbury. Again, most appraisers of literature would shrink, we dare say, from concurring in Mr. Noble's notion that "true simplicity is a grace of instinct given in our century to but two singers—William Blake and Christina Rossetti." A rash dictum surely from any point of view, recalling Swinburne by its extravagance. There are other minor matters in which Mr. Noble's care relaxes, as when (p. 13) he gives Mr. Lang, rather than Arnold, first credit for the happy phrase, prose "of the centre."

After all, the most likable thing about these varied and versatile sketches is not the general fairness of their criticism, nor the obvious excellence of their flexible English, but a certain tone of humanity and modest manliness. A writer must possess something better than mere skill with words or mere feeling for literature if he is to rehearse with Mr. Noble's fitness the goodness of an Annie Keary—that brightest friend of children—or the spiritual tenderness of a Christina Rossetti. The author's fineness of nature is visible from the first, in the very dedication to his children—quite a flawless thing in its way.

The Journal of Countess Françoise Krasinska, great-grandmother of Victor Emmanuel. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

NOT for a long time have we seen so entertaining a book as this. It gives, with charming naïveté, a picturesque account of high life in Poland at the middle of the last century—a life still pervaded by feudal traditions and customs. Countess Krasinska's father lived in a great château where retainers of all degrees, from the sons of barons to the peasant serfs, surrounded him. Knights trooped after him when he went to visit his neighbors; the seneschal looked to the portcullis; a dwarf played the buffoon to amuse him. In brief, one sees such a social environment as belongs to one of Shakspere's comedies, only in this case the list of *dramatis personæ* is composed of real personages—Czartoryskis, Poniatowskis, Lubomirskis, and many others familiar, by name at least, to the student of Polish history. As an historical document, therefore, these journals of the precocious sixteen-year-old Countess have great value, as has, for a view of the same feudal life at the bottom of society, the autobiography of Solomon Maimon. The Countess writes with all the vivacity of a girl who does not suspect that the glamour will pass, but withal she has very keen eyes, that see just those details which posterity is most interested in and rarely finds in formal histories. *Weltschmerz* has not yet invaded the neighborhood of Fanny Krasinska. She is as innocently vain, as easily delighted by simple customs, her heart throbs as gayly when this or that nobleman condescends to speak to her, as if she were a heroine in an old romance. And then she, too, learns the human lesson of sorrow, through her secret marriage with the king's son, and his long neglect of her. As one reads, there comes the vision of her daughter, married to Charles of Savoy, dancing the *carmagnole* for the delectation of French Republican soldiers, and one reflects how soon that old feudal society was shattered for ever.

So far as we are aware, this journal has not been published in Poland, but the translation which Countess Kasimir Dziekonska has made is almost uniformly excellent. The pretty little book has illustrations—a process reproduction of Angelica Kauffmann's portrait of Françoise Krasinska, a view of the ruined castle of Maleszow, etc.—which add to its interest.

North American Shore Birds: A History of the Snipes, Sandpipers, Plovers and their Allies, etc., etc. A Reference Book for the Naturalist, Sportsman, and Lover of Birds. By Daniel Giraud Elliot. 8vo, pp. 268, with 75 plates. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1895.

MR. ELLIOT'S work is designed especially for sportsmen and bird-lovers, and is hence written in non-technical language. Scientific phraseology has, as far as possible, been carefully avoided, and the few scientific terms it has been found necessary to use are carefully explained at the outset. The birds treated in this volume all belong to the order Limicolæ, and include the phalaropes, plovers, turnstones, oystercatchers, and all the numerous species known as snipes and sandpipers. Many of them, as their ordinal name implies, are literally "dwellers in the mud," in that they frequent the beaches of the lake and sea, the banks of streams, and muddy flats; some, however, are upland birds, inhabiting dry prairies and pastures, though in general more or less partial to moist situations. The distinction between snipes and sandpipers is not easily drawn, and in popular use the terms are often rather loosely applied; nor is there in reality a very sharp boundary between the two groups. The plovers, however, form a well-marked family, differing markedly in various points of structure, and generally in style of coloration, from the great snipe-sandpiper group. While the various species of plovers are as a rule easily discriminated, the case is quite different among the snipes and sandpipers, where the expert is often at a loss to classify specimens in immature or winter plumages. Mr. Elliot's book, with its detailed, non-technical descriptions, its helpful illustrations (each species being figured), and its very carefully prepared keys and analytical tables, will be a most welcome aid to hosts of sportsmen and bird-lovers in determining and duly discriminating the many puzzling forms among the seventy-five species here treated.

For the most part the birds of this order occur merely as spring and fall migrants in the middle and lower latitudes, their breeding-grounds being the colder parts of the northern hemisphere, often within the arctic circle. Except during the short breeding season, they are great wanderers, many passing in winter far beyond the equator into the southern hemisphere. Comparatively few species breed over any considerable part of the United States. Hence it is the lot of most students of bird life to know them for only a brief season, and only as hasty migrants, journeying to and from their northern home. Mr. Elliot's condensed, well-written, and thoroughly trustworthy biographies will thus prove most welcome to students who would know something of the life histories of these interesting and in many ways peculiarly attractive birds. The author, both as an ornithologist and as a sportsman, has had unusual opportunities for acquaintance with the birds in life, and thus writes to a large extent from personal observation; yet few indeed are the observers who have penetrated to the far northern homes of these lovers of arctic breeding-grounds, so that necessarily much that is here told is borrowed from other authors. The author makes a general acknowledgment of his indebtedness in his preface, but possibly a few explicit references to his principal sources of information would be of interest to some of his more inquiring readers.

Notwithstanding the many popular bird books that have recently appeared, there was still need for such a one as Mr. Elliot has so well supplied. The seventy-five full-page plates are effective reproductions of artistic drawings made especially for the work by the well-known bird artist, Mr. Edwin Sheppard of Philadelphia. The publisher has done his share in the production of a beautiful book, which in literary execution and scientific accuracy does credit to the high reputation of its author as an ornithologist.

The Constitution of the United States at the End of the First Century. By George S. Boutwell. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1895.

MR. BOUTWELL'S purpose in this work, as he informs us in his preface, is to set forth in a concise form the substance of such of the leading decisions of the United States Supreme Court as explain or interpret the Constitution. He adds that an examination of these decisions "renders unavoidable the conclusion that the Constitution of the United States, in its principles and in its main features, is no longer the subject of controversy, of debate, or of doubt." After the extraordinary judicial proceedings connected with the recent attempt to impose an income tax, this statement is startling; but it is explained by the fact that Mr. Boutwell's preface was written in March of the present year. Yet even at that date the conclusion must be regarded as too sweeping, and a careful examination of this compilation shows that several matters of importance which are not altogether beyond controversy have been overlooked by the author. Thus, the great case of Munn vs. Illinois, which involved the right of the State legislatures to declare property to be affected with a public use, and to regulate the income derived from such property, and which has been gravely questioned in some recent opinions, is cited only as concerning the restraint of the attempts of the States to impose discriminating taxes on interstate commerce. The "Granger Cases," as they were called, also involved points that have not been considered as finally settled; but we cannot find that Mr. Boutwell has considered them at all. The subject involved—the prescription of rates of fare on railways—is not mentioned in the index under any head that we have been able to think of, nor have we had better success in searching the table of cases. Again, in the "Slaughterhouse Cases," the important points in the decisions are not suggested by the citations here, and in a number of instances we do not find the principal issue adequately set forth. In view of the Constitution now making in South Carolina, and of that in force in Mississippi, it is idle to say, so far as the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution are concerned, that there can be neither controversy nor debate nor doubt. It is quite obvious that these constitutions abridge the right to vote upon other grounds than the commission of crime; but whether the fourteenth amendment will be held by the Supreme Court to be violated or not is certainly a doubtful question, and one that is likely to arouse controversy.

When we find that but little more than 200 pages of the book are devoted to the exposition of the constitutional questions decided by the Supreme Court in the course of a century, we cease to be surprised at such deficiencies as we have noted above. The task could not be properly performed within such limits. We cheerfully recognize the industry displayed by the author in collecting and analyzing these constitutional cases, and we regard the conception of the work as a good one, but it ought to be carried out on a different scale. It is impossible to present a great constitutional question in a nutshell; there are historical and political references to be introduced which are necessary to the proper understanding of the cases, and such matter requires space for its setting forth. Mr. Boutwell's work has merit as a summary of constitutional decisions, although we cannot regard it as complete; but it does not deserve to take rank as a constitutional manual or commentary. It contains copies of the Declaration of Independence and of the Articles of Confederation, and a chapter on the Origin and Progress of Independence, which might well have given place to more relevant matter. It contains also, in addition to a table of cases and a general index, an analytical index to the Constitution which is extremely elaborate. We repeat, the plan of the work is a good one, and some additional labor on the part of the author would greatly increase its value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Daughter of the King. F. T. Neely.
Aiken, Catherine. Methods of Mind-Training. Harpers. $1.

As You Like It. American Book Co. 20c.
Austen, Jane. Pride and Prejudice. Illustrated. Macmillan. $1.25.
Austin, Maud M. 'Cension: A Sketch from Paso del Norte. Harpers. $1.
Baldwin, Mrs. Alfred. The Shadow on the Blind, and Other Ghost Stories. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Bartlett, Mrs. E. B. Pleasant Days at Maplewood. New York: John Ireland.
Belloc, B. R. In a Walled Garden. Macmillan. $1.75.
Benson, A. C. Essays Macmillan. $2.
Blatchford, Robert. Tommy Atkins of the Ramchunders. Edward Arnold. $1.25.
Blow, Susan E. The Songs and Music of Froebel's Mother Play. Appletons.
Bradford, Gamaliel, jr. Types of American Character. Macmillan. 75c.
Bradford, Rev A. H. Heredity and Christian Problems. Macmillan. $1.50.
Braeme, Charlotte M. Thorns and Orange Blossoms. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Buck, F. J. A Man of Two Minds. Merriam Co. $1.
Bülow, Marie von. Hans von Bülow: Briefe und Schriften. 2 vols. Leipzig: Breitkopf und Härtel.
Burnet, Margaretta. Zoölogy for High Schools and Academies. American Book Co. 75c.
Church, Rev A. J. Stories from English History. Part second. Macmillan. $1.
Church, Rev. R. W. Pascal, and Other Sermons. Macmillan. $1.75.
Cross, A. K. Mechanical Drawing. Color-Study. Free-Hand Drawing. 3 vols. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Dana R. H., jr Two Years Before the Mast. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60c.
D'Arcy, C. F. A Short Study of Ethics. Macmillan. $1.60.
Defoe, Daniel. A New Voyage Round the World. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Dobson, Austin. The Story of Rosina, and Other Verses. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Doyle, A. C. The Surgeon of Gaster Fell. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Evans, A. C. The Cretan Pictographs and Prae-Phoenician Script. London: Bernard Quaritch; New York: Putnams $7.
Fessenden, Laura D. Essie: A Romance in Rhyme. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. The Brown Ambassador: A Story of the Three Days' Moon Macmillan. $1 25.
Grimm, Herman. Das Leben Raphael's. Dritte Auflage. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz.
Hamerton, P. G. Imagination in Landscape Painting. New ed. Macmillan. $1.75.
Inderwick, F. A. The King's Peace: An Historical Sketch of the English Law Courts. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1 50.
Jenings, F. H. The Proverbial Philosophy of Confucius. Putnams. $1.
King, Grace. New Orleans, the Place and the People. Illustrated. Macmillan $2.50.
Knobel, Edward. The Night Moths of New England. Boston: Bradlee Whidden. 50c.
Külpe, Prof. Oswald Outlines of Psychology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2 60.
Lightfoot, Rev. J. B. Historical Essays. Macmillan. $1.50.
Maclaren, Ian. Home-Making. W. B. Ketcham. 15c.
Macmahon, Ella. A Pitiless Passion. Macmillan. $1.25.
McMillen, Liston. Alathiasis; or, Principles of Christian Hygiene. Oskaloosa, Iowa: Nicholson & Wilson.
Mitchell, J. A. Amos Judd. Scribners. 75c.
Needham, J. G. Elementary Lessons in Zoölogy. American Book Co. 90c.
Oliphant, Mrs. The Makers of Modern Rome. Illustrated. Macmillan. $3.
Page, T. E. Q Horati Flacci Opera. [Parnassus Library.] Macmillan. $2.
Raymond, Prof. G. L. Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture as Representative Arts: An Essay in Comparative Æsthetics. Putnams. $2.50.
Seeley, Sir J. R. The Growth of British Policy: An Historical Essay. 2 vols. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Society-List, 1895-6. Brentanos. $3.
Spielmann, M. H. The History of *Punch*. New York: The Cassell Publishing Co. $4.00.
"Spot." An Autobiography. Whittaker. $1.
Stables, Dr. Gordon. How Jack Mackenzie Won his Epaulettes: A Story of the Crimean War. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.25.
Stearns, F. P. The Midsummer of Italian Art. Putnams. $2.25.
St. Nicholas. 1895. 2 vols. Century Co. $4.
Stoddard, Elizabeth. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Strain, E. H. A Man's Foes. Ward, Lock & Bowden. $1 25.
Stratemeyer Edward. Oliver Bright's Search. Merriam Co. $1 25.
The Cambridge Natural History. Vol. V. Peripatus, etc. Macmillan. $4.
The *Century*. May-Oct., 1895. Century Co. $3.
Wiggin, Kate D., and Smith, Nora A. Froebel's Gifts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Williams, Prof. H. S. Geological Biology: An Introduction to the Geological History of Organisms. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50.
Winter, William. Gray Days and Gold. Macmillan. 25c.
Winterburn, Florence H. Nursery Ethics. Merriam Co. $1.
Wood-Martin, W. G. Pagan Ireland: An Archæological Sketch. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Young, C. S. All of Nature's Fashions in Lady's Slippers. Boston: Bradlee Whidden. 75c.
Zieber, Eugene. Ancestry. 2d ed. Philadelphia: Bailey, Banks & Biddle Co. 25c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 19, 1895.

The Week.

THE question which Mr. Cleveland's war-like message suggests is mainly which of the two parties is likely to get most capital during the Presidential year out of this Venezuelan dispute. That we are going, in the name of the Monroe doctrine, to assert such ownership of the American hemisphere as will enable us to trace all the boundary lines on it to our own satisfaction in defiance of the rest of the world, is a thesis which we do not believe is yet ripe for discussion. What interests us most is, how his proposal to appoint a tracing commission will strike the Republicans. Will they give Mr. Cleveland the money for its expenses, and enable him all next year to pose as the war candidate for the Presidency? Or is his proposal sufficiently near war to make it a delicate matter to reject it, in view of the Jingo vote? Will they consent to have him put his own men on the commission, and thus get weekly glory out of the whole business between now and next October? These are the most important questions now pending. Mr. Cleveland showed, in 1888, by his treatment of poor Sackville-West, that he was not incapable of using foreign questions to achieve domestic victories. The present message shows that his party may still count on him for further assistance from the same source.

Speaker Reed is already learning that it is a very different thing to "run" a Republican House when he is simply putting through a policy at the beginning of a Presidential term on which the party is united, from what it is when he is seeking a Presidential nomination for himself and there is great division of opinion in the party as to the wisdom of making him the candidate. The Cleveland *Leader* gave prominence the other day to a despatch from its Washington correspondent, telling how angry the members of the National Wool-Growers' Association were at the way they were "turned down" by the Speaker when an Ohio Representative tried to get their memorial to Congress printed and referred to the ways and means committee, and Mr. Reed gave ex-Speaker Crisp a "tip" to make the objection that prevented the otherwise unanimous consent that was required. The *Leader* followed up the despatch next day with a very sharp editorial article, telling the Speaker that he "blundered" in taking "a narrow view of great party questions," when he "should be broad, patriotic, and amiable"; calling attention to the fact that, while he is an able man, he has 'some infirmities of temper and character"; expressing the opinion that, while he knows better than any other man in this country how business ought to be done in Congress, "there are other men who better know, perhaps, what the nature of the business done ought to be"; reminding him that "the successful statesman and politician is the man who meets competition and opposition with grace and amiable temper"; recalling the fact that, when the last Republican Administration was in power, Mr. Reed presented the spectacle of a popular party leader who was not on speaking terms with President Harrison, nor with Secretary of State Blaine, nor with Senators Hale and Frye, although Blaine, Hale, and Frye were neighbors of his in his own State of Maine; and, finally, notifying him that it is always good policy to fight one's political enemies and not one's political friends, and that "this plain rule, if closely observed, will make Mr. Reed far happier in his own heart, and also a much more tolerable leader, than he has been up to date." Evidently the Speaker is going to find plenty of what Horace Greeley used to call "mighty interesting reading" in the Republican press the next few months.

How thoroughly the Cincinnatus idea of a nomination for the Presidency has disappeared from our politics is shown afresh by McKinley's exhibition of eagerness just now. No sooner had St. Louis been pitched upon as the Republican convention city than he telegraphed for thirty rooms in each of three hotels to be reserved for him during convention week. He has also opened a Washington headquarters. This, for a man who admits that he is the logical candidate of his party, and gives it out that he is calmly waiting for the masses to rise up and make him President against his will, looks a good deal like giving public opinion needed help in crystallizing about him. Of course, all the real Cincinnatuses long since disappeared, but there was a certain comfort in the imitation Cincinnatuses while they lasted. It did not do to examine them too closely. Their ploughs had a way of turning furrows very near the public highway about nomination time, and their ostentatious drinks of spring water from the old brown jug were too apt to be broken off by messenger-boys with telegrams from their managers in the convention hall. But still the little fiction was a pleasant one to keep up, and it brought a kindly feeling into many hearts to have a candidate able to say, as Cincinnatus Blaine did in 1884, sitting amid his heaps of telegrams, "Well, no one can say that I did anything to influence the choice of the convention." It was Cincinnatus Reid, however, who did the most to break down the old tradition, by being surprised with the nomination when out looking at his flowers at eleven o'clock on a moonless night. This was too much, even for a confiding and generous people. McKinley's hot chase after the nomination has at least the merit of frankness, and he may yet be the first Presidential candidate actually to appear "on the ground," pulling and hauling for delegates and making promises right and left.

The Harrison boom seems to have been materially blocked by Mr. Sherman's direct charge that the Indiana candidate got the Republican nomination in 1888 by a corrupt bargain. The Ohio Senator, it will be remembered, declared that at the convention of that year Steve Elkins "had in his pocket a written promise from Mr. Harrison engaging that ex-Senator Platt should control the federal patronage of New York State in case of his nomination and election," and that "President Harrison stood to his bargain." It is now quite a month since this specific charge of corruption against the last Republican President was made by the leading Republican in the Senate, and Mr. Harrison's silence is coming to be interpreted as signifying that the truth of the allegation cannot be challenged. The Boston *Herald* expresses what we believe to be a general feeling when it says that "unless this charge is explained away, it is likely to rule out ex-President Harrison as a man with prospects of another nomination to the Presidency," inasmuch as "the American people are too jealous of the honor of their Presidents to allow him to be a safe candidate." Even the politicians who would not feel any moral scruples about supporting a man who would make a corrupt bargain, are not favorably disposed toward Mr. Harrison, because it is alleged, on excellent Republican authority, that he did not live up to his pledges.

Visitors to the field of Waterloo are generally entertained, both going and returning, by a number of children who run alongside the carriage throwing handsprings and standing on their heads, and then holding out their hands for small copper coins. The two Congressmen from Massachusetts who on Wednesday week offered resolutions to censure Ambassador Bayard, are statesmen of this type. They will stand on their heads or do anything else grotesque for the smallest piece of Chinese cash that was ever tossed into the gutter of politics. The acrobatic performances were begun by Mr. McCall, a greenhorn, evidently, for he limited his resolution to a request for information on the subject of Mr. Bayard's speech at Edinburgh. Mr. Barrett took the wind out of his sails by

proposing that Bayard be impeached. The Constitution provides that "the President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States shall be removed from office on impeachment for and conviction of treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors."

Mr. Bayard's offence consisted in using the following words in his speech at Edinburgh:

"In my country I have witnessed the insatiable growth of a form of socialism styled protection, which has done more to corrupt public life, to banish men of independent mind from public counsels, and to lower the tone of national representation than any other single cause. Protection now controlling, the sovereign power of taxation has been perverted, from its proper function of creating revenue to support the Government, into an engine of selfish profit, allied with combinations called Trusts. It thus has sapped the popular conscience by giving corrupting largess to special interests, and it throws legislation into the political market, where jobbers and chafferers take the place of statesmen."

Now this is not treason, because, under the Constitution, treason consists only in levying war against the United States, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. The word "enemies" in this case means any country or people with whom the United States are at war. Of course Mr. Bayard's offence is not bribery. Therefore, if impeachable, it must be a high crime or misdemeanor. But a high crime or misdemeanor must be an offence indictable under a statute or at common law. Yet even Mr. Dingley was so upset mentally that when asked by Mr. Crisp whether he considered Mr. Bayard's remarks impeachable, he replied that he did. In other words, he stood on his head for a sou along with Barrett—poor man. Finally, Mr. Cannon moved to strike out from Barrett's resolution the words "by impeachment or otherwise," and his motion was agreed to without a division. The acrobatic performance had come to an end for the day. It is liable to start up again at any time.

Senator Mills of Texas has repeatedly demonstrated his courage and independence, as when, some months ago, he came out strongly against the free coinage of silver, but his mastery of the questions involved in this proposition seems not to have been complete. He has astonished the friends of sound money by introducing in the Senate a bill which, among other propositions that are safe enough, provides that, when the gold reserve shall fall below $100,000,000, the Secretary of the Treasury "shall" redeem the notes issued under the act "in silver." Of course such action by the Government would immediately destroy the parity of gold and silver, and put the currency of the country on a silver basis. That a man who realizes the terrible consequences of free coinage should not also perceive the equally disastrous effects of this policy, is amazing. But it is encouraging to find that the press of his State is doing its best to open the Senator's eyes. The Austin *Statesman*, the Democratic newspaper at the capital of Texas, says of the scheme:

"If the plan of Mr. Mills was adopted, all the evils contemplated by the coinage of free silver at 16 to 1 would be precipitated upon us. If the Mills financial bill became a law, we should, as if by magic, 'presto, change,' fall from a gold to a silver standard. Mr. Mills's bill is quite as dangerous as the broadest platform of the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1."

Senator Dubois's proposition to distribute the appropriation bills among several committees, instead of leaving them practically in the hands of one, is defended on the ground that it would expedite business and secure more thorough consideration, but it is really another step towards chaos in our public finance. The great vice of our system of Government taxing and spending is, that one set of men do the taxing and another the spending. The spenders do not know or greatly care how much money there will be to spend. They hope for the best and go blindly ahead. The great check on them has been in the past that, by luck more than purpose, a sort of central controlling power has been lodged in the committee on appropriations. Everybody remembers how Samuel J. Randall, as chairman of this committee, was for years the terror of the spendthrifts, being able to rise in the House and convincingly prove that the appropriation bills were too large and must be cut down. The logrollers and the spendthrifts long ago saw to it that this barrier should not stand in their way; the breaking up and distribution of the appropriation bills in the House took place, with the results we know. Now it is proposed to destroy in the Senate, too, the central responsibility for extravagance and make everything plain sailing. It is a move in the wrong direction. We need to concentrate, not scatter, the work of controlling both Government income and Government outgo.

We find simultaneously in our Kansas exchanges the statement that a new census just taken shows that "there is probably not another State in the Union whose population is so thoroughly American as that of Kansas"—more than 90 per cent. of the people having been born in the United States—and this profound criticism of the President's plan for retiring greenbacks by Lucien Baker, a native American who has just taken his seat to serve a six years' term in the United States Senate:

"The truth of the matter is, Mr. Cleveland probably doesn't like the thought of greenbacks. They helped to whip too many of his party during the war."

The coincidence of the two announcements revives our curiosity as to how it happens that so "thoroughly American" a State as Kansas elects Llewellings as Governors, and Bakers and Peffers for Senators, while Wisconsin, with a great foreign population, is represented, both at the State and the national capitals, by sound-money men, whether the Republicans or the Democrats are in power; and Minnesota, with the largest proportion of foreign-born voters of all the States save its neighbor North Dakota, never allows Populism to get control, and sends a native of Norway to combat in the Senate the financial vagaries of the American Senators from Kansas.

The recent rather sensational developments in the affairs of the American Tobacco Company have their comic side so far as relates to pure speculation or gambling in the shares of the company in Wall Street; but there is an economic point also involved. In certain quarters there have been raised for some time voices against all huge corporations, Trusts, or combinations, on the ground of the dire consequences which must come upon the community because of the success that these corporations or Trusts must have through their practical monopoly. The American Tobacco Company has been often cited as an illustration, since the commercial methods adopted to prevent the sale of other tobaccos may properly be characterized as outrageous; such methods, it was argued, should be put down by law. But what is the result? The very means employed by the company to accomplish its monopolistic ends have been the instruments of its defeat; such a policy has aroused more determined opposition than any Trust or company doing a legitimate business has had to face, while at the same time the expense of such a course has compelled the stoppage of dividends. So far, then, from taking the case of this monopolistic company as furnishing an instance of the need of prohibitive legislation, it would be more in keeping with business principles to say that this same company is an illustration of the truth that no severe Trust laws are needed, and that the violation of fair dealing brings its own punishment where the possibilities of competition are open to everybody.

The Powers having got permission to bring up each a second guard-ship, are now refraining from exercising it. That is, inasmuch as they can have them in twelve hours whenever they want them, they are allowing them to wait orders down below. The reasons why the Powers do not move, in spite of the pending horrors, have to be guessed at, but it is comparatively easy to guess at them. The fact is, that the only Power which can reach the scene is Russia, and if she were willing to move, she could do but little in that region in the snow, though all accounts agree that she is getting ready by massing troops and preparing ships in the Black Sea. One of Russia's objections to moving probably is that when the break-up comes, she does not want to be told that what she has in possession, the

wild, mountainous, and remote Armenia, is all she is going to get. She wants Constantinople, and does not care who knows it. Austria wants Salonica and the whole of Macedonia, and an outbreak in Macedonia is said to be one of the coming troubles. Austria is waiting for this as an excuse for marching in. England wants to keep Egypt; France, Tunis and Syria; and Italy, Tripoli. They are all like candidates at a Presidential convention, watching each other, waiting for each other to make "a false step," or precipitate some sort of crisis, or hoping that the crisis will be brought on by some accident, such as a rising in Constantinople or another rebellion in Europe. But the main and controlling cause of their reserve is almost certainly the knowledge they all have, since 1870, of the frightful cost and slaughter of war, under the new military organizations. Each would try to outdo the others in the number of men it could put in the field; and whether there exists in Europe a single man capable of moving these great masses, or a commissariat capable of feeding them, nobody knows. The cost of the late Franco-German war is calculated at $7,500,000 a day. If the fighting should begin at sea, too, the chances are that whole fleets, which it has taken years and millions to construct, will go to the bottom in every battle. Now we do not believe there is a statesman in Europe to-day who has nerve enough to begin a war of this kind. Bismarck was the last man of that heroic mould, and he always avowed that if he had lost Sadowa, he would have shot himself. Not one of the European Ministers has either the physical or moral courage to say that the time for fighting has come. So they are all waiting for some accident that will relieve everybody of responsibility by making action seem inevitable.

Sir Charles Dilke speaks on foreign politics with infinitely more knowledge than Mr. Chamberlain, and in a speech on Monday affirmed that the latter's talk about imperial federation and a colonial customs union is imperial nonsense. He said emphatically, and with much truth, that Canada and Australia are much more likely to think of casting off all connection with England than of surrendering a jot of their present taxing power or local self-government. Mr. Chamberlain has, in fact, chosen a peculiarly inappropriate time for his schemes for international *rapprochement*. International jealousy and exacerbation are more rampant just now than for many years. It has got so that even war supplies cannot be purchased from hated foreigners without bringing the whole Parliament down on the back of the offending Minister, as in the French Chamber the other day, when it appeared that the French troops in Madagascar had been fed on English tinned goods. Better let them starve than do that.

A municipal scandal in Madrid seems hardly a sufficient cause for the fall of the Spanish ministry. The explanation lies in the nature of the scandal and the attitude of the Government towards it. The city Council had become Tammanyized, and was exposed by the Marquis of Cabriñana. That gentleman was the owner of some land expropriated by the city, but, when he asked for his pay, was himself asked by the councilmen what *he* would pay to get his money voted him. After getting definite propositions from several of them, he blew up the whole thing in the press, with names, facts, and dates all set forth. A storm of popular indignation at once burst upon the officials implicated, which was not lessened, as may easily be imagined, by an attempt to assassinate the daring Marquis—an attempt naturally charged upon them. Suspicion once directed their way, ugly questions began to be asked about their suddenly and mysteriously acquired wealth, *à la* Tammany, their fine houses and carriages obtained without visible income. Various shady municipal contracts were recalled and shown up, and a fierce demand arose for the speedy trial and punishment of the criminal councilmen. Here the central Government hesitated fatally. With true Tammany instinct, the imperilled officials resorted to their political "pull," besieged the members of the ministry whom they had helped in tight places, and dilated on the vast importance of keeping together for the next general election. An impression got abroad that the culprits would be allowed to escape, and so great grew the popular fury that the ministry itself has been broken before it. The Madrid Tammany "pull" has thus simply pulled down three members of the cabinet. But the whole incident is one of those fine, involuntary tributes to our institutions which we sometimes get from the Old World to cheer us on when we begin to despair of the triumph of democracy.

The annihilation of the greater part of Major Toselli's troops by the Abyssinians is not the first experience of this kind that the Italians have had. A loss of 700 men, however, even if few of them are Europeans, is a pretty serious check to expansion in that quarter. In 1868, when the British expedition overcame Theodore, it met with almost no opposition. The badly armed subjects of the Negus, tired of his cruelty and despotism, abandoned him on all sides. In the one skirmish of importance, the English had only about thirty men wounded. This easy success deceived the world as to the power of resistance of the Abyssinians; hence the Khedive Ismail, with his disciplined army and American officers, undertook to annex their land. The result was the battle of Gudda Gubi in 1875, in which the Egyptian force of some 7,000 men was utterly destroyed. In the following campaign a larger army was likewise defeated, only a small part of it escaping. For the next ten years the Negus John was busy in strengthening his authority over his turbulent subjects, especially Menelik, then only King of Shoa, till the Italian occupation of Massowa brought about a collision. In 1887 Ras Alula destroyed an Italian detachment at Dogali, and when 20,000 men were sent from Europe to avenge the disaster by a great victory, the Abyssinian army, after reconnoitring the position of the foe, wisely retreated into the interior of the country, unmolested and unpursued. Then followed a lull, due to the death of John in battle against the Mahdists and the accession of Menelik, who, to strengthen his position, agreed in 1889 to the treaty of Utchiali. The borders of Eritrea were pushed back for one reason or another, as is always the case in such colonies, until the struggle for Tigre with Ras Mangasha, son of King John, has led to another general war. The Abyssinians have shown themselves patriotic and brave, and they can bring into the field, if need be, a hundred thousand men, who, besides being undoubtedly much better armed than they were a few years ago, have had some training from European officers. Italy may still prevail against them, but if the Madagascar expedition has cost France 100,000,000 francs, how is a country nearly on the verge of bankruptcy to pay the price of making and retaining a conquest that is vastly more difficult?

Herr Bebel, standing up in the Reichstag for the right of a German representative to criticise the Kaiser, is perhaps not a very heroic figure, but he serves to show what a chunk of pure mediævalism are the Emperor's ideas of his own sacrosanct personality and lèse-majesté. It seems an anachronism for a representative in 1895 to have to send such a message to his monarch as Mirabeau sent Louis XVI., or as the Speaker of the House of Commons gave Charles I. in 1642. Bebel doubtless knew he ran no great risk personally. The Reichstag had already fought out this issue with William, and had decided that members must enjoy immunity for criticism even of an infallible and heaven-guided Emperor. He may pounce upon unlucky editors and Socialist orators who speak disrespectfully of him, but he cannot prevent the Reichstag from discussing his policy and his personality. Meanwhile his present fury against the Socialists, whom a few years ago he was coddling, is manifestly fitted to strengthen their hands by disposing all lovers of free speech in Germany to side with them. When a man like Prof. Delbrück is threatened with prosecution for speaking his mind on politics, it gives more than a show of reason to Bebel in declaring that the issue between the Socialists and William the Dasher-to-Pieces is simply the issue of freedom of speech and writing.

SECRETARY CARLISLE'S REPORT.

We think that intelligent men of business will agree that no Secretary of the Treasury in this generation has shown more alacrity in mastering his own department and the principles which underlie it than Mr. Carlisle. It must be remembered that his training and experience before he took the office did not at all fit him for its duties. The case was somewhat different with Secretary Manning (who likewise developed great aptitude for the work thrown upon him), for he was a bank president at the time of his appointment, whereas Mr. Carlisle was a lawyer, with only such instruction in public finance as may be picked up by an industrious Congressman. The evidences of his lack of training are recognizable in his Congressional career, but they are happily relieved by signs everywhere of capacity to learn, and willingness to abandon wrong positions and adopt better ones as soon as conviction was brought to his mind. Coupled with this readiness of perception is a power of exposition which very few men ever attain, of which we have had abundant examples during the past two years, and especially in those remarkable speeches connected with the Memphis sound-money convention.

Mr. Carlisle's official report on the finances now published is up to his standard in every particular, and it bears the marks of statesmanship in putting the naked truth before Congress and the people without any gloss whatever. To use a common phrase, he calls a spade a spade. He calls the greenback a burden on the nation's back, and an embarrassment to the financial operations of the Government, as it is. He asks for authority to retire the legal-tender notes once for all, and to restrict the Government to its proper and pristine business of collecting and disbursing the public revenue. Very likely he will not get it from the present Congress, very likely he will not get it at all; but his report of the present year will stand as an unanswerable argument in favor of it until some successor of his does get it.

A report of such length as this, and so crammed with matter of importance, cannot be analyzed in a single article. We can only touch upon a few of its salient points. The Secretary answers first the accusation frequently made that he has been using the proceeds of bond sales to pay the current expenses of the Government. Would it be believed that the law which *compels* him to use for current expenses the greenbacks that come to the Treasury for redemption in gold, was first proposed by John Sherman when he held the office of Secretary? That appears to be fact from a paragraph quoted by Mr. Carlisle from Sherman's annual report for 1877. He said that he believed that greenbacks could be so used after they had been redeemed; but, inasmuch as this construction of the law had been controverted, he desired that it should be expressly affirmed and put beyond reach of dispute. The act of May 31, 1878, was accordingly passed at his instance, making it mandatory upon the Secretary to pay out the greenbacks that have been redeemed, and keep them in circulation. This has been done by Secretary Carlisle so far as the public expenses would warrant. Of course the Secretary has no right to give away any greenbacks even to execute the mandate of the law of 1878.

The Secretary says that there is no need of additional revenue at this time, because the Treasury is full to overflowing with greenbacks turned in for gold, which *must be paid out*, under the terms of the law. He believes that the ordinary revenue will exceed the ordinary expenditure during the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1896, but in any event the difference must be small and will be more than covered by the great surplus carried over from the present year. This declaration will be gall and wormwood to the Ohio triumvirate who are working for a new tariff on wool under pretence that the Treasury is in need of funds, but really to tax the consumers of woollen goods for their own benefit.

Mr. Carlisle gives in detail an account of the bond-syndicate transaction of last February. The only new thing presented is his reason for not insisting on the exact fulfilment of the requirement that one-half of all the gold bought should come from Europe. Upon this point he says:

> "After a large part of the gold had been furnished from abroad, the Secretary, in order to prevent disturbance in the rates of foreign exchange at a critical period and avoid a condition which would force gold exports and consequent withdrawals from the Treasury, acquiesced in a departure from the literal terms of the contract, that one half of the coin should be procured abroad, and accepted deposits of gold then held in this country to complete the delivery. Ordinary prudence demanded that the success of the plan to protect the Treasury against withdrawals should not be endangered by insisting upon a strict compliance with all the details of the contract, especially as the Government could sustain no loss, and the whole amount of gold stipulated for was secured."

This reason must be accounted satisfactory. The main thing to be done was to quiet the public mind, to alleviate the panic, to put a stop to needless withdrawals of gold. Withdrawals of this class were imitative. People drew gold out because they saw others doing so. To have insisted on drawing gold from Europe at a time when sterling exchange was close to the exporting-point, would have led to necessary withdrawals from the Treasury, and this might have led to new imitative ones. The Secretary mentions also the interesting fact that the bond syndicate, after they had completed their deliveries under the contract, deposited upwards of $16,000,000 gold more than they were required to do, taking legal-tender notes in exchange therefor.

If the selling of bonds for coin to redeem the notes with, and the reissue of the notes, are to continue, the Secretary says that the result will be the creation of a public debt larger than would be required to retire and cancel the whole lot, and the annual interest charge will be much greater than it would be necessary to incur on a new class of bonds specially adapted to the purpose. He repeats the request that authority be granted for the issue of new class low-interest, short-time bonds, or certificates to meet emergencies. This request was embraced in his two preceding reports. An amendment to an appropriation bill granting such authority was carried through the Senate, at Mr. Sherman's instance, just before the present Cleveland Administration came in, but was rejected by the House on the threat of Mr. Bland that he would filibuster against the bill to the end of the session unless that clause were dropped. Mr. Sherman will now have a chance to try again, and he may succeed this time, as Mr. Bland no longer blocks the way.

The arguments advanced by the Secretary for retiring the greenbacks have never been more strongly put, and, indeed, cannot be. It is useless to attempt to summarize or condense them, since, although they are voluminous, they contain not a word too much. We can only commend them to the thoughtful attention of the people.

SENTIMENTAL JINGOISM.

By this term we would charitably characterize the address delivered by Judge Oliver Wendell Holmes at Sanders Theatre, Cambridge, on Memorial Day, and now printed, with all rights reserved, in the current issue of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*. Its theme was "The Soldier's Faith," and its object to glorify war and the war spirit. The young men who listened to it, the élite of our foremost university, were admonished that "war is the business of youth and early middle age," and were encouraged to pity the moralists and philanthropists who "declare that war is wicked, foolish, and soon to disappear." "The society," continued Judge Holmes, "for which many philanthropists, labor reformers, and men of fashion unite in longing, is one in which they may be comfortable and may shine without much trouble or any danger." General prosperity, in which, while all thrive, some get rich, seems to him to breed a belief that money is the main thing, and so to foster the hatred of the poor for the rich. "In this snug, over-safe corner of the world," he says—that is, a continent where Jingoism is a pure exotic—we need some discipline like war to remind us that we ought not to be as safe and comfortable as we are, and to make us "ready for danger" if not spoiling for a fight.

By such doctrine in such a place, we do not hesitate to say that the orator abused the holiday occasion. As if our Fourth of July festival had not done enough to perpetuate hostile feeling between England and America, and to make

the flag a war symbol above all else to the youth of this land, the newer festival of Memorial Day must end in a similar perversion. The natural forces which made secession and disruption impossible, have contributed to neutralize the inherent tendency of Memorial Day to prolong sectional antipathy, and have even wrested it in an opposite, most salutary direction. Judge Holmes does not say that he thinks another civil war would be better than our "little space of calm in the midst of the tempestuous, untamed streaming of the world," but he is on the lookout for a shindy in some quarter, and concludes that the memories of the war for the Union—a war as truly defensive as that of the Revolution—may be properly utilized to excite a bellicose temper in the student breast. The prospect of peaceful and smiling industry has on him the proverbial effect of a fine day on an Englishman—"Let us kill something."

Judge Holmes has been reared in a community which, as no other in the world, has exemplified what we may call the conscience of wealth; whose merchant princes have been princely not in lavish and ostentatious living, but in public benefactions. In Judge Holmes's eyes we must assume that all this is dross. Is not the air full of "danger"? Is it a time to be snugly settling down with permanent foundations for hospitals, kindergartens, colleges, libraries, museums, and pleasure-grounds? What are the rich doing to avert the hatred of the poor? *Risum teneatis?* The son and namesake of a great humorist gazes "with delight upon our polo-players. If once in a while, in our rough riding, a neck is broken, I regard it, not as a waste, but as a price well paid for the breeding of a race fit for headship and command"! And not only in a diversion all but reserved for the unemployed rich, who are commonly reckoned among the dangerous classes, does Judge Holmes discern the salvation of "faith in the worth of heroism"; every dangerous sport he sees pursued rejoices him. Moreover, inasmuch as "the students at Heidelberg, with their sword-slashed faces," inspired him "with sincere respect," he could not but be pleased if the Germanizing of his alma mater should embrace this barbarism also.

No reflecting person needs to be informed that war is the rich man's opportunity and the poor man's calamity, that it makes the rich richer and the poor poorer, and that no absurder mode of reconciling the two classes could be proposed. Who does not remember what our civil war did for the sudden making of great fortunes as well as of splendid names, and how the scale of riches was altered until a millionaire has ceased to excite attention? The poor are still laboring under the war debt and the war tariff, which the Jingoes are now bent on aggravating. They already had for a leader one Harvard graduate, Senator Lodge, and was it necessary for Judge Holmes also to make his bed with them? He could not do so if he were not blind to any definition of heroism that does not imply slaughter of one's fellow-beings. Talk as you please about the soldier's heroism, it does not surpass that of the locomotive engineer in the performance of his daily duty. And if Judge Holmes will take a leaf out of his Erasmus, he will find a Colloquy in which the soldier's perils are compared with those of child-bearing, to no advantage of the former. But women, since they cannot indulge in polo, or duelling, or battle, are implicitly excluded by Judge Holmes from all share in heroism, or knowledge of the article, or faith in it. They are the greatest sufferers by war, yet are not even fitted to receive what our orator calls "its divine message."

The truth is, that Judge Holmes, like most Jingoes, idealizes the commonplace act of dying and risk of death. There are a hundred who can face both in a becoming manner to one who can pursue a moral life amid all temptations. The murderer on the scaffold can die game; as many jockeys have broken their necks in the race-course as polo-players. We can never, in the civilized man, draw the line between physical and moral courage; and Darwin rightly discerned moral courage in that heroic baboon who went back into the plain to face the hunters, that he might bring off in safety a young one left behind. If we cultivate moral courage, we can leave physical courage to take care of itself. Mankind, while prizing both, pays its lasting honors to the former. Judge Holmes, with his customary taste, cites much good verse in support of his contention as against the moralists and philanthropists; but it is in vain. The poet of his own university has put Lincoln, of all the men of the civil war, on the highest pinnacle—not as nominal commander-in-chief of the army and navy, but for his homely virtues of sagacity, foresight, patience, humility, kindly-earnestness, courage.

> "Life may be given in many ways,
> And loyalty to Truth be sealed
> As bravely in the closet as the field."

UNION FOR CLEVELAND.

One of the interesting things in Jingoism is its readiness to stand behind the President in solid phalanx in case he wants to go to war with anybody. The Indianapolis *Journal*, Gen. Harrison's home organ, has lately expressed itself to the effect "that when it comes to resisting British aggression, there will be no Republicans and no Democrats. We shall all be Americans, and if Grover Cleveland is President when the crisis comes, we shall all be Cleveland men." Offers of enlistment for a war with England come in, too, every day or two from loose fishes of both parties all over the country. They all sink political differences for this occasion. The ex-Confederates are particularly anxious to back the President up in this matter. Ex-Gov. T. J. Churchill, a famous Confederate warrior, has offered his services to the President for the English war, by telegraph. He says the American people are a "unit" in favor, not so much of the Monroe doctrine as of "enforcing it." The fun lies not in the doctrine, but in the fighting over it.

What is striking and impressive about this willingness to rally round the President is that it shows itself only when it seems likely that he can be got to kill people and destroy property. The resemblance of Jingodom in this to an Indian village is very remarkable. A good leader of war parties has there all the men of the tribe under sixty at his back. When he is planning a raid on one of their neighbors with a promise of plenty of scalps, the critics have to hide their diminished heads. They are all Man-that's-Afraid-of-his-Horse men, or Man-that-Walks-under-the-Ground men. The disgruntled, or the prudent, or the peaceable, if there are any, have to lie still in the tepees and pretend to be asleep, while the warriors are painting themselves and cleaning their arms, outside. But if at this moment the leader were to propose that, instead of going on a raid, they should follow him into a potato-hoeing or a corn-planting enterprise, or should help him to build a school-house, execrations both loud and deep would greet him on every side. The language of the tribe would fail to supply epithets sufficient to describe his baseness and meanness. In fact, he would probably have to run for his life and stay away for a considerable period.

Jingoism is, in fact, like Indian readiness for war, simply another name for imperfect civilization. It is a simple outburst like negro-burning, lynching, and jail-breaking, of the imperfectly subdued barbarous instincts of an earlier time. To get men to abandon fighting as the chief and most honorable business of their lives, and the only respectable way of ending disputes, has been the main work of modern civilization; and what hard work it has been, one has only to read a little Froissart or Joinville to see. That the work is far from complete in this country there are signs every day in the unwillingness to submit to law either at home or abroad. At the South, even down to our own day, it has been not uncommon for the William M. Evartses to fall on the Daniel Lords with knife and pistol, or for the Chemical Bank Presidents to warn the Park Bank Presidents that they would be "shot on sight." This seems absurd to us, but only because we have passed into a more advanced stage of civilization.

This readiness on the part of his political enemies to support the President, should he decide to slaughter Englishmen and Canadians and lay waste their soil, is therefore a useful sociological study. But it must be taken in connection with

their furious unreadiness to support him when he proposes to engage in any useful work, or to make a contribution to civilization. When he says, "Brethren, let us all be Americans and reform our currency," or "Let us all be Americans and frame a rational system of taxation," or "Let us all be Americans and establish a good consular system," execrations meet him on every side. Shouts of "Put him in a hole!" "Wait till '97!" "Infamous," "Un-American," "Base duck-hunter," are heard in every direction. No union then; no "standing behind him." His smallest work of peace, or order, or humanity is treated as a piece either of deep-laid villany or of gross stupidity. In fact, it is quite safe to predict that the larger part of the patriotic work of the present Congress will consist in preparing "holes" for Cleveland and keeping him in them. Every question of national importance will be subordinated to this. His only mode of escape will be some plan of slaughter and devastation in some foreign country. If he will only make a good show of widows and orphans and human remains, and of destroyed property, he may make himself the idol of "good Americans," and have all his financial and other errors forgotten, including his duck-hunting. The temptation for an ordinary man to escape in this way is very strong. It has been known to affect even Presbyterian elders. There were signs in the last message to Congress that even Mr. Cleveland had felt its force—to what degree, it was left for his message on Venezuela to reveal. But, as has been shown a hundred times in the history of all civilized countries, the only certain popularity is that which comes from attempts to make people happy. The fame of destroyers is always built on a large amount of human misery, and Providence has arranged that this shall not be sure and shall not last.

FORCE AS A MORAL INFLUENCE.

As we take notice above, a judge of the Massachusetts Supreme Court has just printed an address to young men in favor of war—that is, of killing people and destroying their property—on the ground that if you put it off too long, your character runs down and you get too fond of money. Another judge, in Louisiana, has written a letter strongly recommending everybody, including women, to carry concealed weapons, as the best preventive of "assaults and burglaries." He makes no mention whatever, in the letter, of police or courts. Last of all, Chief-Justice Snodgrass of Tennessee has sought out in his office a lawyer who criticised a judgment of the court, and shot him twice handsomely, though not fatally.

These things seem to us part and parcel of the great movement against peace and law, as the two canker worms of modern society, which is spreading rapidly all over our nation. The dangers of peace as an influence on character have long been known and been gallantly struggled against by the nations of the Old World. The Swiss, in fact, felt the matter so deeply that, for two centuries, when there was no fighting going on at home, they hired themselves to fight in other people's quarrels, in order to get the benefit of the moral influence. Louis XIV., too, was so afraid of the effect of prolonged peace on the character of his people that he carried on war steadily for fifty years, with the happiest results. Napoleon followed his example, but on a greater scale and with more enthusiasm. The schooling the French people got from his campaigns have made them ever since the admiration of mankind for modesty, simplicity, and indifference to the pleasures of the senses. The spiritualizing influence of war was never so clearly revealed as in the career of this saintly people. Of the effect on the British of their wars, we need hardly speak. The indifference to material gain, and the longing for the things of the spirit, which have grown out of British battles by land and sea, are known to everybody. As to the effect of our own war, the rush into plain living which followed it, the contempt for wealth which suddenly showed itself among all classes of the community, the furious determination which displayed itself among debtors of every degree to pay their creditors not what the law allowed, but what was really due to them, the growth of stern integrity and candor among our public men, the disappearance of tramps, and the passionate love of industry which developed itself among the working classes, showed that we had not killed 500,000 men, between 1860 and 1865, in vain. They really died as moral instructors.

The judges we have mentioned above are simply protesting against the insidious, soul-destroying reverence for human life which has been gradually growing up among us, and which is so fatally corrupting our young men, and is at the South actually making duelling disreputable. The following letter recently sent by the Hon. Steve Clay of Cobb, Ga., in reply to a challenge from a litigant against whom he had appeared in court, shows how the poison is working in that section. Said the Hon. Steve:

"I am opposed to duelling. I am opposed to it because it is prohibited by the Constitution of this State, that I have frequently sworn to support and defend. I am opposed to it because it is condemned by every principle of our laws and every doctrine of our religion. I am opposed to it because I am unwilling to commit murder, or to become a party to its commission by others. I never intend to take the life of a human being, unless it is absolutely necessary to do so in self-defence. I have a family and dependent little ones who look to me for support. They have higher claims upon me than you can possibly have. You have neither a family nor a future, and hazard nothing but a life without ties or associations that make it desirable to live; a life embittered by disappointments, seared, wretched, and dwarfed by failure and selfishness. I have no reason for desiring to meet you out of the State, nor have I done you any wrong that entitles you to any redress at my hands. I have done you no injustice. If I had, I am manly enough to confess it and make the proper reparation for it."

The man who challenged doubtless felt himself suffering from the effects of peace. He felt that if he could only kill Steve, it would purify his moral nature and raise his whole character to a higher plane. He felt the meanness and baseness of sitting down quietly under Steve's language in court, and the degradation, in fact, of submitting to a court at all. He felt, in short, the tide of corruption and sloth rising around him, and determined to make one gallant effort to escape by killing somebody. The fops, the dudes, the diners-out, the luxurious bankers, as they hear the dollars chink, may laugh at this humble soul, but he none the less was eager to expose his life for the elevation of his race, and shall have his reward.

These judges also in effect protest against the growing respect for law, including international law. Coming from such a quarter, we confess, this protest is one of the sublimest things in human history. They live by the law; to the law they owe their salaries; to the popular reverence for it they owe the respect which surrounds them. But they are none the less ready to advise everybody to take the law into his own hands, to decide international disputes by the strong arm. Nay, one of them, feeling the futility of words, has been willing to brave popular prejudice by leaving the bench, going to the office of an offensive lawyer, and taking a crack at him with a revolver. This is the kind of courage the times call for. This is the kind of example our young men need. Such counsels, coming from such a quarter, must open the eyes of the community to the road it is travelling.

For what do obedience to the law and reliance on the law mean if not the surrender of one's own will, the concession to others of the power of deciding disputes in which one knows one is right? And what can be the result of this but enfeeblement of character and of purpose, the lowering of the standard of manhood and of courage, the loss of that trust in one's own right arm and a good sword which, from the earliest times, has been the boast and glory of the race? Chief-Justice Snodgrass has only wounded Beasley of the Chattanooga bar, but we say boldly that, even if he had killed him on the spot, the murder of hundreds of Beasleys would be a "price well paid," to use Judge Holmes's language, "for the breeding of a race fit for headship and command." It is for battle that men should be bred, and in the field of battle who would not sooner serve under Snodgrass than Mansfield or Marshall? We thank them all for their manly warnings to a generation rapidly sinking into wealth, quiet nights, and regular meals.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S COLONIAL SCHEMES.

THE gradual getting rid, by the English Conservatives, of the various disguises under which they won the last election, is one of the most interesting processes to which the English have been treated of late years. The Tory programme is, except probably in the matter of public education, being rapidly reduced to a series of negatives. That is, what they propose is mainly *not* to do any of those things the Liberals were going to do. This, of course, gets rid of home rule, and Welsh disestablishment, and local option, and a general assortment of Radical "fads." But the Tory constituencies expected substitutes for them, such as some sort of protection for agriculture, and free trade in India for the Manchester men, and increased subventions for the church schools, and something mysterious in the way of colonial policy. The most pressing of all these was the revival of agriculture, but all hope of it has vanished. A deputation waited on Lord Salisbury the other day to ask for a readjustment of the duty on beer so as to encourage hops and barley, but even this he rejected as "sounding" in protection, concerning which, he said, "public opinion had not changed." The Indian duties on cotton imports, for which Manchester has been waiting, are to be abolished as soon as the Indian budget balances. But no date is fixed, or indeed fixable, for this most desirable event, and Manchester naturally feels somewhat "sold." The church has apparently a better chance than any of the other malcontents, in the way of increased allowances to the voluntary schools, but nothing is settled. Everything is "under consideration," although Lord Salisbury's rather saucy tone towards a Wesleyan deputation which waited on him the other day makes the churchmen very hopeful. He openly ranged himself on that occasion on the Anglican side by speaking of "we Anglicans" and "you Wesleyans."

But nothing in the programme quite equals Mr. Chamberlain's performances. There is nothing even in Beaconsfield's career which quite matches the Birmingham orator's rôle. No one knew why he took the place of Colonial Secretary. He had never been associated with colonies in any way. The line he had marked out for himself clearly in politics was the provision of some sort of relief for the poor, the old, and the suffering. When he was a Radical he hinted that the expenses of this process would have to be got in some manner out of the pockets of the rich in the shape of "ransom." Since he became a Conservative he has hinted, but more obscurely, that they would be provided by some sort of financial operation, which the City men never clearly understood, but which was supposed to be "under consideration." But, to the great surprise of the country, the minute his Tory friends offered him office, he dropped the English poor and lowly and took charge of the colonies. To those who asked for an explanation of this he announced, with a marvellous imitation of Disraeli's best manner, that he looked on the colonies as "undeveloped estates," and he proposed to develop them. This is exactly the kind of phrase in which Disraeli used to delight, and Mr. Chamberlain has enjoyed the same immunity from inconvenient inquiries as to its meaning which Disraeli used to enjoy. How the colonies are "undeveloped estates," who is to develop them, what the Government has to do with it, where the money is to come from, who is to get the profits, are all questions which nobody has yet put to the brilliant Joseph, but there is no doubt that, when Parliament meets, there will be lively times about the enterprise.

At present he is supposed by his friends to be deeply meditating this scheme, whatever it is, and he is shrewdly talking very little. He received a warning as to the danger of too great explicitness from the *Economist*, not long ago, apropos of some astonishing figures he produced as to the commercial value of the Gold Coast. But recently he has begun writing despatches to the colonial governors about trade between Great Britain and the colonies. He says he is "impressed with the extreme importance of securing as large a share as possible of the mutual trade of the United Kingdom and the colonies for British producers and manufacturers, whether located in the colonies or Great Britain." He also asks for a return of foreign goods substituted for British goods in the colonies, and for a return of colonial products which might be advantageously exported to the United Kingdom, and for information as to quality, prices, and freight, etc. If this does no good, he says he will write another and fuller despatch.

We do not know how far this sort of game will be allowed to go before John Bull loses his temper, but nothing in Disraeli's career surpasses it. The effect is heightened by the fact that the Queen has taken quite a fancy to Mr. Chamberlain, as she did to Mr. Disraeli. He is a type of character and manner which apparently attracts her, and as long as he can bask in the royal favor he will probably not pay much attention to criticisms on his colonial plans. Nobody has as yet any idea of what he is going to do in the colonies—almost certainly nothing; but what his inquiries point to—some sort of legislation in aid of British and colonial trade, and the discovery of markets for languishing industries—is ludicrously out of tune with the policy of Great Britain and the trend of British opinion on these subjects for the last fifty years. Any such legislation would of course be a complete break with freedom of trade and with the great principle which triumphed in 1846—that individuals know their own business best. Of course there is not the smallest chance of any such legislation, or of the vote of money for Mr. Chamberlain's experiments. But his success in exciting the curiosity of the public about them and getting it to wait for them is a remarkable illustration of the willingness of mankind to be humbugged. What will remain of the affair in a year or two will be simply Mr. Chamberlain's despatches.

THE FINANCES OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

IN a recent number of the *Journal des Débats* M. Leroy-Beaulieu returns to the theme he has so often treated—the gloomy look of the national balance-sheet. He acquits the reporters of the budgets of responsibility for the increasing expenditure. They have repeatedly warned the Legislature of the perils of the situation. In 1892 M. Cavaignac pointed out that in one year, 1883, the expenses outside of the budget amounted to 834,000,000 francs; and that between 1881 and 1892 the total expenditure of this description was 6,667,000,000 francs. It has been supposed that a more conservative policy has prevailed during the last few years; but M. Leroy-Beaulieu's analysis shows that this belief is not very well founded. There has been some diminution of expenditure on great public works: a country of the size of France must be sufficiently equipped for the present with 40,000 kilometres of railway. There has also been a saving of 65,000,000 francs, arising from the refunding of debt; and superficially the budgets of recent years are encouraging. The deficit of 1892 was only 10 millions; that of 1893 a little more than 84 millions; that of 1894 but 20 millions, and in 1895 there was actually a surplus of 166,220 francs!

The gratification felt at this showing is dispelled by two considerations. On the one hand, the revenue account in these budgets is swollen by including the proceeds of loans; on the other, a number of disbursements, of an ordinary and permanent character, are not included in the budgets. Thus, in 1892, over 20,000,000 francs of this exceptional revenue was received; in 1893, nearly 8,000,000 francs; in 1894, not far from 30,000,000 francs. The accounts for 1895 are not yet completed, but they will include extraordinary revenue amounting to over 37,000,000 francs. It thus appears that the deficit for the four years 1892-'95, instead of being 114,000,000 francs, would be more properly estimated at 210,000,000.

This of itself might not seem alarming, but we have yet to consider the extra-budgetary disbursements. Some expenses that were formerly excluded from the budget are now included; but there are others which are of regular occurrence, but which are still treated as extraordinary. M. Cochery, as reporter of the budget, officially gives these as amounting to 129,000,000 francs in 1892, 91,000,000 in 1893, and 188,000,000 in 1894. Hence the total deficit, excluding from revenue the proceeds of loans, would be 159,000,-

000 for 1892, 183,000,000 for 1893, and 238,000,000 for 1894. These figures, however, must be reduced by allowing for the payment of loans, which has taken place at the rate of about 63,000,000 francs a year during the three years referred to. On the other hand, M. Leroy-Beaulieu contends, the extension of loans at a reduced rate of interest, where unaccompanied with a corresponding reduction of taxes, implies a relative diminution of the resources of the people. The treatment, as an asset, of money advanced in payment of interest guaranteed by the Government on railway bonds, he very properly dismisses with contempt.

Well may M. Cochery cry out: "We are spending too much!" Within a dozen years the War Department has increased its expenses by 43,000,000 francs; the navy 61,000,000; colonies 11,000,000. Public instruction calls for 14,000,000 more, and will presently require twice as much; various charities have doubled their demand; civil pensions have increased by 9,000,000 since 1890; public works by 99,000,000. Moreover, there are laws in existence which demand additional appropriations to the amount of 164,000,000 per annum. Add to this that the departmental expenses within five years have increased 28,000,000, and those of the communes 74,000,000.

After all, there might be nothing terrible in this increased expenditure if the wealth of the people were increasing at a corresponding rate. Unfortunately, there is evidence that this is not the case. The population of France is stationary, if not actually decreasing; were it not for immigration it would certainly decrease. Moreover, the budget submitted by M. Cochery contains proof that the wealth of the French people is also stationary or declining; for the decreasing returns from taxation admit of no other explanation. The proceeds of the tax on the revenue from personal property have fallen nearly six per cent. since 1891. The tax on transfers of property between living persons yielded 187,000,000 in 1891 and 182,000,000 in 1894. Transfers on account of death also produce less, and the yield of the most important stamp taxes, except that on dealings at the Bourse, has fallen in four years from 129,000,000 to 124,000,000. These things, it must be remembered, have been done in a green tree. The cost of the acquisition of Madagascar remains to be met; and if France were to engage in a great European war, she could not possibly remain solvent. She has evidently nearly reached the limit of bearable taxation, and cannot be far from that of possible borrowing. But her legislators are incapable of reducing the exactions of Government. Finding that no more can be wrung from the income of the living, they are now turning to the accumulated wealth of the dead, and the Chamber has just voted, by a large majority, to appropriate such property to public uses, to the extent in certain cases of one-fifth of its amount.

"LIBRARIES."

THACKERAY was never tired of dilating on the advantage of authorship over other callings in the small amount of Persian apparatus it required. A little white paper, ink guaranteed not to blotch or run, and pens not to splutter, a table to sit at, and a chair or bed to sit on—and there you had the author's "plant" complete. With what delight, too, did he describe the *res angusta domi* of his Warringtons, his Philip Firmins, his Cassidys. Cowheel and tripe, rare vintages at 13 shillings the dozen, were the sufficient ambrosia and nectar of his slashing young reviewers and indefatigable newspaper exposers of the endless machinations of the Russians and Turks at so much the column. But this must be taken as a reflection of Thackeray's nearness to the degraded Grub-Street period of our literature, and his fondness for it. Johnson, with his threadbare coat, thinking it the pinnacle of felicity to know two days in advance how he was to get his dinner; Goldsmith, with his debts and duns; even Hood, grinning cheerfully in the face of poverty, disease, and death, had an unaccountable fascination over his intellect and heart. His sympathy so far got the better of his judgment that he did not see how shameful a thing it was for men of letters not to have the best of all that was going.

Luckily, we have changed all that. Literature has got out of such low places as the Mitre Tavern, and now exalts her mitred front in parliament and palace as grandly as Burke would have had the Established Church. Take the single item of authors' libraries. They show how far we have got beyond Thackeray's pens, ink, and paper on a deal table. The poorest of them have now a fine luxurious air with their rarities and fineries. Their attractive "nooks," their pictures and candlesticks and portières and writing-desks, quite incidentally their books, indicate in the most gratifying way the emergence of the literary profession from its dark and starveling age.

Let no one think that we speak of these luxuries from the standpoint of one privileged to gaze upon them from afar, with becoming awe; much less from that of personal ownership. Journalism in no way more surely proves that it is not literature than in so persistently going unclad in the latter's purple and fine linen. It is not necessary to say, then, that our knowledge of the interior fittings of the libraries of real authors is gained at second-hand. But the amount of second-hand, or second-class, information about them now accessible is getting to be enormous. We owe most of it to the kindly art of the photographer. Two things are now indispensable to a complete account of a popular living writer. One is a series of "human documents" in the shape of pictures of him from his unbreeched days down to his lean and slippered pantaloon period. The other is a series of photographs of his library. It is usually essential that he be himself seated at his desk, his brow sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought how the picture is going to turn out. But in any case his favorite "corner" must be figured; his desk, carelessly covered with the manuscript for which all the publishers are madly bidding; his table, on which the world's greatest books that daily feed or relax his mind are displayed in a wild civility. In so many periodicals, and relating to so many writers, have these pictures been made public that the idea of an author without his library has come to be wholly unthinkable. He may have no literary baggage of his own on which the stern customs officers of posterity—or even of two years hence—will assess the smallest ad-valorem duty; he may have neither wit nor words nor power of speech; but he must have his library. Without it no photographer will pay the slightest attention to him; and, but for the hope of attracting and pleasing the photographer, of course, no truly modern man of letters would scorn delights and live laborious days.

In this, however, it is only fair to say that authors are but children of their age. The part which a "library" plays in the pictured surroundings of any man prominently before the public has come to be more and more necessary. No aspiring politician is ever caught without one. Next to a scene from his lovely domestic life, with his carefully tended aged mother on one side of the fire and his wife and preternaturally clean children on the other, nothing is more telling in a hard-fought campaign than a view of him in his library in deep communion with Justinian, Machiavelli, Grotius, Montesquieu, Burke, Hamilton, Story, and a copy of the paper in which the picture appears. The absolutely essential place of a library among the stage properties of a political "sage" is too well known to require more than mention. Even editors have had libraries attributed to them in the popular prints, but public taste, we are sorry to say, has not yet been educated up to the point of seeing any *vraisemblance* in this rather feeble attempt at illusion. Quite a neat thing in the library line was fathered upon a judge of this city the other day, with a harp standing conspicuously by the entrance. Some saw in this a design upon the Irish vote, which has so many times rung through Tara's halls; but others, more shrewdly, saw in it an arrangement for soothing, after the manner of David with Saul, a mind which much learning had made mad.

We have left ourselves no space in which to speak of the books which the libraries contain and of the amount of reading done in them by their owners. But, after all, it takes no space to tell about what does not exist. The idea of books as things to read is getting pretty dim at best, and to "libraries" of the kind we are treating it long ago ceased to have any real relation. Matthew Arnold said, despairing-

ly, that, if he lived to be eighty, he should probably be the only man in England who read anything but the newspapers and scientific reports. The prophecy has still seven years to run, but its fulfilment has already taken place in the libraries which exist only for the photographer and the smutch of publicity.

GENERAL THIÉBAULT.—II.

PARIS, November 29, 1895.

NAPOLEON was watching at Elba, with the keenest interest, the faults of the Bourbons and of the *émigrés*, and kept up secret communications with many of his partisans. At the Congress of Vienna, Prince Hardenberg and Talleyrand, "too guilty," says Thiébault, "towards Napoleon not to be the most cruel of his enemies," proposed that Napoleon should be transferred from the island of Elba to the distant island of St. Helena. In Thiébault's opinion, the Emperor had early formed the project of an expedition to France, and was only waiting for the dissolution of the Congress, for he knew that if he landed in France while the allied kings and their ambassadors were assembled, an armed coalition would be formed at once against him. But the Congress did not dissolve, and "an incident precipitated the action of Napoleon; this incident was the rebellion of Count d'Erlon and the march of this general on Paris." Thiébault's manuscript is interrupted at this point by the tearing out of nine pages. It continues with an account of the return from Elba, and the effect which this event produced in Paris. "If the Bourbons," says Thiébault, "left me no regret, Napoleon gave me no hope." He felt convinced that the return of the Emperor would only bring new misfortunes on France. "What is to be done?" was in everybody's mouth at the Tuileries, and in every house in Paris.

"On the 8th March I was at the Countess de V.'s, and, as everywhere, people spoke of this attack on a great kingdom by a single man as an astounding episode in such an extraordinary life. While it was admitted that if Napoleon was obliged to fire a single gun, he was lost, they spoke of the apprehensions caused by the troops. I said that to place a few soldiers, never mind which, in the presence of Napoleon and of the men whom he brought back with him, to bring them near enough for their faces to become visible and their voices to be heard, especially for Napoleon himself to be seen and heard, would render their defection inevitable, and that the only condition of avoiding the consequences of an irresistible attraction was to begin the fire with cannon at a great distance, for when once a drop of blood has flowed, soldiers hesitate no longer."

This idea was not followed, and, while the princes went in every direction to organize a vain resistance, Napoleon succeeded in doing what Thiébault had foreseen: he won over to his own cause, by the mere fact of his presence and of his own words, the troops which had been sent against him. On the 19th of March Thiébault went, as was usual on Sundays for the generals who were in Paris, to the Tuileries. He

"was drawn thither by the sentiment which leads people to the bed of a dying man. . . . I even shouted, like everybody, 'Vive le Roi!' when Louis XVIII. left the chapel to go to the Salon de la Paix—a hurrah of deference more than of foresight. Thinking that I had superabundantly fulfilled a conventional duty, I was about to go home when, in virtue of authority which had been given to him, Marshal Macdonald notified me that I had the command of all the troops which were on the point of being sent to Charenton, and that I should be specially intrusted with the mission of building, below the confluence of the Seine and the Marne, a bridge which would serve for the communications and even the retreat of the troops camping at Villejuif, where the headquarters was to be established. I had orders to defend and, if necessary, to blow up this bridge, as well as the bridge at Charenton, where I was at once to prepare a mine."

Thiébault recalls here the famous scene in the "Fourberies de Scapin"—"Que diable allait-il faire dans cette galère?" He felt that all was lost, and that he was sent on a fool's errand; but, he says, "whatever has even the appearance of duty has always been held sacred by me." So he went on his mission, tried in vain to find out what troops were going to Charenton, and took alone the road to that place. The Mayor was out; he chose himself a house in the village and established in it his headquarters. A young officer of artillery arrived with four guns; next came a colonel of royal volunteers; the colonel had no regiment, nor uniforms for one, nor guns, nor munitions. The few men who were with him had been picked up in the streets of Paris, and looked like thieves more than like soldiers. The Mayor arrived; he had no rations to furnish, he could procure no men for the construction of the bridge. Thiébault succeeded, with the greatest difficulty, in finding some soldiers and some workingmen, and threw his bridge across the river; he received from time to time contradictory news and orders. A regiment of cuirassiers came and placed itself in battle array near the bridge. The colonel told Thiébault that he had no further orders. A second regiment of cuirassiers arrived; its colonel, too, had no further orders. "If Napoleon," says Thiébault, "for some reason or other, had taken this road, if he had arrived before the bridge at Charenton and I had opened fire and blown up the bridge, it would not have hindered him at all; but, in the cruel hazard in which France was placed, strict obedience to the orders I had received became for me the most sacred duty of the soldier."

Napoleon did not arrive, and the cuirassiers became tired of waiting. Thiébault found himself almost alone, when he received a visit from an officer of the general staff of Paris, who wore already the tricolor cockade, and who ordered him verbally to dismiss all the officers who were with him, as well as the soldiers, and to return to his domicile in Paris. He left immediately, and, as he still retained his white cockade, he was hissed in the streets, had to dismount, and take a cab, and so return to his house by deserted ways.

"Popular exaltations have such an electric power that I had hardly left my house when I felt that I was seized by the current, and, after having gone to the hôtel of Marshal Macdonald with the idea that I was going there to give the last account of my duties to the Bourbons, I became the object of an irresistible force which took me to the Tuileries. It was a quarter past nine. Napoleon had just arrived. In the most delirious exaltation twenty thousand persons at least were pressed round the Pavilion of Flora, in the staircases, and in the apartments where I thought I should never arrive. On leaving his carriage the Emperor had been seized and carried bodily to the drawing-rooms. Those who carried him were half mad; a thousand others boasted of having kissed or touched his clothes."

We pass over many details of this famous scene, which Thiébault compares to "the resurrection of Christ." Napoleon recognized him in the midst of the crowd, "and, having accompanied my name with a nod of his head and a gracious smile, he was able to read my emotion in my face. And still three hours had hardly passed when, a soldier of the Bourbons, I had my guns directed against him; but now it seemed to me that I had become French again." If you remember how Thiébault changed his mind in his early youth, and how suddenly, under the impulse of a popular demonstration, he became one of the combatants of the Bastile, you will acknowledge that age had taken nothing from his impulsiveness. At any rate, he was not a hypocrite nor a trimmer; he was not among those whom Lafontaine speaks of in one of his fables as saying by turns "Vive le Roi!" and "Vive la Ligue!" and who are typified in England by the Vicar of Bray. Thiébault was candid, and did not look after his own interests; in fact, he generally compromised all his interests by his actions. He had served the Bourbons as a soldier, though he hated their rule and their persons; but Napoleon was always his idol, though never one of his favorites.

The great event of Napoleon's return was announced very laconically to France in the *Moniteur:* "The King and the princes left last night. His Majesty the Emperor arrived this evening." The impression in Paris was as great as that produced by the return of Bonaparte from Egypt, and, if we may believe Thiébault, "never did Napoleon exercise a greater moral influence." He blames him for having lost too much time in trying to negotiate with Europe, and in framing a useless and impracticable constitution; he gave time to the Allies while he continued to play the part of a sovereign at the Tuileries. On the 28th of March Thiébault received a visit from the Councillor of State Maret, who told him that his conduct at Charenton had been unfavorably noticed, that he had personal enemies in Berthier, the Prince of Neuchâtel, and in the Prince d'Eckmühl, and he advised him to write a letter to the Emperor, assuring him of his devotion, a duplicate of which letter should be left with the Minister of War. Thiébault wrote the letter, under the influence of the brother of the Duke de Bassano; he considered the advice given to him almost as an order; he little foresaw what consequences it would have for him afterwards.

The news from Europe became more and more disquieting; Thiébault was at the Élysée, the residence which Napoleon adopted during the Hundred Days, when the Emperor heard of the death of Berthier, by a fall from a balcony in the castle of Bamberg, owing to a stroke of apoplexy (such, at least, is the more likely version). "I never saw Napoleon so sad; he spent a whole hour in a little drawing-room next to the room where we were admitted. His face was contracted, his attitude sombre, his words briefer than was his custom. His proud head was drooping, his aspect had something sinister, and his gestures something convulsive." Berthier had abandoned at Fontainebleau the cause of the master whom he had served for fifteen years, but Napoleon could not forget the immense services of his chief of staff. The letters which Napoleon had addressed to all the sovereigns of Europe had not been answered nor even received; Murat had been defeated and dethroned. Napoleon tried, *in extremis*, a new system of government, and gratified France with the *Articles additionnels*, a liberal supplement to the Constitution of the Empire; he succeeded only in furnishing arms to his enemies.

On the 10th of June Thiébault went to the last reception which Napoleon held at the Tuileries:

"My gaze was fixed on him with all the more avidity, I might say pain; the more I examined him, the less I succeeded in finding him such

as I had known him at the time of his strength and his greatness. His look, once so formidable and so scrutinizing, had lost its power and its fixity; his face, which I had so often seen radiant with grace or modelled in bronze, had lost all expression, all character of strength; his contracted mouth had no longer its ancient beauty; his head had ceased to have the bearing which characterized the master of the world; his walk was as embarrassed as his countenance, and his gestures were uncertain. Everything about him was demoralized; the ordinary pallor of his complexion had taken on a pronounced greenish tint. Oh! what had become of the conqueror of Italy?"

Here Thiébault launches into a sort of panegyric, and pictures at length the Napoleon of the heroic times, especially in his dealings with his army.

When Napoleon left Paris, a great void seemed to have been formed. Everybody was waiting for the end, and felt that it could not be much deferred. On the 21st of June, Thiébault was approached by the Count de Valence, who had command of the first corps of the reserve, and offered him one of his divisions. His headquarters was set up at Montrouge: he had not yet seen any of his troops arrive when a captain entered his room, and, with an utterly disturbed face, screamed to him, "All is lost!" The news of Waterloo had just arrived, Napoleon was coming back to Paris. We will not follow Thiébault in his long analysis of the battle of Waterloo, and his criticisms of Napoleon and his generals. He went to the Élysée, and found it deserted. He saw Napoleon, and, saluting him more profoundly than usual, "Sire," said he, "let me offer you the expression of my deep and respectful devotion." "It is of France," said the Emperor, "that you must now think." He looked a moment at him, and turned to another person. And these were the last words exchanged between Napoleon and Thiébault. The rest is well known.

We have dilated chiefly on the parts of this history in which Thiébault appears in person. His memoirs will furnish the student with some valuable traits in the ever memorable physiognomy of Napoleon.

Correspondence.

THE OPPORTUNITY FOR A STATESMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you let me call the attention of your readers to the impressive declaration of an educated and able professional man, a Sioux Indian, Dr. Charles A. Eastman, as to the terrible and swift decay of his people under the existing system of Indian administration? In a recent address Dr. Eastman, who is a man of thirty or thereabout, is reported as saying:

"The great trouble with our young men to-day is, that they have been precipitated into modern civilization with such suddenness that they have absorbed most of the evil of it and little of the good. They are mostly drunkards, rushers, and idlers, and are physical and moral degenerates. They are not the same men that the Indians of my day were. Then our young men thought nothing of ten and twenty-mile runs, and it was a common amusement with them to race and beat fleet ponies across the prairies. To-day you can scarcely find an Indian who can run as much as two miles, while in the old days it was nothing to do from fifty to seventy miles a day in foot travel, and to go for as many as three days and nights with out food. This difference between the Indians of old and the Indians of to-day only serves to illustrate the fact that the race has degenerated physically and morally since civilization has been thrust upon it.

"They say that the Indian is dying away. If the Indian is, it is a good thing. What we want to save is the man, the good in the young men, and by doing that we save the race. It is going to be hard work, for the small tribes are scattered all through the West, and, harassed and driven nearly crazy as they are by the Government, it is difficult to win over their confidence. They are absolutely without ambition now. . . . To-day the race is a ruined one—ruined by civilization. Every game with them is a medium for gambling. There are none of the manly contests of the old days now. They're all beggars, too, and even the very youngest is not ashamed to ask for alms. They live only to eat and sleep, and their thoughts are always of the present. The Indian spirit is broken, and nothing but systematic work will ever revive it."

This carries with it a fearful arraignment of our Government and of most of the well-meant efforts of our people, missionaries and others, to help the Indians.

Strange is it that no statesman at Washington turns his mind and his efforts to the one thing needful—the one absolutely necessary foundation for whatsoever of good is now available for the Indians, viz.: the establishing among them of a government of law. We have stupidly taken away from them the native springs of pride and character and self-reliance—their religion, their inherited customs, their own self-government—instead of building upon these in some rational and systematic endeavor to civilize them. Never was our shameful treatment of the tribal Indians more shameful and inexcusable than it is to-day, for now, within the last ten years, we know just how full and absolute our legal power over them is, and yet we neglect and refuse to use it for their good, and go on denying them a government of law, and keeping them outside the protection of the Constitution of the United States.

It is said that at Washington there are many young men just coming into Congress. Would to God that some of them would turn their attention to this matter, and bring blessing and honor upon their names by forcing upon the Government a speedy change in all this business. Two or three determined men in Congress could accomplish it. The time is fully ripe. James B. Thayer.

Cambridge, December 8, 1895.

OF THE EARTH, EARTHY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Wm. Hamilton Gibson's latest book, 'Our Edible Toadstools and Mushrooms,' a famous phrase is misquoted and given a prominent place. "For those who do hunger after the earthlie excrescences called mushrooms," his book is intended. On page 1578 of Thomas Johnson's edition (1633 or 1636) of Gerard's 'The Herball, or Generall Historie of Plants' are found these words: ". . . many that have both [*i. e.*, fish, and birds of the mountaines] do hunger after the earthie excrescences, called Mushrumes." Whether Gerard's own first edition (1597) says "earthlie" or "earthie" I cannot state. However, many of the current forms of this oft-quoted phrase fail in several points to preserve some of the original quaintness and piquancy of flavor.

Wilhelm Miller.

Cornell University, December 9, 1895.

THE CONGRESSIONAL CHAPLAINCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of your remarks relating to the disgusting exhibition by the new Congressional chaplain in offering a political prayer, the question arises, Why should there be such an officer at all? It is notorious that but few are present when the prayer is offered, and that even these few do not listen to the invocation. The writer has seen Congressmen engaged in any number of unedifying proceedings while prayer was being offered, and the thought arises that the cure for these things is not criticism, but abolition. While here in Massachusetts the thing is not so distressing on the political side, we have nevertheless within two years been treated to the ridiculous performance of the publication of 'The Chaplain's Prayers,' with the picture and biography of said chaplain attached. Nobody, as it seems to me, can feel more truly humiliated by these exhibitions than the people who believe in prayer and have an honest regard for the institutes of religion. While few bodies under the sun stand in greater need of divine help and rescue than the average Congress, the chaplaincy has long since become a scandal and an impertinence. It should be abolished.

Yours sincerely, A. A. Berle.

The Brighton Congregational Church,
Boston, December 14, 1895.

THE ISSUE OF LETTRES DE CACHET IN BLANK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* called attention, some time since (No. 1567, pp. 29, 30), to the attack made by M. Funck-Brentano upon the long-prevalent belief in the sale of blank *lettres de cachet* under the old régime. Very properly would he win for himself a name as a legend-killer, as there stated, could he establish that a view that had passed unquestioned into the works of Michelet, Rambaud, and Duruy, and into the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' was a baseless fabrication. Not content, however, with denying that the *sale* of blank *lettres de cachet* was practised, M. Funck-Brentano calls in question the *issue* of any such orders by the kings of France. He tells us that, having been put in charge of the archives of the Bastile, he found, in all the mass of documents that thus passed under his eyes—some sixty thousand *dossiers*, containing an innumerable quantity of letters from persons of every rank and station—application for orders of arrest, appeals for liberation, reports from ministers down to police spies—"not only no trace of any *lettres de cachet* issued in blank, but not even a hint that any such letter ever was asked for."

Now, had M. Funck-Brentano confined his statements to the eighteenth century, and especially to the second half of that century, I should not challenge the correctness of his views, although I confess that I cannot regard the quotation from the letter of the Duc de La Vrillière of the 20th of August, 1770, reproduced in the *Nation*, as "of conclusive weight." But, however this may be, I am able to furnish documentary proof that, in the reign of Louis XIV. and in the last years of the seventeenth century, *lettres de cachet in blank were both asked for and issued.*

(1.) As to *the request* for *lettres de cachet* in blank: On the 2d of February, 1700, Le Gendre, royal intendant of police, justice, and finances, at Montauban, wrote to the Contrôleur-général at court, that one of the three most promising methods of effecting the conversion of the remaining Huguenots in his généralité was to display some examples of severity toward the obstinate. "For this purpose," he added, "I have asked M. de Châ-

teauneuf [the secretary of state under whom Protestant affairs came] *for twelve lettres de cachet in blank*, which I shall use only in case of extreme need" ("Pour cela, j'ai demandé à M. de Châteauneuf douze lettres de cachet, *le nom en blanc*, dont je ne me servirai que dans l'extrême besoin." 'Correspondance des Contrôleurs-généraux des finances avec les Intendants des provinces,' published by order of the Minister of Finance, Paris, 1874, 1882, ii., 23. I have referred to this passage and to the next in my 'Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes,' ii., 144.)

A month later M. Le Gendre again communicates with the Contrôleur-général (March 3, 1700), and encloses the copy of a letter which he has sent to Châteauneuf containing these words: "I have already had the honor to write to you regarding this matter [the gift of money to help needy "new converts"] and to beg you to send me a *few lettres de cachet in blank*, the mere sight of which will cause those that may be threatened by them to tremble" ("J'ai déjà eu l'honneur de vous en écrire et de vous suplier de m'envoyer quelques lettres de cachet, le nom en blanc, dont la seule inspection fera trembler ceux qui en seront menacés."—*Ibid*, ii., 28).

(2.) As to the *issue* of *lettres de cachet* in blank: I have been unable to ascertain whether the King granted to Le Gendre, at Montauban, the blank orders which the latter requested. Happily, however, there is no doubt that the King had granted them, fifteen years before, on the eve of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, to another officious intendant. The 'Mémoires de Nicolas-Joseph Foucault,' published by the Ministry of Public Instruction in the great "Collection de documents inédits sur l'histoire de France," contain at least two distinct references to the receipt of orders granted with the ominous vacant space for the insertion of the name of the victim. Foucault had just set on foot in Béarn the "Great Dragonnades" which were soon to spread to almost every part of France. On page 124 of his 'Mémoires' we read: "On the 16th of July [1685], M. de Croissy notified me that the King had given an order to arrest Sieur Dusseau, deputy of the Protestants of Béarn, and sent me six lettres de cachet to consign [to the Bastile or elsewhere] *the gentlemen that I might think proper*" ("pour reléguer les gentilshommes que je jugerois à propos"). These letters must have been in blank in order to be used thus.

Just one month later Foucault notes again that M. de Croissy has forwarded to him *some orders of the King in blank* for the same purpose: "M. de Croissy m'a envoyé, le 16 août, des orders du roi *en blanc* pour reléguer les gentilshommes opiniâtres" (*ibid.*, p. 126).

It will be seen, therefore, that the solicitation and the grant of *lettres de cachet* was not a "legend," but an indisputable fact, in the reign of Louis XIV. Consequently the conjecture of M. Funck-Brentano as to how the "legend" arose is as superfluous as it is unsatisfactory. We are told that printed forms did not displace the *lettres de cachet* fully written out by the hand until the last years of Louis XV. Here, however, are written *lettres de cachet*, with blanks left to be filled, asked for by intendants and issued to them, as instruments of intimidation and punishment, about three-quarters of a century earlier. Moreover, nothing in the tone of Le Gendre indicates that he was proffering a novel and unprecedented request, as there is no hint in the brief memoranda of Foucault that the grant was out of the ordinary course of things.

HENRY M. BAIRD.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.

ILL-EDITED TEXT-BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While joining in "Y.'s" protest against editions with vocabularies of foreign texts for advanced students (*Nation*, Dec. 5), I beg at the same time to point out another fault deserving equally strong condemnation. I do so with the consciousness of the obligation under which teachers of modern languages are to editors and publishers for the scores, nay, hundreds, of school editions of German and French authors brought out in this country within the last dozen years—handy and attractive little volumes, many of which, because of the real value of the critical and historical introductions, and on account of the industry, scholarship, and pedagogical skill shown in the preparation of the notes, deserve the highest praise, and are equal to anything of the kind produced in any country. But some of the editors of modern-language texts have apparently gone to work without any definite idea of the help needed by the students, or, if they had a plan, have made no conscientious effort to carry it out. They have given at random a few translations of words to be found in small dictionaries, and explanations easily obtainable from the most common reference-books, but failed to elucidate passages or to comment on persons and things concerning which students not provided with a somewhat complete literary apparatus find it difficult to inform themselves. The amount of work put upon some editions of this class is hardly more than a good worker may accomplish in one summer afternoon or winter evening—certainly not sufficient to justify the editor in associating his name on the title-page with that of some great poet or historian whose pages are in some cases reprinted without having even received the necessary care of the proof-reader. It is difficult to understand why scholars of reputation and leading publishing-houses should engage in this kind of business. The least that we have a right to expect of an annotated edition is, that difficulties too great for the average student of the grade for which the volume is intended should be explained. To avoid scantiness as well as excess in the notes requires scholarship, experience, tact, and conscientiousness on the part of the annotator.

A. L.

DECEMBER 9, 1895.

ACETYLENE AND ALCOHOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A great deal has been printed in the papers lately in regard to acetylene gas, and I think it is time that chemists should characterize some of the statements made. It has been represented in the stock reports, etc., and the writer has even seen it stated or implied in the *Nation*, that acetylene could be made at such prices as to confirm its use for the manufacture of alcohol, benzole, or nitro-benzole, and aniline, from which the colors could be obtained.

Now there is just enough chemical truth in this to deceive the ignorant or the partially educated. It is true that acetylene can, to a small extent, be decomposed into benzole, that it can, by a roundabout method, be decomposed into alcohol; but it is utterly false that it can be done on any commercial scale to advantage. We might as well say that because marsh gas, which is the main constituent of the natural gas of Pennsylvania, can be decomposed by chlorine into chloride of methyl, and from that can be made into wood alcohol—we might, I say, as well advertise that alcohol can be made at fabulously cheap prices in this method, as to claim the same for acetylene.

The decomposition of water power into electricity, and that electricity into chemical energy, the use of that chemical energy to decompose a mixture of carbon and limestone, and the subsequent use of the carbide of calcium, is a very interesting, and, for some purposes, may be a useful process; but any one who will for one moment consider the matter will see that the original electricity directly converted into light must inevitably be far more economical than this very roundabout method, implying large losses in lime, in coal, and in electrical energy which are incident to the process.

To chemists who have examined the process critically and without previous bias, it seems a very great pity, if not a shame, that such an interesting chemical discovery should be so exaggerated as to become almost as much falsehood as truth. There is an old adage that "a lie that is half the truth is ever the blackest of lies."—I remain, sincerely yours,

CHEMIST.

TRADUTTORE, TRADITORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to protest against the wrong done to a great artist and a huge public. The December number of the *Century* contains an engraving, after Titian's "Flora," which has eyes out of drawing, a mouth pulled out sideways, a nostril with a mean shadow under it, and an undulating cheek-line, which turn the splendid original into a caricature. One of the pretexts for engraving rather than processing is that the tone can thus be better preserved; but while Titian's "Flora" is a blonde of the blondes, the "Flora" of the *Century* engraver is a dark woman of the Venetian type of beauty. Titian's "Flora" is fleshly, and that is already bad enough; the engraver's "Flora" is flashy as well! Why, in the name of all our duties to the public, present it with engraved caricatures when the cheapest processed reproduction of a photograph costing fifteen cents would do the original infinitely greater justice?

B. BERENSON.

FLORENCE, December 4, 1895.

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & CO. are to be the American publishers of Henry Harrisse's notable piece of research entitled, 'John Cabot, the Discoverer of North America, and Sebastian his Son: A Chapter of the Maritime History of England under the Tudors' (London: B. F. Stevens). There will be eleven maps and illustrations.

A Life of the late F. A. P. Barnard, President of Columbia College, by John Fulton, is in the Columbia University Press (Macmillan & Co.). The Life of Cardinal Newman, by Edmund Sheridan Purcell, will be issued directly by this house.

The Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo, announce 'The Man Who Became a Savage,' by the traveller and naturalist W. T. Hornaday, with illustrations by Charles B. Hudson.

Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston, will soon is-

sue 'A History of American Literature'; 'Topical Notes on American Authors'; and an autobiography of the late Dr. Ezekiel G. Robinson of Brown University.

The Appalachian Mountain Club, Boston, will publish, early in the spring, a 'Guide to Walks in the Country about Boston,' with maps and illustrations by the amateur photographers of the club.

It might well prove that the most enduring part of Robert Louis Stevenson's literary product—as of his fame—should be his 'Child's Garden of Verses.' An edition of it to be recommended in every way has just been brought out by Charles Scribner's Sons in conjunction with the London publisher John Lane. An artist, Charles Robinson, possessing a graceful fancy and a sure decorative sense, has supplied a profusion of illustrations and embellishments. The letter-press is beautiful, and the blue-and-gold binding in excellent keeping with the contents.

Mr. Austin Dobson's 'Story of Rosina, and Other Verses' has been given to Hugh Thomson to illustrate, and to Dodd, Mead & Co. for their imprint. Mr. Thomson is not quite equal to the pathetic demands of the title-poem, but the humorous and the pastoral effects he matches well enough with his practised pencil, and his headpieces are uniformly pleasing and ingenious. Here too we have a rich and becoming binding.

In line with the foregoing is 'The *Spectator* in London' (Macmillan), with illustrations by Ralph Cleaver. The selection has been made with a view to offsetting the Sir Roger de Coverley scenes of country life in the eighteenth century, and hence is concerned with the town life of the day of Steele and Addison. Mr. Cleaver is but ill-equipped for his task from an antiquarian or an artistic point of view, and for the most part one turns from his drawings of the human figure to his headpieces for their architectural or landscape motives. The reader's imagination needs no extraneous support for the enjoyment of the excerpts from the *Spectator*.

A rubricated selection of 'Thoughts from the Writings of Richard Jefferies,' by H. S. H. Waylen, in plain bold type (but with too long a list of acknowledged errata), comes to us from the Longmans. It well exemplifies the style and the intellectual habit of the lamented author, and has the quality of an acceptable gift-book, without and within.

The aid of the De Vinne Press, parchment paper, vellum covers, and a limited edition, do not, in our judgment, redeem from shortcoming Mr. George Wharton Edwards's attempt to illustrate Spenser's 'Epithalamion' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). This archaism was worth while only for a master, and in Mr. Edwards's work one sees here much that is amateurish in form and unlovely in composition—even amusing, as in the foreshortening of the poet's leg on the title-page, and the leg-like curve of the turfy oval behind the reclining figure; or as in the seemingly unrooted and volant trees in the design facing the stanza, "But if ye saw that which no eyes can see." Still, there is the immortal verse in strong print.

'The Gillmans of Highgate,' by Alexander W. Gillman, makes a promise on the title-page which is broken in the fifty quarto pages following. The new letters from Coleridge are few, and add little to our previous knowledge. The author, or editor, is a grandson of Coleridge's friend James Gillman, with whom the poet lived for eighteen years before his death, tenderly cared for by Dr. Gillman and his wife. The apparent motive of the book (an extract from a genealogy, yet to be published) is to glorify the Gillman family by the reflected light of that kind behavior. But this, the beauty of which was most remarkable, has had ample justice done to it by Coleridge's various biographers. No man ever needed more such kindness as he received, but there is no reason why it should be counted to the descendants of the Highgate Gillmans for righteousness. Their son James had the doubtful distinction of being one of the founders of the first society for insuring children's lives. Two mooted points are set at rest by Mr. Alexander Gillman to his own satisfaction. Coleridge, he assures us, was entirely cured of the opium habit at Highgate, and, except at the beginning, he was wholly dependent on the Gillmans for his support. His evidence for either statement is inconclusive. The illustrations are interesting, even when most familiar.

'Algerian Memories,' by Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman (London: T. F. Unwin; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), is one of an increasing number of works due to the use of two recent inventions, the bicycle and the kodak. Such works are not likely to be of any great or lasting value, and the present one is slight enough. The incidents described are not very exciting, nor is the ground traversed particularly new; still, the book can be read through in two or three hours without fatigue, in spite of the occasional clumsiness of the style. What shall we say to the word "kodakist"! The last two chapters are the best because the least hurried.

'Among the Pueblo Indians' is the title of a small volume, issued by the Merriam Co. of New York, in which Carl and Lillian Westcott Eickemeyer tell of a visit which they made to certain villages in the neighborhood of Santa Fé. There is nothing new in the story, unless the account of the game of "gallo" which they saw played on San Juan's day, in the village of Cochiti, can be so considered. In one portion of the game "a living rooster [*gallo*] was buried in the sand" up to the neck, and the object of the player as he rode by was to "catch the bird" and bear it off to his home. Evidently this is the game of "gander-pulling," well known in early times in portions of the South and West; the only difference being that with us the bird was hung by the legs to a cross-piece and the riders "grabbed for the head" as they galloped by under the pole. Whether the Indians borrowed the game from their Spanish neighbors, if indeed they had it, or from ourselves, we cannot say, but that they did borrow it, is, we think, beyond all question. In conclusion, a word of commendation for the way in which this little volume is issued may not be out of place. It is printed on good paper, with broad margins, and the illustrations, taken from photographs, give an excellent idea of the natural scenery and of certain phases of Indian life. There is an occasional defect of idiom, *e. g.*, on pp. 49, 50, where we have the expression "struck camp," when pitched camp or simply camped was meant; and, on p. 114, the crowd is told to "stand by" instead of stand or fall back.

Pedro Sarmiento, one of the foremost navigators of the sixteenth century, is best known for his exploration of the Straits of Magellan and his unfortunate attempt to make a settlement in those inhospitable regions. His accounts of his several expeditions for this purpose are now for the first time translated from their Spanish originals, recently brought to light, by Mr. C. R. Markham, and published as the ninety-first volume of the works issued by the Hakluyt Society ('Narratives of the Voyages of Pedro Sarmiento de Gamboa to the Straits of Magellan'). He appears to have been a man of great courage and resource, and his story, told most simply, reads like a romance. It ends with a pathetic account of his imprisonment in a French dungeon immediately after his release from captivity in England. Mr. Markham, the most competent of Englishmen for his task, has translated the various narratives and reports into terse Elizabethan English, and has added many valuable notes. There is an excellent index and three admirable maps.

P. Anderson Graham's 'Country Pastimes for Boys' (Longmans) is the fourth of a series of books intended for the use of boys happy enough to live in the country, and devoted to sports, popular natural history, etc. The book is adapted to country life in Great Britain, treating of British birds, animals, and plants, a large proportion of which are unknown on this side of the ocean, or which live here under very different conditions. For the English boy nothing, it would seem, could be better done, and we can only regret that a similar book from an American standpoint is not yet accessible. However, even for the American boy there is much of interest and value to be had by discriminating reading; and it would prove interesting to almost any bright youngster to endeavor to compare the habits of our wild birds and beasts with those of the British islands which are here so well described. The book is handsomely printed; many of the illustrations being of an unusual degree of excellence.

Col. Thomas W. Knox, in his 'Boy's Life of Gen. Grant' (The Merriam Co.), tells the story of our great general's military career in a simple, straightforward way which cannot fail to win the interest of his readers. The narrative shows marks of hasty writing, however, and is too eulogistic to be entirely trustworthy. The illustrations are most of them poor, and one at least, representing the Battle of Fredericksburg (p. 287), has no place in the book.

Part vii. of *Bibliographica* (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners) has a remarkably substantial table of contents, beginning with a paper on "Venetian Ducali," by Mr. John W. Bradley. The MSS. so called consisted of certain oaths, diplomas, statutory commissions, or collections of regulations of the *Scuole*, and apparently made such a claim on the resources of the penman and miniaturist as to account for "the almost entire absence of native liturgical MSS., at least of a sumptuous kind." Some very fine specimens accompany the paper. Mr. W. H. Allnutt continues his series on "English Provincial Presses"; Sir E. Maunde Thompson exemplifies "The Grotesque and the Humorous in Illuminations of the Middle Ages"; Mr. Russell Martineau offers some Notes on the Latin Bible of 42 lines (1455), the result of a very patient collation of several copies, and subjoins variations of reading which demonstrate a resetting of the type. Mr. Alfred W. Pollard's "Transference of Woodcuts in the 15th and 16th Centuries" opens up a curious chapter in the history of book-illustration. The number concludes with an account of some American book clubs.

The Fifth Part of "Archæologia Oxoniensis" (London and Oxford: Frowde), lately received, is a very satisfactory eighteenpennyworth. Besides a paper on the architecture of the Bodleian Library, and a plate of a vaulted cellar that once belonged to the Oxford merchant gild, there is an account of a fresh discovery of British remains. Of the two skele-

tons found together, one is dolichocephalic, and therefore assigned by the editor to the "Iberian" race; the other hyper-brachycephalic, and accordingly set down as "Celtic." The editor gravely remarks that the presence of oyster-shells and of a coin of Antoninus would appear to indicate "friendly intercourse" between the races.

In the December number of the *New England Magazine* Mr. Abram English Brown makes a strong argument in favor of identifying the builder of the Old South Church in Boston with Joshua Blanchard Blanchard's journal is reproduced, with this entry: "1729, Aprell the 1st. I with other layd the foundation of the South Brick meeting house and finished the Brick ye 8th of Octr. following." And photographs are shown of the northeast cornerstone inscribed "I. B., 1729," a flaw in the stone giving to the I an appearance of an L, for which the letter has commonly been mistaken. Mr. Blanchard is also, on good ground, thought to have had a hand in building the original Faneuil Hall.

A much more extensive and important diary (1764–1779), that of John Rowe, a wealthy and prominent Boston merchant, formed the subject of a paper read by Sumner's biographer, Mr. Edward L. Pierce, in March last before the Massachusetts Historical Society, and lately printed in advance of the Proceedings. Mr. Pierce treats it skilfully by analyzing its contents under numerous heads, political, social, historical; and then makes further continuous excerpts without comment. Rowe's name has been perpetuated in Rowe Street, which ran through his three-acre farm in the heart of Boston. He owned one of the tea-ships, and joined in the patriotic protests against England's restrictions on American trade, but, churchman as he was, he deprecated armed resistance or separation. His diary fills some gaps in local Revolutionary annals, and is a good mirror of the manners and customs of his day. In particular, Mr. Pierce lays stress on the evidences of the rule of the mob in Boston.

The *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for December has for its principal document Judge O. W. Holmes's address on "The Soldier's Faith" at Sanders Theatre on Decoration Day, in which a fine style competes with bad ethics for our admiration. An LL.D. of both Yale and Harvard, Judge Holmes finds it easy to approve of dangerous sports. Dr. Royce, on the other hand, in the same number, referring to Prof. Ladd of Yale taking Prof. Palmer's place once a week in the Harvard Ethical Seminary, makes this more humanizing comment: "There is a not unphilosophical satisfaction in the thought that, at the very moment when the athletic relations of Yale and Harvard are so unenjoyable, and when, in consequence of this fact, many hearts besides those of the athletes themselves are troubled with thoughts of estrangement and of misunderstanding, the philosophical departments of the two institutions are finding just the present sort of coöperation so natural and so effective in meeting our own needs." A report from Radcliffe College shows a total of 344 students, of which the graduate portion is drawn from a much wider radius than the undergraduate. The Divinity School now embraces a plurality of orthodox Congregational students—a fact likely to please neither Unitarians nor Orthodox. The building for the Fogg Art Museum (shown photographically) comes in for further censure for its defects. Judge Richardson makes another assault on the continued use of Latin as the official language of the University. The familiar Copley portrait of Nicholas Boylston has been chosen for reproduction in this number.

The larger part of the contents of the Boston Public Library Bulletin for July and October consists of the titles of works in the Russian and German languages. A continuation of the chronological index of historical fiction includes the countries of eastern Europe, and it is rather surprising to see how meagre the list is, the entries under the Eastern Empire and Turkey consisting largely of dramas, and those under Servia of collections of songs. There follows a useful catalogue of German fiction in the library, under both authors and titles, as well as English translations; and the last two years' accessions of English fiction are recorded.

The "Almanach Hachette" for 1896 has made its appearance. Its matter and its illustrations are all new, and it offers many prizes available to such of its readers as happen to be in Paris. To the outer world it presents 500 pages of useful information, closely but clearly printed, with 1,500 illustrations and ten maps. Its buyer receives good value for the 1 fr. 50c. which it costs him.

M. Salomon Reinach has just sent his "lettre de candidature" to the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-lettres for the place made vacant by the death of M. Derenbourg. Other candidates are the Marquis de Beaucourt, Prof. Cagnat of the Collège de France, and Prof. Devéria of the École des Langues Orientales.

At the session of the Académie des Inscriptions of November 23, M. Léopold Delisle read a communication on an interesting bibliographical discovery which has just been made at Lyons. The library of that city possesses a very precious manuscript containing a Latin version of the Pentateuch which is earlier in date than the Vulgate. At the book-sale after the recent death of M. de Verna, there was offered a manuscript containing in three columns a Latin Biblical text in uncial characters which is the exact continuation of that of the codex in the library. It contains the Book of Joshua and the Judges almost complete. There is no doubt that the sheets found in M. de Verna's collection belonged originally to the library manuscript. The first page of the Verna completes a phrase begun on the last page of the principal codex. All the characteristic signs in the two are exactly alike. How the manuscript came into the possession of M. de Verna is not known. The main body of the Lyons codex was conveyed away some years ago by the too celebrated collector Libri, who sold it to Lord Ashburnham, by whom it was returned to the library. The Lyons Pentateuch has now become a Heptateuch, and Biblical critics have a new text of a version which is earlier than that of St. Jerome. M. Ulysse Robert, who has already admirably edited the Codex Lugdunensis, will without delay proceed to publish this precious addition to it.

—Dr. T. Berry Haycraft, in a brief communication in *Natural Science*, points out the fundamental difference which exists between organic individuals and inorganic objects in respect of the distribution of variation in their qualities. As first established by Quetelet, the measurable qualities of every living species, whether of animals or of plants, are regularly distributed about a mean. Take the height of a given race of men, the quality for which Quetelet first laid down his law: the greatest number of men are of average height, many are just above or just below it, and fewer and fewer are found at heights further and further removed from the average. If we lay off along a horizontal line distances representing the different heights, and erect at each of the distances perpendicular lines proportional to the number of individuals of that height, the tops of these perpendiculars will lie in a regular curve, which is symmetrical on both sides of the mean, and which is known as the curve of deviation from an average. But if the quality measured is a quality of inanimate objects, as for instance the weight of a thousand stones picked up at hazard on a beach, this symmetrical deviation about a mean does not exist. Dr. Haycraft suggests the constant death and sexual reproduction of living objects as the cause of this peculiarity; and as the peculiarity is an extremely desirable one in cases of an unchanging environment, he believes that he has here hit upon the essential function of sex. Interbreeding is a result attainable by sexual reproduction alone. The products of asexual reproduction are offspring which start on deviating lines, and never mix their qualities with those of their mates so long as asexual multiplication continues; but the progeny of a sexual union, as Galton has pointed out in his 'Natural Inheritance,' approaches even nearer to the mean type, or mid-species, than does the mid-parent itself. The rôle of sex Dr. Haycraft therefore finds to be the preservation of the average individual in face of a progressive tendency to variation, and he finds it curious that writers on the utility of sex should have overlooked so obvious a suggestion.

—Every evening for about two months M. Henri Rochefort has produced an instalment of his very entertaining memoirs in the *Jour* newspaper. These memoirs are, as was to be expected, not exactly gentle in tone, nor distinguished by moderation or by calm justice, but they are full of life and force, and present a vigorous portrait of what M. Rochefort has been, and, perhaps, in some regards what he wishes he had been. One incident of his early life is presented advantageously to himself, as appears from an article by M. Charles Maurras in the *Revue Encyclopédique*. M. Rochefort tells the story of a visit which Mgr. Sibour, the newly appointed Archbishop of Paris, made to the Lycée Saint-Louis not long after the days of June, 1848. The young republican was appointed to deliver an address in verse to the prelate. Machiavellian beyond his years, he delayed handing in any copy of his verses until the very moment of their delivery. Then he rose, he says, and broke out into a revolutionary pæan which almost caused his masters and the professors to sweat blood. Especially he urged that protection and care should be given to the children of those who had been executed. After all these years, four verses of the poem, which give an idea of its general tone, remain vividly in his mind:

> "Sans savoir si le père, accourant au péril,
> Et bravant l'échafaud pour prendre le fusil,
> Fut responsable ou non de la guerre civile,
> À ses fils orphelins vous offrez un asile."

M. Maurras finds that the manuscript of Rochefort's poem has been carefully preserved, and he gives in the *Revue* a photographic reproduction of it, in the strikingly handsome handwriting of its young author and signed by him. The real text differs sensibly from Rochefort's account of it. There is no republican severity in it, no protest against the scaffold, no talk of the "fusil" of the insurgent; while about the children of the condemned he roars you as gently as any sucking dove. Not one of the lines which M. Rochefort quotes appears in the manuscript, nor is

there anything in it which resembles them. M. Maurras says that he will leave this discrepancy for future historians to settle. It may be possible that the young Tyrtaeus, inspired by the moment, put his manuscript aside and burst into strains of unpremeditated art.

—The *North China Daily News* reports, in one of its latest issues, that the Rev. Timothy Richard is now in Pekin making arrangements for starting there a Chinese daily paper in the native tongue, and that he has the hearty support of many distinguished imperial courtiers. It was also added that the Emperor, on being informed of the project, was much pleased, hoping that, when it was realized, he should be early apprised of what is going on in the world, without being dependent on court gossip or the uncertain memorials of his ministers. A correspondent of the *Nation* who was in Canton five years ago found there such a paper printed in Chinese, already several years old and flourishing. Its editor, a native Chinese, had worked for five years on a newspaper in Hartford, Conn., and so become thoroughly furnished for his enterprise. Many of our readers must learn with surprise that the *China Mail*, an English newspaper at Hong Kong, has already attained to its jubilee year, and especially that the *China Review*, published bi-monthly in the same city, has reached its twenty-first volume. This publication, though mainly in English, receives contributions in Chinese, Latin, and the languages of southern Europe. Besides original articles on all subjects of special Oriental interest, the three chief departments are Correspondence, Notes and Queries, and Reviews of New Books. The subscription price is $6.50. Among the principal contributors are officers in the Imperial Customs Corps and in all the foreign consulates, as well as missionaries of every denomination—a truly cosmopolitan staff. Thus, the *China Review*, in regard to China and the neighboring countries, occupies a position analogous to that which has been filled in India by the *Calcutta Review*.

—At a general conference of the German *Sittlichkeitsvereine* it was resolved to make a thorough investigation of the moral condition of the Protestant population of Germany, and to this end circulars of inquiry containing a series of pertinent questions were sent to the evangelical clergy. About 900 answers have been received, and the results of the inquest published by Pastors H. Wittenberg and E. Hückstädt in a volume entitled 'Die Geschlechtlich sittlichen Verhältnisse der Evangelischen Landbewohner im Deutschen Reich' (Leipzig: Werther). The researches embodied in this volume are confined to East Germany. A second and concluding volume, comprising Middle, West, and South Germany, and compiled by Pastor E. Wagner, will be issued in the spring of 1896. The report is rather meagre in regard to the higher and so-called cultured classes and nobles, whose morals are known to be extremely lax, and among whom, as Prof. Ziegler of Strassburg has recently asserted, licentiousness is "in vogue." The chastest part of the population is the peasantry, wherever it has preserved its peculiar character, as in Holstein and portions of Pomerania, Brandenburg, and Saxony; but the working classes in general, both industrial and agricultural, are notoriously lewd, and violate the sixth commandment without the slightest compunction. It appears also from the report that the church exerts no perceptible influence in promoting purity of life, but that this depends almost wholly upon external circumstances and specifically economical conditions. Particular mention is made of the wretched dwellings, in which families herd together, as a prolific source of sexual immorality. The evil is not confined to overcrowded cities, but extends even to the remotest rural districts. This is especially true of the great landed estates in New Pomerania and Mecklenburg, where the feudal spirit still prevails and the peasants are in a state of semi serfdom. "One hardly knows whether to be more astonished at the indifference and shortsightedness of the proprietors who venture to offer such dwellings to their laborers, or at the indolence and degradation of the laborers who do not refuse to live in habitations so unfit for human beings." Another source of corruption is the army, with the false notions of manliness prevailing in the barracks. A soldier who keeps himself sexually pure is regarded by his comrades as "kein rechter Kerl," a fellow of no account. In this respect the rank and file merely adopt the code of morals and ideas of honor by which their officers are governed. As the result of this "education and habituation to unchastity," the recruit, after the expiration of his term of service, is apt to return home morally debauched and often physically infected.

—The neatest novelty in American aboriginal literature is a "Journey to the Country of the Manzaneros," a short historic relation in the Huilli-che dialect, Araucan language, dictated by the Indian Domingo Quintuprai to Prof. Rodolfo Lenz in Santiago, Chili. In 1871 this Chilian native undertook to bring a large cargo of brandy across the high Andes ridge to the Manzaneros, or "Apple-Orchard" Indians, as an object of trade, and for this purpose started with a considerable retinue of men and sumpter horses. The journey was perilous and not favored by the state of the weather. The crossing of the mountain creeks became peculiarly distressing, and several of the men and beasts perished on such occasions, chiefly because the men could not be kept sober all the time. The Indian narrative, from the mouth of Quintuprai, is made intelligible by Lenz's Spanish translation standing in the column opposite, and by the marginal notes, of a philological nature, added at the bottom of each page. The details of this "alcoholic" expedition are full of ethnographic interest, especially the colloquial paragraphs, in which conversations with people met on the road are quaintly reported. The dialect is of a vocalic nature, and many sounds in it are not found in European languages. Dr. R. Lenz, who is professor of the Instituto Pedagógico at Santiago, has published this "Viaje" in the ninetieth volume of the *Anales* of the University of Chili. It fills twenty-nine pages.

THE GOLD OF AFRICA.

The Gold Mines of the Rand: Being a Description of the Mining Industry of Witwatersrand, South African Republic. By Frederick H. Hatch (mining engineer) and J. A. Chalmers (mining engineer). Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 306. With maps, plans, and illustrations.

Two books upon the South African gold fields have already been noticed in these columns. Both were by Germans and in the German language, and the observations upon which the last of these (that of Bergrath Schmeisser) was based were made in the summer and autumn of 1893. The English work before us gives data and statistics up to June, 1895. The senior author was once a member of the Geological Survey of Great Britain, and, during his stay in South Africa, has been closely associated with the young American mining engineer John Hays Hammond, who, according to common report, is the leading authority upon gold mining in the region; his professional services being valued at $60,000 per annum. Mr. Hammond contributes a few pages in the preface "upon the future of the Rand," which end with the following words: "I would regard as well within the bounds of conservatism the prediction that the annual output before the end of the century will exceed £20,000,000 sterling worth of gold." Mr. Hatch, in his introductory chapter, increases this estimate to £26,000,000 for the beginning of the next century, and adds that for the whole district, including outlying portions, a total production may be expected of upwards of £700,000,000, of which amount he later estimates that £200,000,000 will be profit.

If one were to judge the book by these quotations alone, he might be led to suspect that it was written in the interest of promoters of "Kaffir" companies on the London market. It is, however, a scientific exposition, giving the geological relations of the ore-bearing conglomerates of the Rand, so far as known at present; some "particulars" about the most important mines; what is known and logically surmised with regard to the continuance of the ore-bodies in depth; the methods of mining and the machinery (largely of American model) used in extracting the ore; the metallurgical treatment, including milling, chlorination, and cyaniding; the economics of the mines, *i. e.*, costs of mining and reduction; mining laws of the Republic; and, finally, gold production and dividends. All these are subjects upon which those practically interested in mines, either professionally or as owners of mining property, are glad to obtain trustworthy information, and that given by Mr. Hatch and his collaborator bears internal evidence of being carefully and intelligently compiled, and is rendered more clear by abundant and excellently executed illustrations. To be sure, our authors show here and there a trace of the national conservatism and want of familiarity with what is going on outside of "Greater Britain," as when, for instance, in discussing the probable depths at which it will be impracticable to carry on mining in the future, on account of the great subterranean heat, they not only reproduce the long since disproved theory of Church that the heat in the Comstock mines is produced by the kaolinization of the feldspars, but put it forward to account for the great heat in Mexican mines.

The general reader will, however, be less interested in the many technical details than in the general phenomena relative to the future production of the region, and in the effect which this production is likely to have upon the finances of the world. The gold-bearing conglomerates of the Rand—locally known as "reefs" (the Australian term for lodes), or "bankets" (a Dutch name for a kind of almond cake)—are found over an area of about 2,000 square miles, in which they have a general basin structure or inclination towards the middle of the area. Where mining is most actively carried on, its width from Johannesburg on the northern rim to Heidelberg on the south is over twenty-five miles. In the central section of the Rand, on the Johannesburg side,

where an almost continuous series of mines stretches eleven and one-half miles east and west, the beds are inclined (or dip) from the surface southward at very steep angles, varying from 25° to 80°, but averaging over 45° to the horizon. So steep a dip, if continued, would rapidly carry the beds beyond the limits of practical mining; but exploration, by actual mine workings, and by drilling at various points to the south of the mine workings and to vertical depths of more than 2,000 feet, has shown that the angle of dip decreases in depth very rapidly, though not uniformly, and at the depths now reached is about 25° or even less. It is readily seen that the question whether this angle of dip continues to decrease in depth or not, is one of vital importance for the future of the district, being one of those upon which the extent to which it will be practicable to mine the beds at a profit depends. The deepest mines in the world, outside of the copper region of Lake Superior, have reached depths of 3,000 to 3,500 feet, and in the Lake Superior region, where the increase of temperature with depth is unusually small, some shafts have already been sunk to still greater depths, and are planned to go to 5,000 and 6,000 feet. The rate of increase of temperature with depth in the Rand has not yet been definitely determined, but the indications are that it is rather below than above the normal.

The conglomerates of the Rand have many characteristics in common with those of Lake Superior — their steep initial dip, the occurrence of the valuable metal in the matrix and not in the pebbles, and the association of basic igneous rocks with the water-laid gravels. The principal differences are, that the valuable metal is gold instead of copper; that the metal-bearing beds are more numerous; that, while the Lake Superior beds are more uniform in angle of dip and less broken by faults and dikes, there is no definite evidence of basin structure—the other rim of the basin, if it exists, lying beneath the waters of the lake. Furthermore, geologists have proved that the copper was introduced into the Lake Superior conglomerates after they had been deposited and consolidated into rock, whereas many have maintained with regard to the "bankets" of the Rand that they are fossil placers resulting from the concentration, by ocean waves, of detritus from a shore of older rocks which contained abundant gold-bearing quartz veins. This consideration introduces another question which has an important bearing upon the future of the Rand. If the deposits are old placers, it is natural to expect that the gold will be found in them only in a belt of limited width along the ancient shore, whereas if it was introduced subsequently by chemical action—a theory which, according to Mr. Hatch, now finds most favor among the geologists of the region—the limitation to the extent of the gold-bearing deposits would have no relation whatever to the distance from the ancient shore or the depth at which they now exist. This question, even more than the others, is one to which a final answer can be obtained only by practical work. At present the conglomerate beds have been explored by drifts and by drills for a distance down the dip of about 8,000 feet from the outcrop, which may represent approximately the ancient shore line, and in this distance there is no evidence of any regular decrease in the richness of the conglomerate; indeed, the evidence, as far as it is furnished by the few points penetrated by drills, is rather the other way.

The average depth at which the outcrop mines are working is given at 800 to 900 feet on the slope of the reefs. The workings of some of the deep-level mines, or those which, like the Tamarack of Lake Superior, do not own the outcrop, are down over 2,000 feet on the slope. In this depth and over the longitudinal extent of 11½ miles occupied by the mines of the central district of the Rand, the tenor of the conglomerates in gold, though varying from point to point and from bed to bed, appears to be unusually uniform as compared with other great metalliferous deposits. The seventy-eight mines in this portion of the district had produced, according to Mr. Hatch's tables, from 1887 to the middle of 1895, gold worth over twenty four and a half million pounds sterling. The thirty-seven dividend paying mines in this group had paid in the same time over five and a half million pounds in dividends, while the dividend for the current year (1895) is estimated at over £2,000,000, or $10,000,000. Individual mines have paid dividends in several cases amounting to two and a half times, and, in a few, to more than five times their capital stock. With such facts as a basis for calculation, it is not to be wondered at that men's imaginations were easily worked upon, and that when once speculation in mine shares was fairly started, it went beyond bounds. From Mr. Hatch's tables we learn that, of one hundred and one mines quoted on the Johannesburg Exchange, the par value of whose issued stock was under nineteen million pounds, the market price of their shares had risen in June, 1895, to nearly eighty-two million pounds. This does not include all the mines floated on the London Stock Exchange which are classed under the general head of "Kaffirs," nor does it represent adequately the proportionate increase in market valuation of the latter, which, from newspaper accounts, would appear to have discounted the product of the region for the next fifty years—the probable duration accorded to it by the present authors. It is a pity that so unhealthy an excitement should have been aroused, and still more that, as report says, quite worthless properties have been capitalized and foisted upon a confiding and ignorant public, where there is so much ground for legitimate and substantial investments. But, while the reaction that must necessarily follow the pricking of these bubbles may temporarily retard legitimate mining in the Transvaal, it must be remembered that it has successfully passed through one such reaction in 1889–91, when much less was known about its resources.

In considering the effect which the product of the Transvaal will have upon the world's finances, it must be remembered first, that the productive area is about 100 times as large as that of the most prominent precious-metal districts of America—Leadville, Butte, or Cripple Creek; further, that its product is not ephemeral, like that of the placer deposits of California and Australia, which so violently disturbed values in the fifties. But, while increasing less rapidly, it is likely not to decrease again, but to go steadily onwards. The world's product of gold was 363 millions of dollars in the decade 1840–50, increasing to 1,333 millions in 1850–60, and gradually decreasing to about 1,000 millions in 1880–90. For the current decade it may well be 2,000 millions, and is likely to increase for many decades to come.

In the report on mineral resources of the United States for 1892, Mr. S. F. Emmons, reviewing the progress of the precious-metal industry from a geological standpoint, predicted an increase in the world's annual gold production from 130 million dollars in 1891 to 200 millions before the close of the decade, and a decrease in its silver production from 177 millions (coining value) in 1891 until it should become less than that of gold; thinking it probable that when the coinage value of the gold product should exceed that of the silver product, the price of the latter metal would experience a substantial increase. The increase in the gold product has been even more rapid than the American geologist estimated, and seems likely to reach the 200-million mark in 1895. While the silver product of the United States has decreased in the same period from 82 to 64 millions, that of the entire world has experienced a slight increase, owing to unusual developments in Mexico and South America. From what we learn in the present volume, however, it seems probable that another year will see the world's gold product again greater in coinage value than that of silver, as it was before 1880; and though it is likely thereafter to increase more rapidly than does the silver product, it is hardly likely that the relative proportion in the value of the products will become 7 of gold to 3 of silver, as was the case from 1850 to 1870.

MATTHEW ARNOLD'S LETTERS.—I.

Letters of Matthew Arnold. Collected and arranged by George W. E. Russell. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 2 vols.

It was the express wish of Mr. Arnold that no formal biography of him should be published. These letters, so adequate to the purpose, especially as supplemented by Mr. Russell's judicious annotations, will therefore be doubly welcome to Mr. Arnold's friends as the afterglow of a noble and illuminating spirit that set before its time; but also to the far wider circle of those who are interested in the story of a man, his fortunes and his family, told with unfailing sprightliness and sincerity. The greater part of these letters are addressed to members of the family, whence a perfect abandon and an entire absence of posing—a foible, however, of which Mr. Arnold was perhaps never guilty, even in the presence of the King of Italy or the King of Prussia. On the other hand, the intimacy of such letters by no means implies triviality. The gifted family to which Mrs. Humphry Ward belongs were interested in all that interested Mr. Arnold, from poetry to politics. "In their needy days," he says, "my poems had no better friends than my sisters." Of his mother we have Dean Stanley's testimony that she retained "a life-long reverence for his father's greatness without a blind attempt to rest in the form and letter of his words"; while, at the age of eighty-two, Mr. Arnold writes to Lady de Rothschild, "she was able, in spite of strong convictions, to appreciate 'Literature and Dogma' with all the fairness of mind of a woman in her prime." Next to the family, Lady de Rothschild has the largest share in these letters, which begin with one to his mother (January, 1848) when he was twenty-six years old. After a brilliant career at Winchester, Rugby, and Oxford, terminating in his election as a fellow of Oriel, he had just received the appointment of private secretary to Lord Lansdowne, then President of the Council. In 1850 the letters introduce us to a Miss Wightman, whom he married the following year. She was the daughter of Sir William Wightman, one of the justices of the Court of Queen's Bench. Shortly before, Mr. Arnold had been appointed by Lord Lansdowne an Inspector of Schools—a position which he continued to hold, in one district or another, till he retired on a pension in 1885.

His early letters to his elder sister are full of his reading and his political views. He tells her that he is reading Tasso, Goethe's letters, Bacon, Pindar, Sophocles, Milton, Thomas à Kempis, and Ecclesiasticus. After his marriage, the letters give us many details of his work and wanderings in inspecting schools. He occasionally escapes from them to the Continent, sometimes on official business, sometimes for a brief vacation. As the years go on, he is accompanied by his wife and children. These visits give occasion for descriptions of places and vivacious sketches of adventure. Arnold's style expresses all varieties of matter with clearness, ease, and grace, never running into rhetoric or the formal rhythm of literary prose. One might expect some flights of this sort in the description of the Alps or of Italy. One remembers that Shelley could never write in his dressing-gown, even to his wife; he could never lay aside his splendor of diction and his beautiful rhythm. Mr. Arnold, while never slipshod, uses prose as clear and transparent as those Alpine streams in which he delighted. From these letters we gradually learn his tastes, his passion for flowers, combining the learning of a botanist with the enthusiasm of a poet; his fondness for the "bright comradeship" of some mountain brook, and his real sympathy with birds and domestic animals. One letter narrates the virtues and graces of his Persian cat Atossa; another is an obituary of the pony Lola, who died suddenly in an honored old age. But, most of all, the playfulness and tenderness of his nature are revealed in his allusions to his children. They continually come up in this correspondence, and are never in the way, though we know that children are often *de trop* in books as well as in the drawing-room. We feel justified in offering one lovely idyl of the nursery, which must serve as a specimen of them all :

"The day I read your letter I said to Budge [his second son's pet name] as I was dressing for dinner, 'Budge, you must go and see your Aunt Forster.' 'No,' says Budge, '*do* let me 'top with papa.' So I turn to Tom, and when I remind him of the Noah's ark, Tom says he will go and stop with you 'for two days.' Upon which Budge begins to howl, and, running up to Tom, who is sitting on the camp-bed in my dressing-room, entreats him not to go away from him. 'Why not, Budge?' says Tom. 'Because I do love you so, Tiddy Tom,' says Budge. 'Oh,' says Tom, waving his hand with a melancholy air, 'this is *false*, Budge, this is all *false*.' You should have seen the sweet little melancholy face of the rogue as he said this."

This little gem of delicate observation reflects all the father as much as the children, and shows that he was as true a connoisseur in the ways and charms of children as the author of 'Pet Marjorie.' Budge and Tom and Dicky and Nelly are delightful people to meet; and the letters which announce to Mr. Arnold's mother the death of Basil and of Tom would be called perfect specimens of pathos, had we any right to regard them as literature at all.

Many of the letters are the record of Arnold's irksome toil as School Inspector. He tramped about the country like a commercial traveller; at midnight, after his visitations, he reads a hundred lines of the 'Odyssey,' "to save himself from putrefaction"; his examination papers are with him every day in the year—even by the bedside of his dying child. But this wasteful routine drew from him no jeremiads. He reminds us by contrast of Carlyle, who, when he had lost a night's sleep, would make the world echo with dithyrambic and Cyclopean lamentations. The British Government might certainly have put the author of 'Thyrsis' to a better use than correcting 10,000 grammar papers a year; but he had other official duties less wasteful and irksome. He was repeatedly sent to France and Germany to study the systems of education there in vogue. One useful result of his official labors was that they made him familiar with all classes of his countrymen, including "those Barbarians, the English aristocracy." In 1869 he received as a member of his household the young Duke of Genoa, Prince Thomas of Savoy, then a Harrow schoolboy. This necessarily multiplied his relations with the "Barbarians," though to him the Prince is simply "a dear boy."

In 1883 came his lecture tour in the United States. His account of this first visit to America describes many delicious bits of experience even more amusing to us than they could be to his correspondents. From the first he was received into those court circles whose doings our papers so faithfully record. He was, of course, beset with reporters, and deplores bitterly his inability to "hide his life." But how could he expect to combine privacy with the necessities of advertising? He could not even discover that large and respected class of Americans who are fond of the epicurean enjoyment of "hiding their lives." And there was, after all, a bright side to this publicity. Mr. Arnold was evidently not displeased to be asked for his autograph by waiters in the hotels, nor to learn that Gen. Grant had thanked the *Tribune* for its reports of his lectures, nor even to be told by Barnum, at whose house he was entertained, that his lecture "Numbers; or, The Majority and the Remnant," was "grand," and that he, Barnum, intended to belong to the "Remnant." He has everywhere to tell of kindness. He likes our well-warmed houses, "which quite spoil one for English houses with their chill rooms and frozen passages"; and our villas, "with their great piazzas, are the prettiest in the world." But he is not equally pleased with our life. In spite of the enthusiasm and the statistics of Mr. Carnegie, our civilization is to him "the civilization of the Australian colonies"; our life, compared with that of England, is "so uninteresting, so without savour and depth." He is distressed by the "profound *Gemeinheit*" of our cities and their architecture. After travelling across the continent as far as St. Louis, where he seemed to reach the boundary of the zone of "sweetness and light," he returns to Quebec to be captivated by it as we all are. "It is the most interesting thing I have seen on this continent. I would sooner be a poor priest in Quebec than a rich hog-merchant in Chicago." It is only fair to show the brighter side of the shield: "The political sense of the people here seems to be sounder than it is with us; the family has, compared with our middle class at home, that buoyancy, enjoyment, and freedom from restraint which are everywhere in America, and which show how the aristocracy acts as an incubus with us."

In 1885 Mr. Arnold retired from the post of Inspector of Schools which he had held for thirty-five years. The buoyant tone of his letters at this time shows what a pleasure and comfort it was to be released from the routine, and to devote himself untrammelled to the literary work which was his delight. But he was not long to enjoy his garden and his children and the pleasure of watching the grand pageant of the world move by, which he somewhere says is perhaps the chief delight a man can have upon the earth—a pageant, we may add, in which he had taken his part nobly and well. In 1888, just as he was about to meet his daughter, who married in the United States, he died suddenly, as his father had died, but in riper years and with the task of his life more nearly completed.

We have skimmed the lighter social and biographical interest of these letters. We must reserve for a further notice the equally interesting and even more valuable material which they contribute towards an adequate appreciation of Arnold's character, his opinions, and his literary work. But we cannot close this article without a tribute to Mr. Russell's admirable editing. In his notes the reader will find every date and fact and name that is needed to explain the allusions of the text. He even gives, for instance, Mr. Mallock's verses in the 'New Republic' written in parody of Mr. Arnold's style; a parody, by the way, of which the subject recognized no great likeness, either in the verses or in the conversation ascribed to him by a writer who had never so much as set eyes on him. One slight quarrel we have with Mr. Russell, and that is for omitting any kind of an index in a book which serious readers will have occasion to use for purposes of reference. Otherwise we have nothing to complain of in his handling, and indeed everything that is helpful to be thankful for.

Glossary of Greek Birds. By D'Arcy W. Thompson. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

THIS is a work of great erudition, which, as the author himself says, "contains materials for research in greater measure than it presents the results of it." The variety and amount of material may be judged from the article on ἀετός, which fills nine pages of references and brief quotations, mostly from Greek authors, arranged under the headings, Epithets, Myth and Legend, Proverbs and Fable, Representations of Eagles. Under the first head we find about one hundred citations or references from Homer down to Nonnus; with regard to the single characteristic of keen-sightedness of the eagle, we have more than thirty citations. The swan's song is vouched for in two pages of allusions, beginning with Hesiod and ending with Chaucer and Tennyson. Notwithstanding this testimony and the consent of some modern naturalists, Mr. Thompson remarks: "I do not think it [the whooper, or whistling swan] can sing very well; it is beyond a doubt that the swan's song (like the halcyon's) veiled and still hides some mystical allusion." As to the myth of the halcyons and "halcyon days" it remains still unexplained. Prof. Thompson observes that the kingfisher, with which the halcyon is identified, does not nest in the winter season, nor in the sea. He conjectures that the story originally referred to some astronomical phenomenon, in connection with the Pleiades, of which constellation Alcyone is the principal star. At the winter solstice about 2000 B. C., the Pleiad culminated at nightfall in mid-heaven; this culmination, between three and four months after the heliacal rising of the Pleiad in autumn, was, he conjectures, symbolized as the nesting of the halcyon. The same line of astronomical explanation Prof. Thompson applies, with much greater certainty, in a large number of rather puzzling cases where the naturalists, including Aristotle, refer to certain mysterious "hostilities" between different species of birds and animals. For example, the eagle is said to be "hostile" to the swan, to the hare, and the bull; the Haliaëtus to the Ciris, the cock to the Attagas or Noumenios. When the eagle is said to attack the

swan and to be in turn defeated by it, we may understand the constellation Aquila, which rises in the east immediately after Cygnus, but sets in the west a little while before that (more northern) constellation. A like astronomical explanation applies to many other cases, which, if we attempt to explain them as facts for the naturalist, lead only to bewilderment. Such explanations are further illustrated and demonstrated by the symbolism of many Greek coins, such as that of Agrigentum, representing the eagle and the crab, or the tetradrachm of Eretria, figuring a bird on a bull's back (the Pleiad in the sign Taurus). The signification of these is clearly astronomical, as has lately been proved in detail by M. Svoronos in an article we had occasion to summarize in these columns.

As a corollary to this reasoning, Prof. Thompson, instead of increasing the number of species commonly identified, is disposed to diminish them. The Chrysaëtus, for instance, he regards as mystical and fabulous, like the Phœnix, and apropos of such myths he refers us to the somewhat hopeless scepticism of Grote. The study of myths has certainly made some satisfactory progress since Grote's day. We are inclined to think that the origin of some fabulous types may be explained by the primitive notions of metamorphosis which M. Houssay pointed out in a recent paper in the *Revue Archéologique* (January, 1895). It is quite clear from certain ambiguous forms figured on Mycenæan vases that the people of that period had already evolved the superstition of the barnacle-goose, and the general idea that sea-creatures are capable of trans forming themselves into terrestrial birds, insects, or animals to whose forms they bore some resemblance; that the horse, for example, could spring from the hippocampus.

Amid the discursive store of information which he presents, Prof. Thompson suggests many etymologies which might deserve more attention if he had taken some pains to reinforce them. What good reason, for example, is there to identify Thamyras with Thammuz, or Atthis, as an epithet of the nightingale, with Atys?

Great Astronomers. By Sir Robert S. Ball. London: Isbister; Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1895.

A BOOK of fourteen essays on the lives and works of as many astronomers, ancient and modern, but all deceased. It would have been a great subject for a great writer, for a scientific Sainte-Beuve. We cannot quarrel with the list of men treated. It was certainly best the writer should choose those whom he liked to write about. They are Ptolemy, Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Galileo, Kepler, Newton, Flamsteed, Halley, Bradley, W. Herschel, La-Place, Brinkley, J. F. W. Herschel, Rosse, Airy, Hamilton, Le Verrier, and Adams. Some of them are pretty well-worn subjects. Brinkley, Adams, and Airy are probably the only ones concerning whom any new facts are here made known. Still, for the majority of the others, masterly critical accounts would have been welcome. It would have been better to make half as many essays twice as long.

No one method of treatment is followed, so that to get an idea of the book it is necessary to examine several of the lives. Sir Robert Ball is himself a brilliant mathematician and a very competent astronomer. He does not seem to be aware that several of the personal traits of Claudius Ptolemy can be made out from a diligent study of his writings. He does not even mention the fact that there is an astrological treatise, bearing the name of Ptolemy, which resists every test of genuineness. It has the great astronomer's method, style, and language; it bears his name and is addressed to the same person as the 'Almagest.' The geography of Ptolemy is only just mentioned, without any account of it. Sir Robert Ball cannot be ignorant that Ptolemy was a great mathematician, that he created spherical trigonometry, and calculated tables for the application of it. Was not this worth saying in a sketch of twenty-three pages? With what are these pages filled? Chiefly with an account of the Ptolemaic system of the world. But—we must suppose for the sake of simplification, for it cannot be that Sir Robert Ball is so ignorant—this account is falsified in such a manner that all that really was contributed to it by Ptolemy is erased, and what is provided is the rough description of the motions which was invented by Hipparchus, and which Ptolemy made his own by one of the most wonderful and profound pieces of mathematical ingenuity ever devised. Namely, Hipparchus had two circles, one carried round on the other, the planet being carried round the former. One of these motions is in geometrical truth nothing but the motion of the sun round the earth, or, what is the same thing (since in mere geometry all motion is relative), the motion of the earth round the sun. The other motion is the motion of the planet round the sun. The orbits are really ellipses; but they are so near circles (except for Mercury) that the difference in *shape* was not perceptible to the ancient observers. But the foci of the ellipses are perceptibly remote from the centre; and, moreover, since equal areas are described in equal times, the motion is physically more rapid near one focus than near the other. Now, Ptolemy almost perfectly represented all this by placing the orbit eccentrically from the earth, and then making the body that was supposed to move round the circle describe equal angles in equal times about a centre twice as far from the earth as the centre of the circle, and lying in the same direction. Nor was the motion in the second circle taken to be uniform. These hypotheses gave an essentially different character to the theory. The system of Hipparchus was a mere harmonic analysis; the Ptolemaic system needed only minor corrections to represent the true *relative* motions, or appearances in the heavens (which Ptolemy declared was all he aimed at), with a high degree of accuracy. At any rate, this, and this only, was the contribution of Ptolemy. It is a strange account of the man which attributes to him what was really done by another, and omits all mention of what he really did.

The account of Copernicus is hardly better. There is no allusion to the practical side of his life, his management of the vast estates of Frauenberg, his parliamentary career. His planetary system is not explained at all, although this has been successfully done in several elementary books. The differences between the points of view of Ptolemy and Copernicus are not explained. Ptolemy really only cared to account for the appearances of the heavens; and he clearly saw that it made no difference, with those appearances, whether the earth moved or not. It was a mere surplusage—a curious inquiry, somewhat metaphysical—to ask whether the earth moves or not. Then, in Ptolemy's time, everybody assumed that there is one substance of things celestial and another substance of things terrestrial. The stars were mere lights. There was no matter in them, such as we see on earth. There was thus no analogical argument to be drawn against their moving ever so rapidly. On the other hand, if the earth moves, then real terrestrial objects are moving with a velocity very many times greater than any of which we have any experience. Copernicus, on the other hand, lived at a time when the discovery of the New World inclined men to think that things remote were a good deal like things near at hand. Moreover, reflection upon Ptolemy's system, just as he had described it, would show that the general conception of it could be much simplified by making all the planets revolve round the sun. Ptolemy would not care for such simplification, as long as the computations of places remained the same, as they would remain. But in Copernicus a deeper philosophical spirit pervading Europe was beginning to awaken.

The life of Galileo is marked by the same inadequacy. Galileo's greatest discovery, that of the uniformly accelerated fall of bodies, is not mentioned. Keppler receives still worse treatment. One of the most interesting personalities that ever lived, and the author of the most wonderful piece of inductive reasoning, with the exception of Mendeleieff's law, ever performed, he is so feebly described that the reader gets but a glimpse into the nature of the man and none at all into the course of his thought. The modern essays are no better. The men, too, are smaller and less interesting. The chapter on Brinkley has two and a half pages about Brinkley and ten and a half about other things. It is modern superficial writing about a subject that would formerly have engaged the best talents, carried to its last point of newspaper-paragraphing.

Buckle and his Critics: A Study in Sociology. By John Mackinnon Robertson. London: Swan Sonnenschein.

MR. ROBERTSON is so possessed with the idea that injustice has been done to Buckle that he has prepared a volume of 565 pages—not very closely printed pages fortunately—to refute his critics, big and little, one after the other. We are inclined to ask him, now that the task has been accomplished, whether on reflection he really thinks that this is the best way of reaching his end. He believes, and probably with justice, that Buckle is too little read nowadays, and that it is too much the fashion to disregard or pooh-pooh him. Then, would it not be better for him to try to tell us, in as brief and forcible a way as he can, what he himself conceives to have been Buckle's contribution to human knowledge? As it is, we are left to piece together Mr. Robertson's interpretation of his master from scattered indications up and down 500 pages of acrimonious controversy. Few people will have the patience to do this; and, from Mr. Robertson's point of view, it will be a great pity.

It is the more to be regretted that Mr. Robertson's book should be thus repellent, and, indeed, ludicrous, because he is a writer of wide reading and of much penetration, and the master of a vivacious style. Even as it is, 'Buckle and his Critics' is a book that our professional "Sociologists" will do well to get: it will widen their horizon, and give some of them, especially in theological seminaries, a not unwholesome shock occasionally. But the book is a curious and characteristic product of a certain phase of English life. Mr. Robertson is the biographer of Mr. Bradlaugh, and a writer in the *National Reformer;* and we are probably not mistaken in supposing that he has more or less identified himself with the

small group of militant "secularists." Men who belong to such circles are very apt to feel themselves, in the expressive phrase, "rather out of things" socially, and to resent it. They assume the attitude of Esau, and of that particularly offensive variety, the omniscient Esau. Mr. Robertson is cocksure over a wider range than any writer it has recently been our duty to read; on all the great thinkers and investigators of the century he is ready to pronounce unhesitating judgment; and he has an air of always knowing the last thing. He is very ready to explain everybody else's opinions by his environment or training; to see academicism here, clericalism there, and obscurantism and compromise everywhere: it never occurs to him to think that his own opinions are anything but the utterances of dispassionate wisdom. Sometimes, when we have seen how much of Buckle's teaching Mr. Robertson's throws overboard, and observed how very little seems to be left of it after he has made his "suggested modifications" (in the useful "Synthetic Summary" at the end of the book), we have been inclined to suspect that the reason why he sticks up for his hero is chiefly that English respectability slights Buckle.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, A. E. The Gods Give my Donkey Wings. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.
Andersen, H C. The Nightingale. Boston: Berkel y Updike. $1.25.
Babyhood. Vol. XI. Dec. '94-Nov. '95. *Babyhood* Publishing Co.
Balzac, H. de. The Quest of the Absolute. London; Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Blind, Mathilde. Birds of Passage: Songs of the Orient and Occident. London: Chatto & Windus.
Blunt, W. S. Esther, a Young Man's Tragedy; Together with the Love Sonnets of Proteus. Boston: Copeland & Day. $3.
Brooks, Noah. The Mediterranean Trip: A Short Guide. Scribners. $1.25.
Brown, Kate C. Beauty for Ashes. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Burrows, Prof. Montagu. The History of the Foreign Policy of Great Britain. London: Blackwood; New York: Putnams. $3.
Burton, Richard. Dumb in June. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c
Cahun, Léon. Introduction à l'Histoire de l'Asie: Turcs et Mongols des Origines à 1405. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Cavendish on Whist. American Edition. Scribners.
Chapman, Mary B. Lyrics of Love and Nature. F. A. Stokes Co.
Cheney, J. V. That Dome in Air: Thoughts on Poetry and the Poets. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Cocke, Zitella. A Doric Reed. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Constant. Recollections of the Private Life of Napoleon Vol. I. Merriam Co. $2.50.
Cowell, Prof. E. B. The Jātaka. Vol. II. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Cram, R. A. Black Spirits and White: A Book of Ghost Stories. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.
Dos Passos, B. F. The Law of Collateral and Direct Inheritance, Legacy and Succession Taxes. 2d ed. St. Paul: West Publishing Co
Du Bois. Constance G. The Shield of the Fleur de Lis: A Novel. Merriam Co. $1.50.
Duff, Grace Shaw. Nicodemus. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Eggleston, Edward. Stories of American Life and Adventure. American Book Co. 50c.
Eggleston, Edward. Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans. American Book Co. 40c.
Eliot, George. Silas Marner. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.
Elliott, Prof. E. B. An Introduction to the Algebra of Quantics. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Ellis, E. S. The Youth's Dictionary of Mythology. New York: Woolfall Co. 50c.
Ellwanger, G. H. Idyllists of the Country Side. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Foss, Sam Walter. Whiffs from Wild Meadows. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Garland, Hamlin. Rose of Dutcher's Coolly. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
German and French Poems for Memorizing. Henry Holt & Co. 20c.
Hesdin, Raoul. The Journal of a Spy in Paris. January-July, 1794. Harpers. $1.25.
Hughes, Thomas. Tom Brown's School Days. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60c.
Hughes, Thomas. Vacation Rambles. Macmillan. $1.75.
Ia: A Love Story. Scribners. 75c.
Ingalls, Herbert. The Boston Charades. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
King, Maude E. Round about a Brighton Coach Office. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. Europe in Africa in the Nineteenth Century. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Light on Current Topics. Bennet Lectures for 1895. Boston: Massachusetts New-Church Union. $1.
Lloyd, J. W. Wind-Harp Songs. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.
Moses, Prof. Bernard. The Railway Revolution in Mexico. San Francisco: The Berkeley Press.
Nichols, Bowyer. Words and Days: A Table-Book of Prose and Verse. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Norton, Prof. C. E. The Heart of Oak Books. 6 vols. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Paine, Thomas. Rights of Man. Putnams. $1.
Perry, Rev. W. S. The Episcopate in America: Sketches Biographical and Bibliographical of the Bishops of the American Church. Christian Literature Co. $5.
Pope, G. W. Wonderful Adventures on Venus. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Rossiter, W. S. An Accidental Romance, and Other Stories. The Republic Press.
Sharp, William. The Gypsy Christ, and Other Tales. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.
Shaw, W. A. Select Tracts and Documents Illustrative of English Monetary History, 1626-1730. London: Clement Wilson.
Sickels, D. B. Leaves of the Lotos. J. Selwin Tait & Sons.
Smart, William. Studies in Economics. Macmillan. $2.75.
Smith, L. P. The Youth of Parnassus, and Other Stories. Macmillan, $1.25.
Spears, J. R. The Gold-Diggings of Cape Horn. Putnams. $1.75.
Spenser, Edmund. Epithalamion. With drawings by George Wharton Edwards. Dodd, Mead & Co $7.50.
Stearns, F. P. Sketches from Concord and Appledore. Putnams. $2.
Stern, S. M. Studien und Plaudereien. 16th ed., revised. Henry Holt & Co. $1.10.
Stevenson, R. A. M. The Art of Velasquez. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $18.
Stevenson, R. L. Vailima Letters. 2 vols. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Stimson, F. J. Labor in its Relation to Law. Scribners. 75c.
Stratemeyer, Edward. Reuben Stone's Discovery. Merriam Co. $1.25.
Taylor, Bayard. The Echo Club. Putnams. $1.75.
Teggart, F. J. Catalogue of the Hopkins Railway Library. Palo Alto, Cal.: Leland Stanford University. $1.50.
The Protestant Episc pal Almanac and Parochial List. Whittaker. 25c.
The Secret of Mankind. Putnams. $2.
The Year Book of the Pegasus. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25c.
Thompson, R. E. Political Economy for High Schools and Academies. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55c.
Treitschke, H. von. Das Deutsche Ordensland Preussen. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Tyler, Odette. Boss. Transatlantic Publishing Co.
Walford, L. B. Frederick. Macmillan. $1.25
Walpole, Rev. G. H. S. Daily Teachings for the Christian Year. Brentanos. $1.50.
Wenckebach, Prof. Clara. Scheffel's Trompeter von Säkkingen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 70c.
Wheeler, D. H. Our Industrial Utopia, and its Unhappy Citizens. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Woolsey, Abby H. Handbook for Hospitals. 3d ed. Putnams. 75c.
Wurth, Leopold. Das Wortspiel bei Shakspere. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.
Wynne, Madeline Y. The Little Room, and Other Stories. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Yale, Catharine B. Nim and Cum and the Wonder-Head Stories. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 26, 1895.

The Week.

THE full text of Lord Salisbury's reply to Secretary Olney on the merits of the boundary dispute itself, as distinct from the Monroe fantasticalities, is printed in the *Congressional Record* of December 17. It is a statement of the British case such as has never before been made public. Mr. Olney, as Salisbury justly observes, had proceeded upon the basis of purely ex-parte Venezuelan representations; his historical argument is taken over bodily from the Venezuelans, as any one may see who will consult Senate Ex. Doc. No. 226, 50th Congress, where the whole of it appears in substance. That argument is now traversed by Lord Salisbury in a way sufficiently to account for Mr. Olney's turning tail. He set out by roundly affirming that the Venezuelans were right. After reading Salisbury's reply, he says he will have an investigation and see if they were right. An argument that has thus made the valiant Secretary eat his own words is surely worthy of consideration even by the war-crazed.

The Venezuelan claim that the territory is not British because the Spanish discovered America, is briefly dismissed by Lord Salisbury as both too vague and too sweeping: as well claim under the bull of Alexander VI. But the Venezuelans allege a specific decree of the King of Spain in 1768, describing Guiana (the then Spanish province of that name is meant) as bounded on the south by the Amazon and on the east by the Atlantic. This proves too much, as it would imply the right of Venezuela to all of British, French, and Dutch Guiana, as well as an enormous tract of Brazilian territory. Moreover, this decree cannot be supposed to have overlooked the Dutch settlements formally recognized in the treaty of Munster, 1648. Furthermore, though the Spanish Government was a party to the treaty of 1814, under which the Dutch settlements were definitely ceded to England, and though the frontiers claimed by Great Britain were perfectly well known to it, at no stage of the negotiation did it interpose any objection. Back of all these late and shadowy Spanish claims, however, Lord Salisbury goes to produce evidence which, if uncontradicted, is absolutely decisive about the Dutch, and hence the English, right to the Cuyuni River—the very territory which is now alone in serious dispute. In 1759 and again in 1769 the States General of Holland addressed formal remonstrances to the court of Madrid against Spanish incursions into the basin of the Cuyuni. These protests were never answered, and an examination of the Spanish archives reveals the fact that the Council of State concluded that it had nothing to offer in rebuttal. Lord Salisbury cites textually the opinion of the Council that the Spanish title to the Cuyuni was "very improbable." He also intimates generally that "researches in the national archives of Holland and Spain have furnished further and more convincing evidence in support of the British claims."

How criminally rash and insensate, in view of all this, appears the President's flat-footed assertion to Congress in his message of December 3, that Great Britain was proceeding "in derogation of the rights of Venezuela." That he has now to abandon that ignorant and reckless contention, and meekly admit that he does not know what the rights of Venezuela really are, makes his threats of war doubly disgraceful. What does he or Secretary Olney know of the documentary evidence in the Dutch and Spanish archives? What will his ridiculous commission know, who are to sit and gayly settle the whole thing on the basis of the evidence in the State Department at Washington? One comfort is that no lawyer with a reputation extending beyond the backwoods will consent to sit on such a commission unless all the evidence obtainable anywhere is to be laid before it. The result may be such another complete smashing of the American case as we suffered in the Bering Sea matter. The Russian archives lamentably failed Mr. Blaine in that affair, and it may well be that the Dutch and Spanish archives may equally bring Mr. Cleveland to grief. As far as his humiliation is concerned, that he has already himself provided for in full measure.

As was to have been expected, the President's conversion to the Jingo view of the Monroe Doctrine has had an electrifying effect upon all the South American republics. They are all "out gunning" for wars and revolutions, marching through the streets of their capitals, cheering and shouting and declaring their determination to fight all creation, and especially all European Powers with which they may be at odds, because now they feel sure that the United States will take their side in every such shindy. What a prospect this opens for us! Endless wars over petty disputes with which we have nothing to do and about questions which in no way concern us. A movement is said to be on foot for a conference of all the South American republics on the subject of the Monroe Doctrine, with a view to bringing them into line under it, with the United States as the champion and protector of all of them. We should need, as Prof. Burgess points out in the *Evening Post*, a standing army of 500,000 men, a navy of 500 ships, and a war expenditure of $1,000,000,000 a year to sustain this rôle, and we should also have to give up all other business and devote ourselves exclusively to war.

That President Cleveland has been his own executioner is made clear by contrasting what he said in 1893 with what he says now. In his message of December 18, 1893, he affirmed:

> "The law of nations is founded upon reason and justice, and the rules of conduct governing individual relations between citizens or subjects of a civilized state are equally applicable as between enlightened nations."

Now he says:

> "To-day the United States is practically sovereign on this continent, and its fiat is law. Why? It is *not* because of the pure friendship or good will felt for it. It is not simply by reason of its high character as a civilized state, nor because wisdom and *justice* and equity are the invariable characteristics of the dealings of the United States. It is because its infinite resources, combined with its isolated position, render it *master of the situation* and practically *invulnerable* as against any or all other Powers."

Was there ever such another case of a civilized man throwing away his clothes and joining the howling savages? Mr. Cleveland says now just what Debs said in the summer of 1894. Law or no law, Debs and his fellow-anarchists gloried in being "masters of the situation." It is a melancholy thing to find the President who put them down with a firm hand, now displaying himself as the greatest international anarchist of modern times.

We have received some inquiries as to what our explanation is of Mr. Cleveland's extraordinary break with his own best traditions, and his apparent indifference to the objects which he once seemed to have greatly at heart. We have no theory about the matter which we can support with any proof. The one which meets with most acceptance is that it has been urged on him by his party managers that something must be done, in preparation for the coming canvass, to put the Democratic party on its legs, seeing that it is now, owing to its utter failure with the finances, and its widespread alliance with villains and humbugs, a complete wreck; and that he has done what plenty of politicians have done in like cases before now, and what Mr. Seward recommended Mr. Lincoln to do—got up a foreign rumpus to turn attention away from home affairs, and rally to the support of the party the great army of the unthinking and chromo-patriotic and penniless. The puzzle of this is, that in so doing he has ruined the cause to which he has for the

past three years rendered such noble service, and to which he sacrificed nearly everything else, including civil-service reform. In fact, he bids fair to go out of office with the reputation of a great financial wrecker.

What a picture the Jingoes present as they fall in line "behind Cleveland," whom for months and years they have been denouncing as the exponent of all that was most detestable in American statesmanship. He has adopted all their arguments, stolen all their thunder, and they find themselves obliged to rally around him and throw up their hats and fill the air with huzzas for him. Think of it! Chandler and Lodge and Frye, Morgan and Livingston and Hill, circling hand in hand around Cleveland and cheering him till their voices crack! How keenly they must enjoy it, and with what conscious pride must he view this accession to the ranks of his admirers! With every Republican newspaper in the country singing his praises, with the *Tribune* announcing by special cable message from London that "Mr. Cleveland has been an English idol, but he is now dethroned," what reason will the Republicans have for opposing him next year? Cleveland cannot be denounced again as an un-American candidate, the Republicans cannot claim to be the only true American party, and cannot claim a monopoly of the American flag as a campaign emblem.

It is a relief to turn from the average slang-whanging editorial article of the day on the subject of our relations with foreign nations to one that embodies some reflections that are really worth consideration by a sensible man. Such views we find in the answer given by the Memphis (Tenn.) *Commercial Appeal* to a question that it asks, which must have occurred to many thoughtful people: "Why is it that the term 'Americanism,' as it is currently used in a large number of newspapers, has come to convey the idea of a dog, with tail erect and bristles raised, eager for a debate with some other dog?" The editor neatly shows the patness of the comparison, and points out that "every dog that is worthy of the name is a natural-born Jingo and full of the spirit of 'true Americanism,'" so that "he only needs to be taught to walk on his hind legs to be a fit candidate for the United States Senate from New Hampshire or Massachusetts, or to edit a Republican paper in Boston or New York." But why, the Memphis journal persists, should our patriots be "furiously angry with every nation on earth," and why does such a state of feeling exist in "a country that has so few causes for international jealousy or ill-will, and the largest opportunity ever given to a great and enlightened nation to cultivate feelings of fraternity"? There must be a reason for all this, and the *Commercial Appeal* finds it "in the policy of trade exclusiveness so diligently fostered and so long maintained in this country"—a policy which has "called to its aid every evil passion it could excite." It arrayed one section of the country against the other by teaching the Northern people that, in advocating lower taxes, the Southern Democrats were trying to disrupt the Union; and it strove to strengthen its argument against foreign competition by cultivating prejudice against all foreign countries, and representing "all the nations of the earth as being leagued to break down the tariff breastworks and ravage the land with foreign goods." The natural end of all this has been that "to teach hatred and hostility to other nations, to find an enemy in every stranger, and to fill their own land with imaginary traitors, has become second nature with a large class of Republican politicians and newspapers." This is certainly a strong argument. We should like to see the Jingo editors tackle it.

We doubt if the voice of the clergy has been so emphatic since the firing on Sumter as it was on Sunday. It spoke in a tone of as pure and ardent patriotism, too, as it did in 1861—as faithfully expressing now the horror in which the moral sense recoils from the wicked war talk of President and Congress as it did then the general alarm that threatened disunion. And the sermons were remarkably outspoken. Few of them were content with mere platitudes about peace. The directness and force with which the ablest clergymen in this city and throughout the country, as far as reported, addressed themselves to Mr. Cleveland's betrayal of the nation, were refreshing. There was little of the Congressional chaplain's mumbling about "an honorable peace," but a deal of plain talk about a dishonorable and traitorous attempt to imperil peace. Bishop Potter's characterization of the whole Jingo herd as "pinchbeck patriots" ought to stick to them. Nor were the congregations behind the preachers in reprobating the President's mad appeal to the basest passions of the mob. He got his fill of the bray of the mob on Wednesday and Thursday; on Friday and Saturday he was overwhelmed with the execrations of business men; on Sunday he received the most unanimous and crushing rebuke that the pulpit of this country ever addressed to a President. He made his appeal to the conscience of the mob; he has now heard from the conscience of the God-fearing people, and their judgment upon him leaves him morally impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors.

Gen. Lew Wallace ('Tale of the Christ') and Gen. O. O. Howard (Christian Soldier) are both furious for war. This they have a perfect right to be, but they have no right to mix up sanctimonious Christian phrases with their pagan war-whoops. Says Gen. Howard: "We are Christians; we both worship the same God and believe in the same Saviour, and war should not be; *but, for all that*, Cleveland has taken the right position, and there we should stand." In other words, Christian professions and sentiment are all very well for prayer-meetings and international Young Men's Christian Association gatherings, but if it is a question of getting back to the position and ethics of Sioux Indians for the sake of bringing on a war, just count upon us every time.

The prayer of the chaplain of the House on Friday was another illustration of the way the fighting parsons think they can disguise their real objects from the Deity. His prayer at the opening of Congress, that we might "be quick to resent insults to this our nation," was combined with a prayer for "peace within our borders," thus making an excellent after-dinner joke, which was wholly out of place in a prayer. Anybody whom the Almighty makes quick "to resent insults" can never have peace within his borders. On Friday the same chaplain prayed that we might have peace, "but let it be honorable peace," pretending to fear that the Almighty, by keeping him from fighting, would inflict a dishonorable peace on him. Now, we warn all fighting parsons that by no form of words can they conceal from the Deity what they are up to. The petitions reach the Throne of Grace stripped of all rhetorical drapery, in their naked barbarity. Here is the form in which their prayer arrives at its destination—"O Lord, grant that we may be able to kill plenty of our enemies and destroy their property for any reason that may seem good to ourselves." The "patriotism," and the "self-respect," and the "honor," and all the other tinsel and shabby finery in which these gentlemen invest their war-whoops, never reach the upper air of divine peace and love. Nobody is imposed on by these blasphemous harangues, while many are deeply disgraced. But the chaplains are not alone to blame. All Jingoes who try to clothe simple hatred of England or any foreign nation with the sacred name of love of country, or patriotism, are as great humbugs as the chaplains. A desire to invade Canada and kill Englishmen through simple dislike, differs in no respect, except intensity, from the feeling with which the Iroquois used to start out on the war-path to kill the Mohawks. It is simple desecration to call this truculent savagery the patriotism of the modern civilized man. The patriotism of the modern man, and above all the American man, is a desire, not to wade in enemy's blood, but to make his country preëminent in the arts of peace. It is one thing to defend one's house manfully if compelled, but quite

another to wander about among the bar-rooms in order to chastise anybody who seems likely to insult you.

All the London correspondents of New York papers are unanimous as to the effect upon the Armenian question of the Jingo war with England. One of them quotes an Armenian organizer as saying: "The hope of England's doing anything there has perished altogether, and the Armenian sympathizers here who are really in earnest are plunged into the depths of despair." Another declared: "Whatever else may be said, President Cleveland has come to the rescue of the unspeakable Turk. The Eastern question has dropped out of sight. The Sultan has ceased for a week to be a prominent figure in the eyes of Christendom. He has escaped observation, and has been left at liberty to order additional massacres of Armenians and continue the process of pacifying rebellious provinces by bloodshed and rapine." The latest news bears evidence that the Sultan has not been slow to "catch on" to the change in the situation, for it reports the attack upon Zeitun by Turkish troops, and the barely successful resistance of the Armenians in the place. Of course England cannot look out for the Armenians while she has a war with us on her hands. The only way by which the United States could exert any influence upon the Sultan was by giving our moral support to England in the matter, but we cannot fight England over a boundary-line dispute in Venezuela—a country in which there are no American residents—and at the same time join hands with England for the protection of the Christians in Armenia, among whom there are several hundred American citizens; so we have turned the Christians over to the Turk, and he is dealing with them in a style barbaric enough to suit the wildest Jingo.

We take the following from a circular of Dow, Jones & Co., issued just as the present deviltry was beginning:

"Some of the people who have been quoted as favoring war measures, say privately that it *does not do to appear unpatriotic*, but they personally think a great mistake has been made. At the Union League Club last night, a gentleman who made inquiries found the sentiment almost universal that a great mistake had been made, and that the language used by the President was entirely out of keeping with the subject. We have taken some pains to ask for opinions, and, *while nobody wants to be quoted*, practically everybody asked regrets the stand taken by the President and expresses disgust over the whole business."

We wish to say to those who are now so indignant over our present situation, that they will find in the above few lines the explanation of the greater part of the trouble. A large proportion of the intelligent and educated men of the country who are, or ought to be, in charge of our highest national interests, both moral and financial, in ordinary times, year after year, remain perfectly silent and apparently acquiescent while demagogues, ruffians, and ignoramuses fill the air with abuse of foreign nations, and threats to whip them, while the very children in the public schools are brought up to hate them, and consider the highest and most glorious duty of the patriot to kill them and burn their houses. Every rational man knows that this cannot go on for years and years without some day bringing on a crisis such as that in which we are now wallowing; and yet how many ever have the courage to raise their voices against it? Why, any blackguard can rise up and with perfect impunity make his own ravings about foreign affairs the only true expression of patriotism, and the best men in the community will not dare to tell him that he is a repulsive donkey. The unfortunate *Tribune*, just issuing from a patriotic debauch, is to-day declaring against "war talk." "War talk" is mainly harmful for the effect it produces on foreigners, as we now see. The war talk of idiots among themselves is innocuous. But war talk does not consist simply in abuse of a particular nation. It consists in threatening interpretations of the Monroe Doctrine; in blatherskite newspaper demands for a "vigorous foreign policy"; in instantaneous endorsements, without debate, of a minatory message; and in fact in everything which indicates national excitability, irrationality, and hysteria. We cannot afford to destroy all confidence abroad in our steadiness, calmness, and common sense. We are all business men, but foreigners will not do business with people whose mental soundness they suspect—and much of our current "patriotism" is a thinly veiled form of insanity.

Speaker Reed's committees attract no more attention than the gambols of the squirrels in Central Park. In comparison with the issues of peace and war with which the air is filled, they are of no consequence whatever. The committee on foreign affairs would have been very important if the House had not abdicated beforehand so much of the control over foreign affairs as the Constitution lodged in Congress—that is, the war-making power. By rushing blindly at Mr. Cleveland's heels, it did all that it could to clothe him with its own powers, and now it stands before the country naked. It will not recover from this exposure. If the country is saved now, it must be by the sober sense of the people. The tonic must come from the pulpits, the counting-rooms, the colleges, and—alas, that we should need to say it—from the socialists, who have been among the first to denounce the unholy and uncivilizing steps taken at Washington last week. The reformation must come from the bottom up. It will reach the committee on foreign affairs in due time, but not soon enough to save the reputation of its members.

As to the ways and means committee, it has gone to puttering over the tariff as though that could help anybody except a few special interests which want to seize this opportunity to plunder the public. If Mr. Cleveland has a grain of self-respect left, he will veto their bill. Probably they expect that he will. Probably they intend that he shall. This committee of ways and means is penetrated with the belief that the only thing needed by the Treasury is more revenue in general, whereas it needs gold and has no means of getting it, since Mr. Cleveland and Congress together have shocked the moral sense of the world by their senseless vaporings about Venezuela. The fact is, we have not a friend in Europe to-day. From France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and every other country that has a free press the word comes that we are in the wrong. The Jingoes thought that the peoples of Europe were as immoral as themselves, and that they would be glad to see England bullied by somebody. It turns out that they cannot tolerate a mere bully in their company. They cannot permit such doctrines as those put forward by Mr. Cleveland to prevail in the world's councils, because those doctrines may turn up at any time to their own detriment. Here is something for the committee on foreign affairs to chew over. The head of that committee has held a diplomatic position. Mr. Hitt knows what positions can be safely taken and what cannot, but he has not dared to say that his soul was his own up to this time. He may recover the power of speech later. Meanwhile there is reason to believe that an end has been made of the Presidential prospects of every man in Congress who has acquiesced in Mr. Cleveland's mad prank either by words or by silence—and that means all of them except Boutelle, if he had any such prospects.

All who believe in decent politics will rejoice over the assurance from Kentucky that Senator Blackburn cannot possibly secure a reëlection from the new Legislature. That body, as made up since the recent second election in a Louisville district, is evenly divided between the Republicans and the Democrats, allowing each of the great parties one of the two Populist members, as is justified by their prepossessions and affiliations. No Democrat—and, for that matter, no Republican—can secure an election to the Senate who has not behind him the solid strength of his own party. Blackburn cannot secure that strength on the Democratic side. Mr. Carroll, the Louisville member who has been twice given a seat in the Legislature by his district, has personally assured hard-money Democrats that he will never cast his vote for Blackburn, whatever action the party caucus may take. That tiresome blatherskite is, therefore, sure to be retired a year from next March.

THE REAL PROBLEM.

WHAT constitutes the gravity of the present crisis is not that we are issuing a commission of inquiry concerning matters of deep interest to us, but that we are issuing it as a hostile proceeding, with a threat of war behind it. What we are going to investigate, therefore, is not whether there is wrong on the British side, but what is the extent of the wrong. We are asking, too, a first-class power to acknowledge our right to trace her frontier in defiance of her own claims and in territory which does not belong to us. Is there any way out of this but war?

A large number of persons who are now applauding Mr. Cleveland's action answer this question by declaring that they may safely applaud, because there will be no war, as Great Britain is sure to back down. It is this belief that Great Britain will submit to anything rather than fight, which in our eyes constitutes the real danger of the situation. Our orators, writers, and teachers, even, have been sedulously spreading it for years, with the risk that the public and our public men would come to view bullying Great Britain with such levity that we should be some day landed in the difficulty in which we now find ourselves. For we might have ascertained the rights and wrongs of the Venezuelan matter officially and for our own information, in a friendly spirit, in civil language, and without threats or foregone conclusions. But in our way of asking for the evidence we have in the same breath acknowledged our ignorance of the facts and insulted one of the parties.

The minatory part of the Presidential message is purely gratuitous, and therefore desperately wicked. It was not necessary for a commission of inquiry, and in fact tends to defeat its object, while, according to the diplomatic usage of civilized countries, it means war. If Bismarck had written it, it would probably have been accompanied by mobilization. The opinion that we can get out of this without fighting or great humiliation comes in the main from newspaper editors who expect to make money out of the row, or from persons who know so little of England and foreign nations, or foreign affairs generally, that it would be waste of time to listen to them. No first-class power could possibly take notice of our commission, or appear before it, or pay any attention to its finding, after the way in which it has been presented to it.

In our belief, therefore, it is the duty of all patriotic men, and especially of business men—the work of congratulating the President on his stupendous folly being over—to come down to business, and see what is the prospect which they have to face in the probable event of war with Great Britain. Most of those who are "hollering" to-day probably fancy that we should all, barring the fighting men, find ourselves as comfortable in such a war as in the one with the South—that is, with an active business, plenty of money, open ports, full theatres, and exciting "extras." There could not be a greater mistake. We are only just recovering from a severe panic, and our currency is still trembling on the edge of a chasm. The mere existence of a minatory commission during the next six months of a "Presidential year" will retard if not wholly stop the process of recuperation, if it does not land us on a silver basis, and will cause heavy withdrawals of foreign capital from our securities. The war, unlike our last, will be a naval war, and the inferiority of our naval forces is so great that we have the authority of the General of the Army, in his last report, for saying that our navy could not possibly prevent the blockade of our whole coast within ten days, and the levying of ransom on every one of our Atlantic cities, including New York, on pain of bombardment. Our Jingo papers in this city would probably have to do their "hollering" at Yonkers or Peekskill. Not only would our ports be closed, and our coasting trade stopped, but a foreign trade of about $1,600,000,000, on which our agriculture and manufacturing industry are largely dependent, if not for success, for prosperity, would cease at one blow. Immigration and travel would both come to an end, and the national mind would be wholly turned away from civilizing agencies, from trade, commerce, currency, and manufactures, from art, literature, and science, and be concentrated on the accounts in the extras of the daily work of slaughter and destruction and the gradual rising of the tide of barbarism. The forced cessation, too, of work in every sort of enterprise, either through want of confidence or the loss of markets, would fill every town in the country with furious unemployed, with their heads full of socialism; and part, and a large part, of the work of our troops would be the protection of railroads, factories, and "princely mansions" from the attacks of hungry mobs. One of the delusions of the Jingoes has been for years that in fighting England we should be able to make up for our naval inferiority by attacks on her commerce at sea. This was true, in a measure, of the war of 1812. But, if there be any thoughtful men among Jingoes, they will remember that the whole conditions of maritime intercourse have changed since then, and that this weapon of offence has been practically taken away from us by the substitution of steam for sailing vessels. Merchant vessels are now steamers, and have to be chased by steamers, and we have no swift ones and no coaling-stations on the track of British commerce.

We know very well that there are Jingoes so afflicted by Providence that the more you tell them of the losses that war would occasion, the more eager they are for hostilities to begin; their notion being that, when you go to war, it is base and mean to count the cost. They think, like Louis XIV. or Napoleon, that there is nothing like fighting for "honor," and revel in the thought of the misery in which they will plunge other people. But we do not believe the mass of American business men have been converted all of a sudden into crack-brained Parisians. Who in listening to the Jingo yells these fine mornings can avoid hearing through the mist of years those other Jingo yells which started the Parisian crowd on the road "to Berlin," or asking themselves what war for "self-respect and honor" has ever been begun, continued, or ended without making its originators and promoters objects of execration to all subsequent generations?

THE VENEZUELA CORRESPONDENCE.

OUR share in the Venezuela correspondence is not calculated to flatter the national vanity. Some change has evidently come over our policy since the death of Secretary Gresham. He was very diligent in circulating from the State Department copies of the Monroe Doctrine as enunciated by Monroe, in defence of his abstention from meddling, as the Jingoes wished him to do, in the Nicaragua affair. Thousands of copies of a pamphlet of its own, and thousands of copies also of the *Evening Post's* reprint of Prof. Moore's essay on the Doctrine, were sent out by the Department. All this adhesion to the Doctrine, pure and simple, ceased when Secretary Olney came in. Since his accession, textual references to it have wholly stopped, and we have been treated to a series of glosses and additions of a highly explosive character, to which one of our correspondents has given the name of the "Cleveland Doctrine." The simple text has been withheld from the faithful as carefully by the Administration as by the newspaper Jingoes, whom we taunted so much on this point, and Mr. Olney's and the President's interpretations have been given forth to the world as the pure milk of the word.

The first intimation we got of what was brewing was the announcement in the President's message that we were opposed to "the forcible increase by any European power of its territory on this continent"; that Great Britain was actually guilty of this offence, as it was trying "to enlarge the area of British Guiana in derogation of the rights and against the will of Venezuela." This positive pronouncement on the merits of the controversy had two consequences. It made it impossible for us to act as arbitrators if arbitration there should be, and it left, in our judgment, nothing to arbitrate. Great Britain was wrong and Venezuela was right. Having thus declared ourselves frankly on the Venezuelan side, we called on Great Britain in a threatening manner to say categorically whether she would arbitrate in a case in which we had already decided for ourselves. In other words, after having become a party to the controversy without invitation, we

called for compulsory arbitration. We presume no thinking American familiar with the usages of civilized international intercourse read this bit of self-stultification without a touch of shame.

But worse was to come. The President in his message to Congress on Tuesday week abandoned Monroe wholly, and produced the "Cleveland Doctrine," which is "the recognition of those principles of international law which are based upon the theory that every nation shall have its rights protected and its just claims enforced." The confusion of thought and language here is remarkable. There is no principle of international law which provides protection for every theory and claim which any nation may make for itself. International law protects only such claims and theories as the civilized world has accepted as just and right. Pope Alexander VI., by a bull of May 4, 1493, gave everything west of the Cape Verde Islands to Spain and Portugal, and under it these Powers long "claimed" the whole American continent. Great Britain used to "claim" the exclusive jurisdiction in the narrow seas around the island, and the right to seize belligerent goods in neutral bottoms, and to seize British sailors on board neutral vessels. We, too, have claimed possession of Bering Sea. But international law knows nothing of claims like these. In that forum every valid claim has to be based on consensus. Whatever be the value of the Monroe Doctrine or the Cleveland Doctrine, therefore, it is not binding on any foreign Power until it has accepted it. The Cleveland Doctrine will be good international doctrine when other nations have agreed to it. Until then it remains, as regards foreign nations, exactly what the Spanish title under the Pope's bull was—only something to fight for. It has whatever force we choose to give it in arms, and no more. To ask for more, without negotiation or agreement with the South American or other states, is childish.

In the same message the President again humiliates us by his self-contradictions. He repeats his demand that Great Britain must submit to arbitration, after having pronounced against her claim; and after insisting that any enlargement of the area of foreign territory on this continent would be injurious to "our peace and safety as a nation, the integrity of our free institutions," etc., and should be resisted if necessary, he calmly admits that "any adjustment of boundary which Venezuela may deem for her advantage, and may enter into of her own free will, cannot of course be objected to by the United States." That is, Venezuela may, by private arrangement with Great Britain, imperil "our peace and safety as a nation," "the integrity of our free institutions, and the tranquil maintenance of our distinctive form of government"! The rhetoric of the closing paragraph of the message is worthy of the logic of the earlier part, and forcibly and clearly indicates the object of the whole composition.

Secretary Olney's argumentation is even more confused than that of his chief. He lays down, as "an admitted axiom of international law," that a nation may interpose in a controversy between other nations, but omits to mention that international law takes no notice of any interference which is not asked for by the parties to the controversy. He also produces, as if it were law, the right to interfere when its own "integrity and tranquillity" are menaced, but this is simply the right to go to war when it pleases, which has never been denied to any nation except by the insane. The Monroe Doctrine he defines thus:

> "The precise scope and limitations of this rule cannot be too clearly apprehended. It does not establish any general protectorate by the United States over other American states. It does not relieve any American state from its obligations as fixed by international law, nor prevent any European power directly interested from enforcing such obligations, or from inflicting merited punishment for the breach of them. It does not contemplate any interference in the internal affairs of any American state, or in the relations between it and any other American state. It does not justify any attempt on our part to change the established form of government of any American state, or to prevent the people of such state from altering that form according to their own will and pleasure. The rule in question has but a single purpose and object. It is that no European power or combination of European powers shall forcibly deprive an American state of the right and power of self-government, and of shaping for itself its own political fortunes and destinies."

But from this he deduces an extraordinary assortment of other doctrines. One is, that our non-interference in European conflicts demands, as some sort of reciprocity, the defence by us of the independence of all American states. Another is, that "the United States is practically sovereign on this continent, and its fiat law"—which is the first assertion of sovereignty over the whole hemisphere since the Pope's Bull, and, of course, makes us responsible for all wrongdoing from Canada to Cape Horn. Another is, that we must be distrustful of and hostile to European powers, as a lesson of experience. Another is, that any attempt forcibly to assume "political control" over an American state is an injury to the United States, and that the inclusion of Great Britain's dispute with Venezuela in this category "presents no real difficulty."

Passing over the Secretary's remarks about Africa and the danger of similar conditions arising on this hemisphere, we come to his conclusion that we must, in a supposed condition, be "armed to the teeth, convert the flower of our male population into soldiers and sailors, and thus annihilate a large share of the productive energy of the nation." What is all this correspondence about? It is a question whether the boundary line of Venezuela and British Guiana runs a few miles this way or that way—a matter which is no concern of ours anyway; but suppose it were our concern, and that the decision were against Venezuela, no matter how the decision were reached. Would the effect upon us be of the appalling nature described? Must we at once arm ourselves to the teeth? Must we convert the flower of our male population into soldiers and sailors? Venezuela is separated from us by two thousand miles of water, and more than that of land. Half-a-dozen countries lie between us. The distance could not be traversed by an army in any event. On the other hand, if we cast our eyes in the opposite direction, we find exactly the conditions which excite Mr. Olney's fears; that is, we find Great Britain established on our northern border for a distance of thirty-five hundred miles. She has been there all the time that we have been a nation. She has been *there* longer than we have been *here*, and nobody ever dreamed that she was a menace to us for that reason. All our troubles with Great Britain in the past have grown out of other things than the nearness of Canada. Neither Mr. Olney nor any other human being ever imagined the need of our "arming to the teeth" on account of Canada unless we intended to do harm to her—and thank God we have never had such intention since the treaty of Ghent was made, eighty years ago.

Now consider the argument that we must arm in self-defence if Great Britain does not submit to arbitration the question whether 40,000 people, living quietly under her rule—who have so lived all their lives—shall be transferred to one of the most turbulent and unstable governments in the world, and without consulting them at all. If the case were reversed and put to us, in manner and form like President Cleveland's impudent and insulting demand, we should declare war on that issue alone, and without waiting for an overt act. Everybody knows that we should do so. But, returning to Mr. Olney's fears for our safety in the premises, it may be said that he did not fear the results in this immediate case, but in its possible extension. There are only three countries of Europe that have any South American holdings, and one of them (Holland) may be cast out of the reckoning. The idea that we have anything to fear from any possible extension of the French and English boundaries of the Guianas, so that we must "arm to the teeth" and make the flower of our youth soldiers and sailors for all future time, passes the bounds of absurdity and becomes downright dishonesty. We cannot express our contempt for it.

PATRIOTISM AND FINANCE.

THE celebrated remark of Col. Yell of Yellville that "though his accounts might not balance, his heart beat warmly for his native land," seems to have suggested the following observation in Mr. Cleveland's message on Friday:

> "If in this particular instance our predicament is at all influenced by a recent insistence

upon the position we should occupy in our relation to certain questions concerning our foreign policy, this furnishes a signal and impressive warning that even the patriotic sentiment of our people is not an adequate substitute for a sound financial policy."

That any warning on such a point from such a man should be needed at this juncture, shows how far the Jingo madness has gone. Mr. Cleveland evidently needed it himself before he launched his war message. The effect of the message on the money market seems to have taken him by surprise. He was apparently of opinion that it made no difference whether people's accounts balanced or not, if their hearts beat warmly for their native land. Nothing has come from that quarter so likely to cause uneasiness among foreign investors as this admonition, because it reads as if we were a band of blind men led by another blind man, or rather a band of lunatics in charge of an unsound keeper. In their dealings with each other no people in the world show more sanity, not to say shrewdness, than Americans. Every financial transaction, from the sale of butter to the placing of railroad bonds, is based on a perfect knowledge of human nature. Every honest man in either selling or buying interrogates himself and concludes that others feel as he does, and makes his calculations accordingly. The total failure of this sense in international matters goes far to confirm the belief of a great many people that the "patriotism" which has been diffused among the masses during the past thirty years, and even taught to the children in the schools, is a species of madness. During the Chilian trouble, some one started the notion in Bridgeport, Conn., that it was an "insult" for a foreign vessel to come into an American port flying any flag but the stars and stripes. Within a day or two in came a British ship flying the union jack. Instant preparations were made by the local patriots to board her and mob the captain. Before the eruption actually took place, however, some one suggested telegraphing to the State Department to find out whether it was an insult or not for a foreign vessel to fly her own flag in our ports. The answer was of course satisfactory, and the trouble blew over; but what a revelation as to the state of mind even of intelligent New Englanders touching the usages of international intercourse!

Take again to-day the theory propounded and firmly held by many Jingoes, that the fall of securities in the market is a cunning device of Englishmen to annoy us or insult us, a kind of bloodless war, which only aggravates the English wrongdoing in the Venezuelan matter; or that other theory that the fall in Wall Street only affects the brokers, a selfish class whom it serves right, and that it should only make us the sterner in the assertion of our rights. We do not believe there is any question as to the name Nordau would give these delusions, and there is equally little question that they have their origin in a morbid patriotism, which manifests itself only in a desire to fight some one. We do not believe we exaggerate when we say that a disposition to engage in an armed conflict with some foreign nation is to-day the only meaning which the mass of the people attach to the word "patriotism." This is what they understand whenever it is mentioned. For this is now the only thing which leads the bulk of us to sink party differences in support of the Executive in the prospect of a foreign war. No danger or distress from any other cause will bring about any such result. It has caused the present Congress to abdicate the extremely important function of "declaring war" imposed on it by the Constitution, and practically hand it over to the Executive, by "standing behind the President," and giving him all the power he asked for in an international dispute, without debate or deliberation. Commenting on the wisdom of confiding this power of declaring war to Congress alone, Story says:

"But certainly, in a republic the chief magistrate ought not to be clothed with a power so summary, and, at the same time, so full of dangers to the public interest and the public safety. It would be to commit the liberties, as well as the rights of the people, to the ambition, resentment, or caprice, or rashness of a single mind."—(*Story on the Constitution, p. 120.*)

As a matter of fact this power has been placed in President Cleveland's hands without a word of deliberation or remonstrance from Congress, and if he began hostilities to-morrow, a wild yell of patriotic fervor is all that he would hear from either branch of Congress.

Who is responsible for the diffusion of these alarming notions among the American people, now containing a dangerously large body of persons who know nothing at all about finance or foreign exchange, as the history of the last twenty years abundantly shows, and nothing about foreign nations except that they are possible antagonists in war, and have heard of no international law except the Monroe doctrine? Well, we are afraid we must lay the blame largely on the business men and the more intelligent classes generally. The poison from which we are suffering to-day has been filtering into the public mind through the newspaper press, the magazines, and into the minds of the children through the school-books, for thirty years, so that instead of growing more humane and civilized in our relations with the rest of mankind as we have grown more powerful, we have become distinctly more unreasoning and barbarous. Our descent as a member of the family of nations since Webster and Marcy sat in the State Department, has been very marked, in spite of greatly increased intercourse with the Old World and of complete deliverance from the sensitiveness of youth and weakness which beset us in the beginning of the century. The half-savage attitude towards foreign nations has, as we have often remarked, been greatly stimulated by the arguments and appeals necessary to support a high tariff, but is also due, in a far larger degree, to the apparent acquiescence of the instructed class in any definition of "patriotism" which the demagogues and ignoramuses and sensational newspapers chose to propound. The fear of differing with any blatherskite who chose to mount the stump or make "copy" in a newspaper office, in order to tell us how to show love of country, has been one of the great shames and scandals of our recent history. It is to-day bearing its proper fruit in financial disorder, and we may thank God that it has not landed us in a war of which the opening years would be a chronicle of frightful loss and disaster. Opinion on any particular public question forms very slowly in America, but it takes nearly as much time to change it as to make it; and if the intelligent classes wish to save popular government on this continent for humanity and civilization, they must speak out more boldly when they see perverting processes at work on the popular mind.

JAY'S TREATY.

It happened, by an odd coincidence, that dinners were given on Thursday evening by commercial bodies in New York and Boston, to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of the ratification of the treaty negotiated by John Jay with Great Britain. These celebrations were arranged several weeks before, and therefore had no reference to, the late explosion at Washington city, in which President Cleveland presented himself in such marked contrast to President Washington. Jay's treaty, although it had other interesting features, was a commercial treaty in the main. Hence it was properly celebrated at its hundredth anniversary by commercial interests. Peculiar interest attaches to it at this time from the fact that the treaty was welcomed by the statesmen of the country with favor, but was received by the populace with an outburst of wrath which took on the most disgraceful and outrageous forms. Indeed, if any hand less firm than that of Washington had been at the helm, the treaty would have been rejected and war with Great Britain would have ensued. The contrast with the present situation is found in the fact that the so-called statesmen are now eager for war, or pretend to be, while the people are for the most part stupefied to know what has caused the excitement.

When the war of the Revolution was ended, the United States did not spring into existence as a nation. They continued to be separate States held together by the loose tie called the Articles of Confederation. These gave the general Government no power to regulate commerce with foreign countries. It could only recommend the States to do this or

that, and the States could follow the recommendations, or not. The doctrines of the Mercantile Theory were then in vogue, the central idea of which was that what one nation gains by foreign trade some other nation loses. The consequence was that foreign trade had to be conducted under commercial treaties in which the contracting parties received and granted concessions. But the Government of the United States could not grant any concessions, because it could not bind the States. New York might agree to the terms of a commercial treaty and Pennsylvania might refuse. New York might agree to-day and withdraw her agreement to-morrow.

Therefore England refused to grant any trade concessions to this country. Our trade was mostly with her colonies and herself, and the want of trade privileges was a great affliction. There were other sources of irritation. Great Britain had agreed at the end of the war to vacate certain frontier posts in the West, but had not done so. She had agreed not to carry away any slaves when her fleet evacuated our ports, yet a great many negroes had escaped, either with or without the connivance of her officers. The number was estimated at 3,000, and pay was demanded for them. When she was pressed on these two subjects, she replied that we had agreed to restore the confiscated estates of the loyalists and to cease confiscation of the rest, and that both agreements had been violated. The fact was that the treaty provided that Congress should do all that it could, which was to "recommend" these things to the States, which the States refused to do in the same way that they refused to pay taxes when they did not choose to pay.

These causes of irritation were rife before the Constitution was adopted, and had brought the country to such a pitch of exasperation that any slight cause might start a blaze, and so things stood when the French Revolution broke out. England and France soon became involved in war, and both sought to gain an advantage by putting restraints on the commerce of neutrals. Great Britain also held to the "right of search" for British seamen, whom she impressed wherever they were found. This was, perhaps, the greatest grievance of all, since it was contended that many American sailors were forcibly dragged into the service of the English navy in this way. Things went on from bad to worse till 1794, when President Washington clearly perceived that these differences must be composed, or war would be the inevitable result. In order to avert this calamity, he decided to send an envoy extraordinary to London for this purpose. He first intended to send Hamilton, but, since the latter had become embroiled in the partisan politics of the day, he changed his mind and selected John Jay, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, "the only man," said Hamilton, "in whose qualifications for success there would be thorough confidence."

Mr. Jay accepted the mission. The treaty was negotiated and sent to the President, who called a special session of the Senate, by which it was ratified by 20 yeas to 10 nays. It only remained for the President to sign and promulgate it. Before it reached this country at all, rumors came that Mr. Jay was in a fair way of reaching a conclusion. Very few had expected this. Consequently, before the terms were known to all, the mutterings of a tempest were heard, and Jay was denounced in public meetings as an unpatriotic citizen and tool of our enemies. It was reported among other things that he had kissed the hand of the Queen. This served as the text for fierce denunciations, to which charges of bribery were soon added.

When the terms of the treaty became known, there was an explosion of rage, the recital of which in the histories of Hildreth, McMaster, and Schouler makes us wonder what manner of people our ancestors of the year 1795 were. Riots broke out in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, and Savannah. British merchant ships were seized and burned. John Jay was burned in effigy, hanged in effigy, and drawn and quartered in effigy. Washington was denounced as a betrayer of his country's dearest rights; and one blackguard who had access to the newspapers of the day, went so far as to call him a thief. Hamilton was stoned in the streets of New York for making a speech counselling moderation, and went home with blood streaming from his face. It was said that the stones were thrown by some sailors from a French ship lying in the harbor, but it was evident that the natives did not object to this treatment of their greatest citizen.

These brutal demonstrations were intended to have an influence on Washington to prevent him from signing the treaty. He said nothing, but bided his time. After a little the sober sense of the community began to assert itself. The Chambers of Commerce of Boston and New York, as soon as they could meet without danger of being mobbed, assembled and passed resolutions in favor of ratification and sent them to the President. The soberer portion of Philadelphia did the same. Then Washington signed the treaty and proclaimed it as a part of the supreme law of the land, and now, one hundred years later, public meetings of business men are held to celebrate the ratification of Jay's treaty. Its opponents either are buried in oblivion, or are recognized only by the traces of folly and mobocracy which they left behind them.

THE FRENCH ACADEMY.—I.

PARIS, December 3, 1895.

THE French Academy has lost in a short time three of its most illustrious members—Renan, Taine, and Alexandre Dumas. Little is known out of France of the history and traditions of this Academy, and its relation to what is called the Institute. The recent visit of the Institute, with all its foreign correspondents, to the Duke d'Aumale, who made to the Institute the magnificent donation of Chantilly, with all its treasures, has drawn the attention of many persons to this same question of the constitution of the Institute and to the French Academy. The history of the French Academy is, to a certain extent, the history of French literature for two centuries. Its origin was very humble. Cardinal Richelieu, having learned that a certain number of literary men had regular meetings at the house of Conrart—the same Conrart of whom Boileau said sarcastically,

"Imitez de Conrart le silence prudent,"

asked, according to Pellisson, "if these persons would not like to form a body, and to meet regularly and under public authority." Here we have, in a word, the origin of the institution: it was not to be a mere coterie, a club, it was to have the patronage of the state. You will at once recognize the spirit which animates all the social life of France. The Academy is the creation of Richelieu, and till lately it was necessary for all the new members in their reception speech to allude to the famous Cardinal. The letters-patent of the foundation were issued on the 29th of January, 1635; they were confirmed by the Parlement only two years afterwards, in 1637.

Richelieu's despotic character had to make allowance for the principles of liberty which are essential to literary life. He admitted the principle of the election of the members of what was called the French Academy by the company itself; he allowed it to draw its own statutes, and the statutes guaranteed a complete equality among the members. He respected the liberty of the members in all the elections in this new self-elected body, and did not attempt to weigh in any manner in the choices which were to be made. The Academy itself chose its Perpetual Secretary (this name and this function have been continued to our day); the Director and the Chancellor were drawn by lot from the beginning as they are now. The independence of the Academy was severely tried when Richelieu asked its opinion of the "Cid" of Corneille. The Academy published only after five months of negotiation its 'Sentimens sur le Cid.' Richelieu was only half satisfied with the criticisms of the new Academicians; the public took the side of Corneille, and Boileau could write afterwards:

"L'Académie en corps a beau le condamner,
Tout Paris pour le Cid a les yeux de Chimène."

In 1642 the Hôtel Séguier became the centre of the meetings of the Academy; by degrees noblemen were introduced among the littérateurs, and the indirect protectorate of the King made itself more and more felt. Bussy was condescending enough to write: "It will always be necessary to leave in the Academy a certain number of men of letters, if only to finish the Dictionary, and for the assiduity which men like ourselves (*des gens comme nous*) could not have in such a place." After the death of Séguier, in 1672, the King became the protector of the Academy, and Colbert established it in the Louvre. He instituted the *jetons de présence* (each member receives, at the sitting he attends, a small sum, which is the same now as in the time of Colbert); he never interfered with the freedom of the elections. The prestige of Louis XIV., however,

was so great, and the number of *grands seigneurs* elected without any literary title was such, that the Academy seemed at one time to have for its only object the eulogy of the "Grand Roi." Louis XIV. rewarded it by treating it with much favor. He presented the Academy with the forty *fauteuils*. He never imposed any choice on the Academy, but he sometimes opposed an election; thus, he objected to the Duke du Maine, notwithstanding the great affection he had for him, and, by his influence, the election of La Fontaine was deferred for some time. When Louis XIV. expressed a desire that Boileau should be elected to the Academy, it was a mere act of justice on his part. One day, at supper, he asked Boileau, "Do you belong to the Academy?" Boileau answered that he was not worthy of such an honor. "Je veux que vous en soyez," said the King. Boileau might well write:

"Grand Roi, cesse de vaincre ou je cesse d'écrire,"

but he would not be elected by the King's order. A seat became vacant by the death of Colbert; Boileau made no visits, and La Fontaine presented himself. La Fontaine had sixteen votes, Boileau seven. The nomination was submitted to the King, who waited till a second seat was vacant. This time Boileau was elected by a unanimous vote. Louis XIV., who did not approve of the famous 'Contes' of La Fontaine, said to the members of the Academy who announced to him the election of Boileau: "Your choice is very agreeable to me and will be generally approved. You can now receive La Fontaine; he has promised to be good" (*d'être sage*).

It was under Louis XIV. that was founded a yearly prize for poetry; this foundation still subsists. A gift of 3,000 francs is awarded for the best poem written on a subject chosen every year by the Academy. Racine, who, besides immortal tragedies, wrote some very clever epigrams, said, on the subject of this prize, speaking of Louis XIV., after an illness of the King:

"Grand Dieu, conserve nous ce roi victorieux
Que tu viens de rendre à nos larmes,
Fais durer à jamais des jours si précieux;
Que ce soient là nos dernières alarmes;
Empêche d'aller jusqu'à lui
Le noir chagrin, le dangereux ennui,
Toute langueur, toute fièvre ennemie,
Et les vers de l'Académie."

The Academy of the seventeenth century can boast of such members as La Bruyère, Boileau, Fénelon, Racine, La Fontaine. It may be said to have given to the French men of letters a certain sort of solidarity. The bond of union (we will not call it fraternity) was perhaps less marked in the eighteenth century, because the men of letters became, so to speak, the satellites of one man—of Voltaire. The Academy was less the centre of the intellectual world than the group of the philosophers and the encyclopædists who recognized Voltaire as their leader and protector. Nevertheless, the history of the Academy in the eighteenth century shows that it became more and more a public institution, and in that respect it helped to prepare the great primacy and the intellectual empire which were seized in the latter part of the century by the men of letters—an empire which may be considered as having prepared the great French Revolution and substituted new principles and new ideas for the ideas and principles of the old régime.

Voltaire himself entered the Academy in 1746, not without great difficulty. The first representative of the philosophical school in the Academy was Montesquieu, who had been obliged to show Cardinal Fleury an edition of his 'Lettres Persanes' from which all the dangerous passages had been omitted. Voltaire tells the story in his 'Siècle de Louis XIV.' He was himself anxious to enter the Academy. "I thought," he wrote to the Duke de Richelieu, "of making myself a sort of rampart, with the Academy, against the persecutions which a man who writes freely must always fear in France." He had already written "Oedipe," the "Henriade," "Zaïre," "Mérope"; but his 'Philosophical Letters' had been condemned and burned. As usual, he did not hesitate to lie; he cleared himself by indirect means of the accusations brought against him. "My true sentiments with regard to the state and religion are well known to Cardinal Fleury," he wrote to the Bishop of Mirepoix, who was preceptor to the Dauphin. "I can say, before God, that I am a good citizen and a good Catholic." He wrote, in the same style, to the Archbishop of Sens, whose influence he feared. Frederick of Prussia sent him these verses on the occasion:

"Quoi! la grâce efficace opère:
Par Mirepoix endoctriné,
Et tout aspergé d'eau benite,
Abattu d'un jeune obstiné,
Allez-vous devenir hermite?"

Notwithstanding all these efforts, Voltaire was not elected; but he was tenacious; he wrote his poem on Fontenoy; he made an alliance with Madame de Pompadour; he was elected without any resistance on the death of President Bouhier.

Duclos, D'Alembert, President Hénault, Marmontel, are to be found among the members of the society in the reign of Louis XV., together with some princes of the blood; Duclos was elected Perpetual Secretary, a high academical office which is held for life, and which since 1742 has had for its remuneration a pension and an apartment first at the Louvre and now in the palace of the Institute. D'Alembert was chosen Perpetual Secretary after Duclos. When the Count de Clermont was elected academician, somebody said: "Since they make the Count de Clermont an academician, they ought to make D'Alembert a prince of the blood." This pleasantry shows in a pointed form the change which was taking place in public opinion; the Academy was becoming more and more a free centre of thought, an independent institution.

Since 1671 there has been every year a prize for eloquence given to the best essay on a religious question. Balzac, who was the initiator of this competition, desired that only religious subjects should be treated. Duclos substituted for these subjects the eulogy of the celebrated men of the nation. The Academy, though it remained faithful to its old tradition of having always some priests (generally bishops) among its members, showed its desire to have a lay rather than a theological character. Thomas, who is now well forgotten, made himself famous in his time by his "éloges."

The history of the French Academy under the reign of Louis XVI. is a continuation of the struggle between the philosophers and their adversaries. Voltaire made his famous last visit to Paris in 1778, and the Academy paid him extraordinary honors. The prizes instituted by means of the great donation of M. de Montyon, and destined (in the language of the donor) to recompense the "works most useful to the *temporal* good of humanity" and virtuous acts—these, together with other liberalities, gave to the Academy a large patronage, which manifested to all eyes the growing power of the philosophical school. All the choices made after 1774 were distinctly favorable to the alliance of political liberalism and of literature. The reception of Malesherbes, who was dear to the philosophers for having been a protector of the Encyclopedia, was almost a political event; he dared to put "patriotic sentiments among literary titles." Voltaire wrote from his retreat: "I should like the Academy to be always free, in order that there should be something free in France"; and six months before his death he still wrote: "The Academy is free. Cardinal Richelieu created it free, as God created man. . . . It is a body which makes itself more useful than people think, by doing nothing." Between the deaths of Voltaire and of D'Alembert, who did not long survive Voltaire, and 1789, there is a sort of interregnum in the history of the Academy. The great place which it had occupied during the philosophical period seems to have become more contracted. We shall next see what became of the institution during the Revolutionary period.

Correspondence.

"FORCE AS A MORAL INFLUENCE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article in the *Nation* of December 19, under the above caption, after referring to the reformatory efforts of Chief-Justice Snodgress of Tennessee (who shot a lawyer), of a Massachusetts Supreme Court judge (who makes addresses to young men eulogizing war), and of a Louisiana judge (who advocates the carrying of concealed weapons), you point out the striking effects of war as a moral school by examples taken from the nations of the Old World. But why cross the ocean and tell us about the achievements of the French, the Swiss, or the British in killing men, when we have an ideal to emulate so much more complete and much nearer home? Does not the American Indian illustrate the beauties of force, and its logical results in the improvement of character and social conditions, far better than the half-hearted application of the doctrine in question by foreigners? The pages of Parkman and the records of missionaries, travellers, and colonial experiences give us vivid pictures of the moral influence of taking the law into one's own hands, as exemplified by the aborigines. No better illustrations could be desired by the learned judges of the superiority of individual physical prowess, stalking forth to look for insults to avenge in congenial wildernesses, over the toil of weaklings working for the common good and jealous of the peace of society.

Indeed, the evident restiveness of some judges off the bench at their perfunctory respect for law on the bench, of makers of law at the reign of law, of executive officers at the facts and hindrances of history and international codes when they are out on the war-path, and even of religious teachers at their official message of "Peace on earth, good will to men," is quite suggestive of the speedy realization of the Indian ideal. Perhaps the advantage of keeping this ideal "before the people" may be the more apparent if we remember that when we are all braves, and hunting and killing shall be the "proper *business* of youth and middle age" (to quote the admonition of Judge Holmes to the Harvard students), many perplexing questions and obnoxious institutions will have passed into oblivion or settled themselves. There will be no banks and hated bankers, no corporations, capitalists, and industrial managers, no foreign investors with American interests, no

American attachment for historic, legal, or economic precedent, no awkward law or embarrassing Gospel; but then—to quote our President—we shall be "masters of the situation!" Happy Indian ideal! L. C. B.

BETHLEHEM, PA., December 21, 1895.

TOMAHAWK CIVILIZATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As one reads the multiplying testimonials to the value of killing people, making widows and orphans, destroying property, and increasing the burdens of taxation, all as a means of elevating the moral character of the people, he is disposed to wonder what such men as Judge Holmes, Senator Lodge, and their school teach to their own children as to their proper relations with their playmates.

The fundamental principles of morals do not change as one passes from boyhood to manhood, and, according to the doctrine of this new growth of moral philosophers, the child should begin to bite, scratch, and kick his way to moral perfection at an early date. To lose the impressionable period of childhood for such training is surely an unwarranted neglect of the little ones placed under our care. As a tentative model for the guidance of parents, or of any who may be called upon to address kindergartens or Sunday-school children, I offer the following:

"My dear little boys: Of course you all want to grow up to be great men, but you cannot do so unless you start right. Men must know how to fight in order to be great and good, and so you must begin now while you are young and can learn easily. You must be sure not to let other little boys pick on you. You must pull their hair, throw stones at them, tear up their books, bite them, and scratch them. Then when you get old enough, you can have a gun and shoot them. Learn to tear up their books, mash their hats, and burn their playthings now, and then when you get older you can burn their houses, and spoil their fields, so that they will freeze and starve to death. If you learn to do these things now, then you will be good and great men when you grow up, and if you do not want to kill people yourselves, perhaps you can be Judges and Senators, like Mr. Holmes and Mr. Lodge."

In all seriousness, such an address would be no greater an anomaly in its essential character than the recent speech of Judge Holmes. We should like to see some really scientific explanation of the fact that New England is just now putting forward so many men who belong essentially to the tomahawk stage of civilization. W. H. J.

"HIDEOUS LEVITY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been a subscriber to the *Nation* for some years, and never in full sympathy with its political views, although recognizing its ability and sincerity. But I am in the fullest sympathy with the righteous stand taken by the *Nation* on the outburst of savage war-feeling which seems to be rampant now in both political parties. The reckless utterances of some of our public men, the brutal allusions to war as almost a national blessing by some men high in public life, who seem to think that national honor and national savageism are convertible terms, have led up to the present disgraceful condition of things. I rejoice that the *Nation* has never veered from plain speaking on the tendency to turn the sentiment of the American people from the righteousness that exalts a nation, to a coarse bullying and knavish insolence that can result in the end in nothing but humiliation and dishonor.

I know of no better time to illustrate the spirit which many of our leading papers and public men are now exhibiting in treating of the Venezuelan dispute and the awful possibilities of an Anglo-American war, than a phrase which I came across the other day in reading the Matthew Arnold letters—"*a hideous levity.*" No matter whose this levity may be, whether it trickles down from the White House or Tammany, it must be met by the strongest forces which can be summoned in our sober and peace-loving citizenship. Let those of us who have no sympathy with the President's message say so; let the *Nation* and those journals whose heads have not been dizzied by the blatant Jingoism of the day, rebuke the demagogue whoever he may be, and strive to awaken the normal moral sentiment of the American people, which, possibly dormant now, will sooner or later assert itself.

MILTON REED.

FALL RIVER, MASS., December 21, 1895.

THE CAUSE OF LYNCHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondents in recent issues of the *Nation*, in dealing with the question of lynching, seem to me to have failed properly to emphasize the fundamental cause of the evil. One ascribes this barbarous practice to the prevalence of false reasoning regarding the efficiency of our courts; the other, admitting the existence of inefficiency, thinks this would be removed by curtailing the right of appeal, and by letting execution follow swiftly upon conviction. Some reforms of this kind are no doubt desirable, but it is doubtful if they would tend very far to do away with this evil. It is not distrust in the present administration of justice that generally is at the bottom of the difficulty. To assure one's self of this, one need only call to mind the kind of criminals on whom this form of punishment is usually inflicted. Even in the most incompetent and dilatory courts such criminals would have but little chance of escape. It is the rich and the lately respectable offenders who secure new trials, acquittals, or pardons. These usually are in no danger of being lynched. On the contrary, they often receive floral tributes and expressions of sympathy.

What passes for lynch-law seems largely to be a result, among many, of the institution of slavery. Two factors enter into the problem—first, a certain criminal tendency in the negro; second, race prejudice on the part of the whites. Hence we find that this mode of punishment—or rather of outrage—is practised with most frequency and barbarity when a negro has committed a crime against a white person. For similarity of offence, or on the rough frontiers, it has occasionally come to be employed even against whites. That a feeling of impatience at the not infrequent slowness and uncertainty of justice may be vaguely present to the minds of would-be lynchers, is quite possible; but reason about it they cannot do, for reasoning would in most cases defeat their purpose. It seems to be chiefly a matter of momentary impulse, reinforced, in case the offender is a negro, by the half-conscious thought that he is but a very distant relative of theirs.

In so far as the negro figures in the problem, the motive for lynching will completely disappear only when the two races shall each have learned an additional moral lesson—the blacks a deeper regard for moral virtue, the whites a more abiding sense of human brotherhood. Meanwhile, much may no doubt be done to check this evil through the application of proper external means. E.

CLINTON, IOWA, December 16, 1895.

[We believe no white man has ever been burnt alive in this country, except by the Indians, no matter what his offence. Into the burning, with hideous mutilations, of the blacks, enter both the cruelty of revenge and a spirit of terrorism directed principally against the rape of white women. The implication is, as we have before pointed out, that the negro is less than a human being—or, as our correspondent phrases it, "a very distant relative." The laws forbidding honorable intermarriage between the two races are the guarantee of the perpetuation of this savage atrocity; their abolition, the first step on the part of the whites towards its disappearance.

Jefferson wrote, in 1789, to Dr. Edward Bancroft: "A man's moral sense must be unusually strong if slavery does not make him a thief. He who is permitted by law to have no property of his own can with difficulty conceive that property is founded on anything but force." And the argument is equally applicable to chastity, which slavery rendered simply impossible among the blacks.—ED. NATION.]

THE MONUMENT MANIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A distinguished art critic has told us that our country is disgraced by such worthless monuments, for this reason: "No sooner does a man of any sort of distinction die than subscriptions are begged to erect him a monument, the principal mover in the effort being usually *some sculptor unknown to fame.*" R. L. Stevenson has lately died, and now an appeal is issued begging subscriptions to a memorial to him in San Francisco, one of the two principal movers being a sculptor unknown to fame—at least in this part of the country. The other principal is a personal friend of Stevenson's, who wishes thus to pay a personal debt of gratitude for the dedication of the 'Silverado Squatters.'

Now, without one word as to Stevenson's claim, as "a little Romantic," "a minor classic," to a memorial, or to the sculptor's claim to distinction, I wish to protest with all my power against this careless habit of erecting monuments without any guarantee whatever that they are worthy of erection. A man's admirers may gush and grovel in print as much as they please before his talent, but they have no right to make the rest of us artistically ridiculous. This is *my* country as well as any other man's; its reputation in all things, art as well as character, is dear to me; must I, must we, be at the mercy of whoever schemes to design and job a monument? Is there no protection against making our American art the scoff of all foreigners? A Stevenson fountain or monument would be especially observed of foreigners; he was a foreigner to us himself, and always felt himself one.

M. W. U.

CLIFTON, MASS.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ANTE-REVOLUTIONARY FRANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Mr. Stanley Weyman's novel, 'The Red Cockade,' you state that the author is in error in showing us the French peasant of 1789 as absolutely without education. Your reviewer says that recent French writers tell us that he was better educated under the *ancien régime* than during the half-century which followed the Revolution. No authority is given for this assertion, which was a surprising one to me, as, I am sure, it must have been to many of your readers. I wish to quote in opposition to his view a most competent authority, Miss M. Betham Edwards, the author of a number of statistical books upon France and the editor of the last edition of Arthur Young's 'Travels.' In her introduction to the Travels she says (p. 13):

"One curious omission must have struck most readers of the French travels. This quick and accurate observer, who takes note of every object that meets his eye, who travels the three historic high-roads, diverging to the right and to the left in quest of information, never by any chance whatever mentions a village school. Had such schools existed, we may be sure that he would have visited them, bequeathing us in a few graphic sentences an outline of their plan and working. The education of the people was a dead letter in France at the time he wrote. Here and there the curé or *frères ignorantins* would get the children together and teach them to recite the catechism or spell a credo and pater noster. Writing, arithmetic, much less the teaching of French, were deemed unnecessary."

The Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars—during which the French peasant was to be found in arms all the way from Lisbon to Moscow—must have accomplished something in broadening the minds of even the most unlettered hinds. Veterans were constantly returning to the village and the plough, and others, recruited from the same class, were taking their places in the ranks. Can it be that, during all these years of upheaval and restlessness, the French peasant actually retrograded mentally? The wonderful advance of rural France in wealth and the comforts of living during the past century makes the broad statements of your reviewer seem reckless, especially in the absence of a specific reference to the authorities to which he vaguely alludes.

Yours truly, Thomas Robins.

Philadelphia, December 16, 1895.

[Arthur Young was mainly an observer of agricultural and economic conditions, and Miss Betham-Edwards was so singularly ignorant of modern works upon the French Revolution as to be quite unfit to supplement Arthur Young's deficiencies. A large number of writers have lately investigated the condition of primary education in France during the eighteenth century, and their conclusions fully justify the remarks of the reviewer. The first of these writers was the Abbé Allain, whose volume on 'L'Instruction Primaire en France avant la Révolution,' published in 1881, was followed by special studies on the same subject by Albert Duruy, Victor Pierre, Albert Babeau, the Abbé Maggiolo, and by many local historians, who entirely confirmed his conclusions on the universality and efficiency of village schools in France under the *ancien régime*. Some of these writers have gone further, and, not satisfied with demonstrating the excellence of primary education in France under the fostering care of the curés in the rural districts, have shown by statistics how the persecution of the clergy during the Revolution almost extinguished rural education, and left to the statesmen of the Convention and to Napoleon the task of building up a new system of national primary education.

Perhaps one citation of facts will be more effective than assertions or references to recognized authorities. In 1789 there were, in the districts which now form the department of the Meurthe-et-Moselle, 599 communes; in 566 of these there were one or more schools; in 1801, after the Consulate had been established and the Revolution was at an end, there were schools in only about 200. This statement is taken from an article by the Abbé Maggiolo in the *Revue de la Révolution*, vol. 4, p. 117, and similar figures can be quoted for other departments, such as those of the Lot, the Nord, the Haute-Garonne, and the Seine-Inférieure — departments sufficiently scattered to warrant the statement objected to in the review of Weyman's book. Upon the whole question of the overthrow of the former system of village education—owing to the persecution and emigration of the French priests—and the measures taken by the National Convention to meet the difficulty, our correspondent may consult an article by Prof. Morse Stephens of Cornell University upon "The Work of the Committees of Legislation and Public Instruction in the Convention," which appeared in the *Yale Review* for November, 1895.—Ed. Nation.]

ACETYLENE AND ALCOHOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The violent protest uttered by "Chemist" against certain statements about the possible commercial future of acetylene should not be allowed to pass without comment. The question of advantageous production of alcohol from acetylene is not to be settled in any such summary and off-hand fashion. The possibility or impossibility of making wood-alcohol from marsh-gas at a fabulously cheap price has no bearing on the matter. It is a problem by itself, and chemistry does not indicate that the solution must be unfavorable. It is simply a question of the cost of production starting with calcium carbide, as against the cost when grain is used, and must be worked out empirically. If the chemical reactions which are involved can be effected on the large scale with something like theoretical results, carbide of calcium at $40 a ton may very well enter the lists against grain as a profitable source of alcohol.

As to the use of acetylene for illuminating purposes, "Chemist" says "that the original electricity directly converted into light must inevitably be far more economical than this very roundabout method, implying large losses in lime, coal, and in electrical energy." If electricity could be converted into light directly, and without loss, as this statement seems to imply, acetylene and indeed all other sources of artificial illumination would be out of all economical consideration. But electricity cannot be converted into light without loss. There is loss from the instant that the current leaves the dynamo—loss in the conducting wires, loss in the transformer; and when the electricity which finally reaches the lamp is transformed into radiant energy, only about five per cent. of this is light. The making of acetylene does not necessarily imply large losses in even such cheap materials as coal and lime, and it is by no means "inevitable" that the light given by acetylene gas must be far more costly than the electric light. The matter is not to be disposed of by dogmatic assertion; it will be determined by experience, and experience thus far indicates that "Chemist" is wrong.

It is to be expected that one who dismisses the commercial claims of acetylene so abruptly may have rather hazy ideas in regard to the character of chemical reactions and the transformations of energy. That this is the case is certainly suggested by the language which "Chemist" employs. According to him, acetylene is "decomposed" into benzole (benzine) or into alcohol; and marsh gas is "decomposed" by chlorine into methyl chloride. None of these reactions are decompositions; the first two are building-up reactions or syntheses, and the third a substitution. Energy in the form of water power may be transformed into electrical energy, and this in turn is transformed in the electrical furnace into the heat necessary to bring about the reaction between lime and carbon which results in the formation of calcium carbide; but "Chemist" has it that water power is "decomposed" into electricity, and electricity into "chemical energy" which "decomposes" the mixture of carbon and lime. S.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. will be the American publishers of the 'London Garland,' extracts from Chaucer, Lydgate, Spenser, etc., edited by W. E. Henley, with 100 illustrations by the Society of Illustrators, of which we gave a preliminary account some weeks ago.

Ginn & Co. announce for February 1 'Inductive Logic,' by William G. Ballantine, President of Oberlin College.

William J. Bok of Flatbush, Brooklyn, expects to publish next June 'The Quiet City, or, The Mighty Tenants of World-Famed Greenwood,' containing a great number of views of the monuments and portraits of the distinguished dead of that cemetery.

The advance sheets of the introduction to the 'Selections from the Coroners' Rolls (Henry III. to Henry V.),' edited for the Selden Society by Dr. Charles Gross, assistant professor of history at Harvard, are now at hand, and it is hoped that the volume will be ready for distribution before the close of the year. It is noteworthy that Dr. Gross is the first American editor of the Society's publications, and his choice and the fact of his qualification for the task show pleasantly that the interest in the preparation of material for the treatment of Anglo-Saxon legal history is not confined to our English brothers in the law.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press 'Renaissance Fancies and Studies,' a sequel to 'Euphorion,' by Vernon Lee; and 'Joan of Arc,' by Mrs. Oliphant.

Simultaneously with the exhibition of Thomas Paine relics in London, Mr. M. D. Conway

and his publishers, the Messrs. Putnam, have had the thought to issue 'The Rights of Man' by itself, from the plates of Mr. Conway's edition of Paine's writings. We need say no more except that the book is comely, and that a portrait of Paine after Jarvis serves as a frontispiece.

No one can object to the reprinting of 'The Marvellous Adventures of Sir John Maundevile, Kt.,' as a classic, and this has been done in a generous fashion by Archibald Constable & Co., London (New York: Macmillan). Mr. John Cameron Grant, in his preface, relates that he has followed the Cotton MS., "with only such alterations as to make it easily readable by an Englishman" of our day. He also takes credit, which must be allowed, for a proper paragraphing and for indexing. The illustrations, by Arthur Layard, we could easily have dispensed with. So mythical a personage as Sir John had better be left throughout to the imagination. A quaint adornment would have been proper enough, and something has been attempted in this vein by Mr. Layard.

Hans Christian Andersen's 'The Nightingale' has been made the object of a successful combination of the printer's and the designer's arts (Boston: Berkeley Updike). "The Merrymount Press" has called in the aid of Miss Mary J. Newill of Birmingham, whose pencil has wrought in sympathy with nature, the theme, and the conditions of print, and produced a graceful title-page and four attractive and restrained full-page illustrations. The abolition of the paragraph indention we can but regard as a freak in the otherwise clear, strong, and handsome letter-press. Nothing can prevent the feeling that the blank in the previous line concluding a paragraph was caused by the dropping out of a portion.

Mr. Saintsbury's wordy introduction to Bowyer Nichols's 'Words and Days: A Tale-book of Prose and Verse' (London: Rivington, Percival & Co.) was necessary in order to reveal the scheme of an exceptionally well-executed work. Any one might see the harmony of the selections under each day of the year (that is, on each page), or that Shakspere regularly leads the trio of authors borrowed from; but not all would feel the subtle harmony of the month's anthology, and fewer still would associate the day with a birth-date or death-date, as in the case of Gen. Charles Gordon. Such deliberate conjunctions might well have been pointed out in a little table at the end, preceding an author's index, which is a grave desideratum. For the rest we have only praise; the selections are of a high order, and the year-book is beautifully printed.

Prof. Norton's six "Heart of Oak Books" are now completed by the first three volumes, which begin with rhymes and jingles, pass to fables and nursery tales, to fairy stories and tales of adventure, and so connect with the rest of the "collection of traditional rhymes and stories for children, and of masterpieces of poetry and prose for use at home and at school, chosen with special reference to the cultivation of the imagination and the development of a taste for good reading." This little library cannot fail to fulfil its purpose. The notes are for the adult reader, and will not be thrown away in that quarter.

The two volumes of *St. Nicholas* for 1895 present a full and agreeably varied measure of entertainment and instruction. Three serials running throughout the year, with many short stories, should satisfy the most exorbitant in that direction; while more of Prof. Matthews's articles on American writers, Mr. Hornaday's on American quadrupeds, and Mr. Roosevelt's on early exploration and settlement in the West, cater to other tastes. Whimsicalities are not lacking for the youngest readers, and the æsthetic side of this justly popular magazine is as praiseworthy as ever.

A friend writes to us, apropos of our recent notice of 'The Journal of Françoise Krasinska,' that "it would have been worth while to remark that a translation had previously been published in this country, viz.: in the *Continental Monthly* (N. Y.), from July, 1863, to February, 1864, inclusive. In this version she is sensibly called Frances."

The contents of the January issue of the *American Historical Review* will include an article by Henry C. Lea upon the massacre of the Spanish Jews in 1391; a paper on Radisson and Groseilliers, by Henry C. Campbell of Milwaukee; "The Whigs of Colonial New York," by C. H. Levermore; the conclusion of Prof. Turner's "Western State-Making during the Revolutionary Era"; and a paper by Mr. Gaillard Hunt on office-seeking during Washington's Administration. Perhaps the most interesting portion of the contents, however, may prove to be a diary of a member of the Continental Congress (Richard Smith), beginning on September 12, 1775, and ending on March 30, 1776. It is an interesting and on the whole an important document. Of the items of interest it contains, but a small portion is to be found in the printed journals of the Continental Congress or in the diaries of John Adams and Samuel Ward.

A *Journal of Experimental Medicine*, to be issued at least quarterly, is to appear next month with the Appletons' imprint. It will be edited in Baltimore by Dr. Wm. H. Welch, 935 St. Paul St., and will have the collaboration of a very distinguished staff, besides twelve associate editors.

We acknowledge receipt of the first number of the *Black Book* (New York, 111 Broadway), but we confess that we find difficulty in describing such a wayward compound of scrap py prose and eccentric illustrations. Some sketches by Charles Dickens may attract a moment's attention, but we find little to interest in the "order of contents."

The *Geographical Journal* for December opens with an entertaining, if not precisely encouraging, account of the Jackson-Harmsworth North Polar Expedition. The first winter in Franz Josef Land seems to have been passed very pleasantly, thanks to the admirable provision for the welfare of the explorers and the abundance of game—bears, of which about sixty were killed, walrus, and birds. The scientific results so far are apparently only the rectification of the coast line near the winter quarters. One or two short expeditions have also shown that horses are "*the* means of reaching a high latitude from this direction." There is a lively description, with illustrations, of a journey to the pearl fisheries, tin mines, and pepper plantations of the southwestern provinces of Siam by Mr. H. W. Smyth, and a brief account of a visit last summer of the training squadron to Spitzbergen. This too is illustrated.

The December number of *Popular Astronomy* is as usual timely and readable. An article having a practical bearing, by Prof. E. Miller of the University of Kansas, deplores the fact that while other sciences are amply taught in high schools, astronomy is so frequently neglected, or at best given but desultory attention. Considering the relation of other sciences to this most practical one—not only photography and physics, but chemistry, geology, chronology, geography, and ocean commerce—it must be admitted that its importance is second to no other. Prof. Miller gives suggestions which are sensible and valuable for equipping high schools with apparatus. Prof. Payne continues his series of articles on the moon, and Dr. See writes of the stability of the equilibrium of the oceans. Father Rigge treats of the graphic construction of eclipses and occultations; and Prof. Pickering gives a short account of the remarkable variables in star-clusters found by Prof. Bailey in Peru, of which note has already been made.

The *Revue Encyclopédique* of December 1 announces that at New Year's, 1896, it will begin to appear as a weekly. No change will be made in its method or plan; it will remain as before essentially documentary, although there is a hint that it may become somewhat more *vivante*. The price of the yearly subscription will be slightly raised. The *Revue* will appear every Saturday in *livraisons* of twenty pages.

The most important contribution to the fourth number of the *Archivio Storico dell' Arte Italiana* for 1895 is the reproduction of a portrait of Petrarch, found in a Vatican manuscript of the *Canzioniere*. Although dating from the fifteenth century, the miniature appears to be a faithful copy of a fine original executed in Petrarch's life-time, and possibly, we venture to add, by his friend Simone Martini. There are many portrait-like traits of the face, among them something so convincing and free from idealism as a wart. Another portrait of Petrarch, found by M. Pierre de Nolhac in a manuscript of the Bibliothèque Nationale, is reproduced in this writer's 'Pétrarque et l'Humanisme.' The remaining articles are well calculated to surprise even those who have spent many years in art-exploration in Italy, showing, as they do, the inexhaustibility of that land where beautiful things sprang up almost as universally as there were inhabitants. Signor A. Rubbiani reveals unknown works by the Bolognese worker in terracotta, Vincenzo Onofri. In a long and copiously illustrated paper by Signor Alessandro Vesme, we are introduced to the interesting sculptor Matteo Sammicheli, and his monuments at Casale Monferrato, Saluzzo, and still less frequented towns, such as Chieri and Revello. Signor Supino continues his studies of early Tuscan sculptors with an article on Cellino di Nese, the author of the tomb of Cino in the Cathedral of Pistoia. An article on the Venetian exhibition held last winter in the New Gallery is valuable for its reproductions, the text being practically an adaptation of Mr. Berenson's pamphlet on the same subject.

A remarkable discovery of letters of the greatest rarity and interest has lately been made in an ancient castle in Caithness. They number several hundreds, and are of various dates of the earlier half of the present century. They were all addressed to Mr. George Thomson, the musician and projector of the well-known 'Miscellany of Scottish Song,' to which Burns was a contributor. None of these letters has ever seen the light. Among their writers are Jean Armour (Burns's wife), Gilbert Burns (the brother of the poet), and James Glencairn Burns (the poet's son). Besides these there are letters from Sir Walter Scott, Byron, Moore, Dickens, Boswell of Auchinleck, Hogg, Joanna Baillie, Haydn, Beethoven, Weber, and others of less note. The publication of these letters as a whole, or at all events such of them, and such extracts from others, as are considered of the greatest public interest, is to be made in the Glasgow *Evening News*,

and the first instalment was announced to appear on Friday, November 22.

—We have received the prospectus of the *Hungarian-American*, a monthly designed "to develop the American citizenship of the Hungarians here, both by promulgating the language of the country among them, and also by instructing them concerning their duties and privileges in the land of their adoption." The enterprise recalls Adolph Gyurman's unfortunate experience with the *Demokratischer Voelkerbund*, also in this city, in 1852. Gyurman was a fellow-refugee of Kossuth's and a journalist of experience, but, unlike his chief, he was not a trimmer. He did not propose to confine his gaze to Europe, but felt obliged, by "the unlimited critical nature of reason," to scrutinize the institutions of America, whether to commend them for European imitation, or to point a moral with them for avoidance. In his first issue, within a month of his landing with Kossuth, he dared to pronounce the Compromise of 1850 merely "provisional," especially in the matter of returning fugitive slaves. This at once brought a hornet's nest about Kossuth's ears, and led him very promptly to disown Gyurman and his conception of his "duties and privileges in the land of his adoption." We warn the *Hungarian-American*, in its "patriotic enterprise," not to ventilate any heresies against the Monroe Doctrine, or to regard it as a temporary manifesto, a purely historical document, and not an elastic Jingo web, capable of any amount of stretching, and worth spending $100,000 on, any day, to establish what it covers.

—More than a dozen years ago Mr. W. F. Boogher of Washington projected an historical magazine, and, after printing (but not issuing) a few numbers, abandoned the attempt. The pages which were printed are now collected into a handsome volume of 'Miscellaneous Americana,' and they contain so much good matter that it is to be regretted the "miscellany" was not continued. The six letters from Mrs. John Jay to Mrs. Robert Morris, describing her experiences in Madrid and Paris, are more interesting than her husband's catalogue of mortifications endured in his futile mission. The will of the father of Robert Morris, and the warrant under which the financier was arrested and thrown into the debtor's jail, are of high historical value. Papers relating to the prisoners-of-war in the Revolution, to Clement Biddle's service as a quartermaster, to the Shippens, Vinings, and Penns, are all new and have well deserved to be preserved. Stephen Allinson's "testimony of Quakers against slavery" shows that as early as 1688 the lawfulness of buying and keeping of negroes was questioned in that sect, and a long list of subsequent acts and monitions on the subject prove how strong was the feeling against slavery. In Pennsylvania some suspected witches were weighed against a large Bible. "All of them vastly outweighing it, the accused were then to be tied head and foot together and put into a river, on supposition that if they swam they must be guilty." This was in 1730. Eight portraits and a few other illustrations add to the value of the collection. Only three hundred copies are offered for sale by the compiler.

—Should we write and print "judgment" or "judgement"? The Clarendon Press has adopted the latter in consequence of receiving the following expression of opinion from Dr. Murray:

"I protest strongly against the vulgar and unscholarly habit of omitting it [*e*] from 'abridgement,' 'acknowledgement,' 'judgement,' 'lodgement,' which is against all analogy, etymology, and orthoepy, since elsewhere *g* is hard in English when not followed by *e* or *i*. I think the University Press ought to set a scholarly example instead of following the ignorant to do ill for the sake of saving four *e*'s."

In reply to a letter from a member of the London Association of Correctors of the Press, Dr. Murray also condemns the spelling "despatch" as erroneous usage for "dispatch." It appears that in some printing-offices both of these forms are used, one for the verb, the other for the noun; but there is no uniformity in the usage, one house adopting for the verb the spelling that the other used for the noun. Another moot point is whether to write "combatting" or "combating"; the Clarendon Press acts on the principle that the consonant should be doubled in the accented syllable, and not doubled in other cases. This rule would give us "bimetallic" and "bimetalism." The "New English Dictionary," however, spells both words with the double l. In France the Academy settles such things.

—It is hardly probable that the question of the unity of Rousseau's work would have received as much attention as it has on the part of his biographers and critics, were it not for the fact that he himself repeatedly insisted upon it in his writings, notably in his 'Émile,' in the 'Dialogues,' and in some of his Letters. Flagrant contradictions, not only between ideas advanced in the different treatises of Rousseau, but also between passages in one and the same work, cannot have escaped the notice of his readers. But the main question is, Can the principles expounded in his 'Social Contract' be reconciled with those of his two 'Discourses,' especially that on 'Inequality'? The latest contributor to the discussion, M. A. Espinas ("Le 'Système' de J. J. Rousseau," in recent issues of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*), vigorously maintains the negative, and shows that a transformation in the fundamental ideas of Rousseau took place after the publication of his second 'Discourse.' This writer's argumentation is far more exhaustive than Chuquet's, who also conceives the 'Social Contract' to be at variance with the entire work of Rousseau ('J. J. Rousseau,' in "Les Grands Écrivains"), and than Faguet's equally strong reasoning to the same end ('Études Littéraires, XVIIIe siècle'). John Morley's view of the subject, as briefly stated in the chapter on the 'Discourses,' is not consistent with the statements made farther on when discussing the 'Social Contract.' Lanson, in his excellent 'History of French Literature,' considers all difficulties removed by a page quoted from the 'Dialogues,' from which, we confess, we cannot derive as much light as he does. M. Espinas's arguments are so weighty that a reply is promised by M. Dreyfus-Brisac, editor-in-chief of the *Revue*, and will, we anticipate, prove to be one of the strongest documents on the opposite side, along with M. E. Lintilhac's defence of the unity of Rousseau's system (in 'Études Littéraires sur les Classiques Français'). Meanwhile, what must be admitted, it would seem, is that the 'Social Contract,' if not an apostasy of Jean Jacques from his earlier professions, is at least, to use the words of Fabre des Essarts (in Grand-Carteret's 'Rousseau, jugé par les Français d'aujourd'hui'), "une sorte de concordat entre le radieux passé et le triste présent"—a capitulation of his reason.

MATTHEW ARNOLD'S LETTERS.—II.

Letters of Matthew Arnold. Collected and arranged by George W. E. Russell. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 2 vols.

THERE are naturally many frank opinions and piquant sayings scattered through these volumes, though they are perfectly spontaneous and are never said for the sake of smartness and piquancy. Mr. Arnold knew Thackeray and was on friendly terms with him, but he "did not thoroughly like him"; and, oddly enough, "he is not, to my thinking, a great writer." He cannot face a new poem of Swinburne's "because his fatal habit of using one hundred words where one would suffice always offends me." After Carlyle's death, he writes to a French pastor, M. Fontanès: "I never much liked him. He seemed to me to be carrying coals to Newcastle—preaching earnestness to a nation which had plenty of it by nature, and less abundantly supplied with several other useful things." Apropos of his own degree at Oxford (1870), he remarks: "I have no doubt it is owing to the accident of a young and original sort of a man, Lord Salisbury, having the making of the list. . . . He is a dangerous man, though; religion he knows and science he knows—but the immense work between the two, which is for literature to accomplish, he knows nothing of." He speaks of Gladstone's "emotional verbiage" in the House of Commons, and gives a delightful account of a dinner in which he sat near Gladstone and Forbes, who had just returned from Bulgaria: "An evening of Bulgaria is too much; and of course Forbes knows nothing else, and Gladstone can go on for hours on that or any other subject. He was not animated, however, and even he must have been over-Bulgarized. Ruskin was there, looking very slight and spiritual. I am getting to like him. He gains much by evening dress, plain black and white, and by his fancy's being forbidden to range through the world of colored cravats." He writes to Morley, "Your Pericles [Gladstone] will never promote the author of 'Literature and Dogma,'" and is handsomely refuted a few days afterward by the offer from Pericles of a pension of £250 a year. Beaconsfield he meets at Lady Airlie's, and is conducted by him to what he calls "the poet's sofa." "He ended by declaring that I was the only living Englishman who had become a classic in his own life-time. The fact is, that what I have done in establishing a number of current phrases, such as 'Philistinism,' 'sweetness and light,' and so on, is just the sort of thing to strike him."

Arnold's visit to France in 1859, as commissioner of the British Government to report on secondary education in France, Germany, and Holland, was the means of introducing him to a number of eminent Frenchmen, among whom were Guizot, Villemain, Mérimée, and especially Sainte-Beuve. This was the beginning of a long acquaintance, accompanied by the interchange of many delicate flowers of compliment. "I would not have missed my evening with him," he writes to his wife, "for all the world. I believe he likes me, and likes my caring so much about his criticisms and appreciating his extraordinary delicacy of tact and judgment in literature." At this interview, Sainte-Beuve showed him a number of letters which he had had from George Sand and Alfred de Musset at the time of their love affair. He urged Arnold to visit George Sand, "but I am rather disinclined to take so long a journey to see such a fat old Muse," as M. de Circourt

calls her. He did make the visit to Berri, however, which he describes in his eloquent notice, written many years after, and the "fat old Muse" remarked of him to Renan: "Il me faisait l'effet d'un Milton jeune et voyageant." When he repeats this compliment to his sister in 1876, he adds: "Her death has been very much in my mind; she was the greatest spirit in our European world from the time that Goethe departed."

The path to Parnassus was not made smooth to this youthful Milton. The itinerant life which he led as inspector of schools brought, indeed, its recompense, but it undoubtedly told against his poetry. It left him no leisure to work his vein; his nerves and his energies were frittered away. The dynamics of the mind forbid the glow of fruitful creation to the poet who has just rummaged a file of examination papers. He confesses as much to his sister: "To attain perfection in the region of thought and feeling as well as perfection of form, is impossible without knocking one's self to pieces. Shelley and Keats could give their whole life to poetry, and were driven to it besides by their demon. . . . Even Tennyson, a far inferior intellectual power, has gained enormously by the devotion of his life to one object; while Goethe himself lost in poetry by the distraction of his varied interests." We must remember this confession in judging Mr. Arnold's poetical achievement. There is no doubt that, with leisure and favoring circumstances, we should have had from him several additional volumes of poems; but there is little doubt, also, that their quality would not have changed, their pitch and power would not have changed. They would still have remained meditative, thoughtful, finished "criticisms of life," of modern life and thought in the main. A puissant or a passionate spirit he never was; he was not "driven by his demon" to create. His "Thyrsis," he tells his mother, was forming in his mind for two years; his "Sohrab and Rustum" he "took great pleasure in writing, though this is not the case generally when I am composing." He is unquestionably the special voice of some of the special mental struggles of this generation. This is at once his merit and the peril of his poetical fame. The special fashion of such struggles passes away. The malady of an Obermann and the malady of a Clough may come to have only an antiquarian interest, but the quest of Thyrsis and the sorrow for his loss, the epic story of Sohrab and Rustum, have a perennial human interest. Nay, even the lines that picture the wanderings of the Oxus to the Ural Sea, which are in no sense a "criticism of life," but a passage of perfectly felicitous and melodious imagination, may be read with pleasure for their beauty long after the stanzas on Obermann are out of date and forgotten. A single thin volume of these poems and their companions will go down to posterity commended by their Attic grace and finish, their Attic thoughtfulness and perfection of form.

In one of the letters, Mr. Arnold mentions the case of a gentleman who has just written to him putting the following question: "I have read your 'Literature and Dogma,' and enjoyed it. Do you think, after this, I can conscientiously hold the position of churchwarden?" The question is rather humorous, but is not altogether impertinent. Mr. Arnold's own practice is quite clear, from this correspondence. He attends the church services regularly; he reads the "lessons of the day" with his children. He does this in a spirit of devout satisfaction and emotion. He receives solace and inspiration from the services of the church. He writes to his mother: "Tommy's death in particular was associated with several awakening and epoch-marking things. The chapter for the day of his death was that great chapter, the first of Isaiah; the first Sunday after his death was Advent Sunday, with its glorious collect and, in the Epistle, the passage [Romans xiii, 13] which converted St. Augustine." He shows here the same genuine feeling for the Bible that he shows in 'Literature and Dogma' for the book "with which conduct is inseparably connected." It is his delight and his companion. He asks his mother for a polyglot copy in Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Luther's German, as a present for his forty-ninth birthday. He recurs to this gift with delight again and again. He reads in it every day, he tells her, especially Isaiah and Ecclesiasticus. He prepared his little book, 'A Bible-Reading for Schools,' because "nothing *grand* comes into the education of the people, . . . and, after all, Isaiah is immensely superior to Milton's 'Comus,' even as literature." In short, he shows himself here enthusiastically practising all that he urges in his essays. At the same time he writes to his sister: "There is a levity which is altogether evil; but to treat miracles and the common anthropomorphic ideas of God as what one may lose and yet keep one's hope, courage, and joy—this is desirable and necessary, if one holds, as I do, that the common anthropomorphic ideas of God and the reliance on miracles must and will inevitably pass away."

We quote these passages because they show Mr. Arnold clinging with his whole soul to his Church and his Bible, and at the same time ready to throw overboard the doctrines and mysteries of theology, the mechanism of ritual, the miracles and thaumaturgy of Christianity—even ready to forego the positive belief in a personal immortality which is the aspiration of the poor and the anodyne of many bereaved and suffering souls. To follow after righteousness is sufficient in this life; the rest may be left to the "power that makes for righteousness." The Church remains to him an Ethical Society—a society for the propagation of virtue, the pursuit of righteousness—but a society rooted in immemorial associations, and drawing its nourishment largely from a single book and a single exemplar of perfect life. There is a large class of thoughtful and conscientious men to whom such a society affords no aid and makes no appeal. But Mr. Arnold, in his attitude, at once conservative and reformatory, is a type of that very large class—the other class—of thoughtful men who still cling to the churches, who see that, as a matter of fact, the churches are everywhere changing and being transformed, no matter how vehemently the transformation is denied from time to time by this or that group of theologians who insist on shutting their eyes. The transformation in the churches goes on irresistibly and quietly; within the past fifty years it has been enormous, incredible—in fifty years more it may be greater and swifter still. To retain all that is sound and vital in so vast an organization, to apply so great a force in the true direction, seems the part of a reasonable economy, even if it were not the dictate of imperative sentiments and associations. And this is the value of an attempt at positive reconstruction, such as is offered in 'Literature and Dogma,' whatever may be the forms and reforms which the future may bring forth. Tolstoi also proposed his own reconstruction, which Mr. Arnold alludes to in these letters. But it is interesting to observe that Tolstoi's method with the New Testament is exactly the method of the theologians. He takes the letter of a few texts, and, by straining and wresting them and applying a pressure greater than they will bear, he turns out a set of iron formulas, such as his doctrine of non-resistance. He does not, in fact, apply that culture and right reason in his interpretation which Mr. Arnold is so optimistic as to hope that all of us, Philistines as well as the Populace, may some day attain to.

In this connection we light upon one prophecy which we believe is not destined to be fulfilled. Speaking to his mother of his 'Culture and Anarchy,' soon after its appearance, he says: "The chapters on Hebraism and Hellenism are in the main, I am convinced, so true that they will form a kind of centre for English thought and speculation." On the contrary, we believe the distinction is only roughly and approximately true; without strict and positive limitations it is rather dangerous and likely to mislead. The ethics of Plato and Aristotle and the Stoics, the examples of Socrates and Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius, cannot be neglected in making out the varied streams of influence that have converged to shape the moral sense of Western civilization. The Christian Fathers were ready to admit Plato to a limbo in their Paradise: Mr. Arnold himself, in the death-chamber of his son, chooses Marcus Aurelius for his consolation and companionship. When we reflect that Plato holds it impious to ascribe falsehood or unrighteousness to the deity—when we remember how the Bible has been quoted in our own country to defend slavery and polygamy—we see how wavering is that line which Mr. Arnold would draw hard and fast for us; how far he is from having attained a sound and useful generalization.

A series of familiar letters like this, extending through a lifetime, is inevitably the frankest and completest form of confession. It is not often that a man steps out of such a confessional without shattering somewhat the ideals of his admirers. We all remember with what trepidation we used to await the latest indiscretions and revelations of Mr. Carlyle's friends. Like Mr. Carlyle, Mr. Arnold was a lay-preacher, the inheritor in this way of his father's vocation as well as of his moral earnestness. It is an awkward thing to discover that the preacher does not exactly practise; and that was the peculiar awkwardness of the revelation of Mr. Carlyle's many faults and foibles. It is a relief and a pleasure to discover that in Mr. Arnold's case there is not another idol to shatter; that, on the contrary, in the light of these intimate disclosures, the figure we used to admire at a distance grows into a charming personality that may be respected as well as loved.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Law books are of two kinds, those which are the fruit of a reasoned analysis of the subject, and those which are not. If we say that Mr. Charles Fisk Beach's 'Commentaries on the Law of Insurance' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) belongs to the latter class, we say nothing very much to its discredit, since books of the former are few and far between. As a collection of cases, and especially of recent cases, it will be found very useful by the practising lawyer; but for a comprehension of the principles which underlie the subject we must look elsewhere. To make clearer exactly what we mean we will mention one or two points, taken up quite at

random. There is no thorough analysis of the various kinds of insurance. Marine and fire and life insurance are all discussed as if they were the same; in reality, unless they are carefully distinguished, the utmost confusion ensues. We have looked in vain for any proper discussion of valued marine policies, of the rule of "one-third new for old," and of particular average. In fact, so far as marine insurance goes, we do not risk much in saying that its principles are not explained, but rather confused. The cases, especially the important recent cases, are given at considerable length; but many of the notes consist of long lists of authorities, which the practitioner must reëxamine for himself. Recent cases are given very fully, but older ones are thrown in pell-mell, often in such a way as to obscure the principles which they illustrate.

The case of Strong vs. Manufacturers' Insurance Company (10 Pick. 40) decided substantially, among other things, that if one has an insurable interest in property at the time of effecting insurance, and an interest at the time of the loss, he is entitled to recover the whole amount of the loss—not exceeding, of course, the amount insured; the principle was applied to the case of a person who had mortgaged his house, whose interest had been seized on execution, but who still had a right to redeem. The case is one of importance and has always been followed in Massachusetts. In 'Phillips on Insurance' the principle is clearly stated in connection with the case (sec. 286). Now in Mr. Beach's book the case is several times cited, but we have not been able to find the principle clearly stated, and no one would imagine, from his way of dealing with the subject, that the case was a leading one. Again, King vs. State Mutual Fire Insurance Company (7 Cush. 1) is one of Chief-Justice Shaw's luminous judgments, with reference to the relative rights of mortgageor, mortgagee, and insurer. Though it states a rule which is not universally, nor perhaps generally, followed, it throws such a light upon the whole subject of fire insurance that to master it, after reading most other opinions, is like passing out of a bewildering maze into a broad highway. The case is referred to three times in Mr. Beach's volumes, but there is no evidence that he has any appreciation of its importance. These happen to be Massachusetts cases, but they are taken quite at random. The cases have not been studied so much as thrown together under headings, and the result of making law-books in this way is to impose upon the person who uses them a great deal of the work that might have been performed by the author.

Mr. John Brooks Leavitt's treatise on 'The Law of Negligence' (The Diossy Law-Book Co.) is an interesting experiment, inasmuch as the cases from which his law is drawn are of a single jurisdiction—the State of New York. Usually, in this country, cases are drawn from every quarter, with the natural result that there is often much confusion between rules of local and general application. Mr. Leavitt has also confined himself to the reported cases in the court of last resort. The result is, that in a volume of some 800 pages we have before us, first the cases themselves, condensed and chronologically arranged (a valuable collection); second, the law of negligence embodied in the form of rules—a sort of code—with the cases again given in the form of illustrations; third, an index of the cases, classified on the basis of resemblance in fact—*e. g.*, bringing together in one group all cases involving telegrams, in another all involving goods, etc. Although such a classification does not necessarily throw any light on the principles of law involved, it is often, in making a brief, of great convenience. The plan is original, and the execution no less so. So far as we have been able to test the book, the work is very well done. From the use of the word code, it might be supposed that Mr. Leavitt was a supporter of statutory codification; but such is not the case. He was a member of the anti-code committee of the New York Bar Association, and his codification of the law of negligence seems to be a *reductio ad absurdum* of the attempt to embody the common law of persons and contracts in the form of statutes.

The main point is this: At the time of the first draft of a civil code in this State, there were about a hundred different rulings on questions of negligence in the court of last resort. The codifiers undertook to state the law in half-a-dozen phrases, and, Mr. Leavitt says, these, "with one exception, were platitudes." Now, after the lapse of a generation, the cases number some 1,400, and it requires some two hundred and forty sections to state the law. Now very likely Mr. Leavitt's code might be still further condensed, and unquestionably the draft code was inadequate; but as to one thing there is no sort of question—that the enactment of the six propositions as to negligence in the form of a statute thirty or forty years ago would have had little more effect on the process of development that has taken place since, than would whispering "Abracadabra" in the ears of the judges. Further than this, the enactment of Mr. Leavitt's code, did he desire such a thing (which it is only fair to say he abhors), would not arrest the process, but would result in compelling an addition to the volume of the law of a whole host of new cases interpreting the various sections of the code. All this has been demonstrated *ad nauseam* by the history of the code of procedure; but the argument from experience is never replied to by the advocates of codification, who insist upon assuming that the moment a code is enacted the growth of law will stop.

To test Mr. Leavitt's code (or, as it might perhaps better be called, digest), we have examined with some care the sections 90–107 on common carriers. They seem to be in general accurately and well stated, and the only criticism which we shall venture to make is, that the author does not seem to grasp fully the distinction between the ruling of a court laid down for the guidance of a jury and a principle of law. A ruling in a given case may of course state a general principle, as that a contract must have a consideration, or that a deed is invalid without a seal; but generally it contains the application of some principle to some given state of facts. To get at the principle we must reduce the facts to what may be called their lowest terms. If this were not done; if the substance of the law consisted of the sum of the rulings laid down by judges and sustained as correct on appeal, the result would be a horrible hodge-podge. For example, section 102—"A common carrier may limit by contract, express or implied, but not by notice, his common-law liability as an insurer of goods carried by him"—states a principle of law. On the other hand, section 107—

> "When the contract for the shipment of goods is upon a printed blank, prepared by the carrier, and which has been so arranged that exemption clauses, limiting his common-law liability, are wrapped in such involved phraseology, and printed in such fine type and broad columns, that the fact that they are there is not likely to be noticed by the shipper, or if noticed their meaning is not likely to be clearly understood by him, it is a question of fact whether, by the use of such a blank, the carrier intended to entrap the shipper into making a different contract from one intended; and if he did, such exemption clauses are wholly inoperative and void"

—does not state a principle of law. The principle of law must be either that a contract procured by fraud is void, or that the assent of both shipper and carrier is necessary to exempt the latter from his common-law liability. It is really an application of section 102 to a particular state of facts. The fine type, the broad columns, the involved phraseology are not essential to the rule. The phraseology might have been clear, and the columns of an ordinary width, and the type large; if so faintly printed as to be illegible, the rule would still have applied. All this seems to be clear from the case of Blossom v. Dodd, 43 N. Y., 264, cited by the author.

Mr. Charles Wesley Eldridge's 'United States Internal Revenue Tax System, embracing all Internal Revenue Laws now in force' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is sufficiently described by its title. There is no table of cases, probably because so few cases are cited in the volume. The work is almost entirely a revision of the statutes and regulations, and it is evidently very much needed, owing to the great number of amendments passed by Congress since 1873. The author's familiarity with the subject may be inferred from the fact that by appointment of the Secretary of the Treasury, and in association with Hon. W. H. Armstrong, he made the revision on which the Internal Revenue Title of the Revision of 1873 was based. While the book was being prepared for the press, the income tax of 1894, which forms part of it, was swept out of existence.

Our libraries contain some dozen treatises on building associations and other kindred societies, and of these the most complete is that of Mr. G. A. Endlich, 'The Law of Building Associations,' now published in a second edition by Frederick D. Linn & Co., Jersey City. It is not too much to say that to any one who desires to understand the subject it is indispensable. Since the first edition appeared, thirteen years ago, there has been a considerable crop of new cases, which the author has added. A few tables, showing arithmetically the operation and results of the principles on which such corporations do business, would, we think, increase the value of the book.

It is a pleasure to take up a volume like that of Prof. John Chipman Gray's 'Restraints on the Alienation of Property' (Boston Book Co.), which has also reached a second edition. It treats a well-defined subject fully, accurately, and, last but not least, in good English. A very large portion of the present edition deals with what are called "spendthrift trusts," in the recognition of which by the courts of the United States the author sees an illustration of a national failing—a disinclination to observe "the duty of keeping one's promises and paying one's debts." But a more unquestionable illustration is observable in the statutes passed by several States exempting large portions of debtors' property from execution. A spendthrift trust is one by which the founder places property in trust, the income to be paid for life to the beneficiary; the beneficiary having no power to anticipate, nor creditors to attach the income. Such trusts in the case of married women are matters of every-day occurrence, but this is a recognized exception to the ordinary rules of law, which protect creditors in dealing with beneficiaries under a trust, as well as in every other case. Prof.

Gray shows that the exception rests on common-law doctrines relating to married women, and that in legal theory there is no room for another exception as to spendthrifts. We must say, however, that whether it leads in practice to very grave abuse, seems to us a matter of doubt. The trust is usually a matter of record, and the creditor is not obliged to trust the spendthrift, any more than he is the married woman; and parents are under no great temptation to tie up large amounts of property in this way, because such trusts invariably cast a stigma upon the beneficiary, and indirectly upon themselves. Of course, if the power to create a spendthrift trust were used as a cover for fraud—if the beneficiary were no spendthrift at all, but a capable man of business, and the object of the trust merely to enable him to carry on business without paying his debts—it is to be hoped that the courts would find some means of ripping up such a transaction.

The recent case of Howell Osborne, however (4 N. Y., Supp. 496, referred to at p. 294), would seem to justify much of the suspicion and distrust of the doctrine expressed by Prof. Gray. There the testator's will gave trustees $500,000 in trust to apply the income to the use of his son for life. In such a case, a local statute provides that creditors may reach whatever portion of the income is not needed *for the education and support* of the son. A creditor of Osborne alleged that the income of the fund was about $25,000, and that the beneficiary needed only $2,500 a year. The court went out of its way (for the case was decided on another ground) to say that if a parent wishes to make provision "for the support of a profligate son," he has the right to afford him the means of living in the manner "to which he has been accustomed"—so that apparently all that the beneficiary would have to show, to keep his creditors at bay for ever, would be that he was accustomed to be profligate in his expenditure.

Mr. Lewis N. Dembitz's two-volume 'Treatise on Land Titles in the United States' (West Publishing Co., St. Paul), is likely to prove of considerable value to the profession. It cites some 6,000 cases, and, considering that the subject of eminent domain is barely alluded to, this fact of itself shows much research. The author excuses certain blemishes (which would, but for his admission, have hardly been detected) by saying that at the end of his three years' labors he was "worn out," and we can well believe it. There is a popular impression that, owing to the system of recording deeds, land titles in the United States are extremely simple, but, for a variety of reasons which we have no space to go into here, this country is really the paradise of land litigation. In the more unsettled parts of it, adverse possession alone produces every year a crop of lawsuits which, in a community where boundaries and titles have long been established and notorious, would be out of the question. The subjects examined by Mr. Dembitz are description and boundary, estates; title by descent, by grant, by devise, derived from the sovereign, by marriage, by judicial process, and by prescription; encumbrances, powers, the registry laws, estoppel and election, and judgments affecting land.

Till within comparatively recent times Comyn's Digest was still a cyclopædia of the common law. It is a striking illustration of the enormous progress that the analytical and systematic study of the law has since made that, while our shelves are now full of treatises on torts, in the Digest no such title is to be found. The work of bringing together and comparing the features common to actions *ex delicto* under one head, has fallen to the generation now on the stage. Yet this very fact, creditable as it is to those who have engaged in the task, should warn us of an ever-present danger — that of theorizing or generalizing out of the cases principles of decision which are mere gratuitous inferences, and which the courts have never recognized. To this danger Prof. Edwin A. Jaggard, in his 'Handbook of the Law of Torts' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.), seems to us to be alive, and in general he has endeavored to follow and elucidate the principles of decision, rather than to overrule the courts. As a result, he has succeeded in stating the law of torts in some three hundred rules. So far as we have examined them, they seem generally to be well stated and copiously illustrated by cases, of which there are between 14,000 and 15,000. Considering that there are only 1,094 pages of text, this is a very great number, and of itself indicates how useful the book is likely to be. There are two parts, the first dealing with the general nature of torts, remedies, etc., the second with specific wrongs. Here and there we notice slips which ought in a future edition to be corrected. Rule 110, for instance, confounds the rule *actio personalis moritur cum personâ* with the rule that at common law no action lay for the death of a human being. The first rule applies to the death of either party to the action; in the second, neither party has died: A brings an action against B for causing the death of C (*e. g.*, C being the servant of the wife of A).

In the "Hornbook Series" of law-books issued by the West Publishing Co. of St. Paul, a recent volume is a 'Handbook of International Law,' by Capt. Edwin F. Glenn, U.S.A. We have tested this book on several points with unsatisfactory results. We opened it at the subject of right of asylum in legations, and found it laid down, in the heavy type employed in this series for the statement of principles, that this right "is expressly denied except in the case of political refugees in the Spanish-American States." Reading further, we find that in these countries "the custom of granting asylum to political refugees by foreign legations has become firmly established, and is recognized by the local governments to such an extent that the houses of consuls are respected." No authority whatever is cited for this proposition, and, immediately after it, comes the statement that the United States does not sanction this usage, and enjoins upon its representatives the avoidance of all pretexts for its exercise, assuring them that they will not be countenanced in any attempt knowingly to "harbor offenders against the laws from the pursuit of the legitimate agents of justice." We turned next to the massacre of the Italians at New Orleans in 1891, and found that it was impossible to learn from the text whether the United States paid an indemnity to the families of the Italians or not. Our next attempt was to ascertain the outcome of the controversy with Mexico in the Cutting case in 1886, and here too we were left in the dark. Somewhat discouraged, we undertook to learn the law of the *Itata* case, but, after patient search, were unable to discover any reference whatever to the episode. Neither Chili nor *Itata* appeared in the index, and the latter was not in the table of cases. At this point we suspended our examination, feeling satisfied that better manuals of International Law than this "Hornbook" were already available.

Another volume in this series is a 'Handbook of the Law of Sales,' by Francis B. Tiffany. The sales considered are of course those only of personal property, and, as the text is comprised within 250 pages, not all of the law that has grown up on this subject can be stated. The basis of the work is the English Sale of Goods Bill drafted by Judge Chalmers, a codification of the law which has just been enacted by Parliament; Benjamin on Sales is also frequently followed, and references made to Judge Chalmers's notes. The style is lucid and concise, and, so far as we have tested the work, we have found it accurate. It will not for the practising lawyer supersede the larger text-books, but for the student it may be found a convenient presentation of the outlines of a vast subject within moderate compass.

Mr. Wm. L. Clark's 'Handbook of Criminal Procedure' is one of the best of the Hornbook series. Procedure must necessarily be prescribed in the form of rules, and Mr. Clark is able not only to give the rules, but also to explain them. The book is a small one, but cites between two and three thousand cases. Wherever we have examined it, we have found it clear and to the point. It ought to be useful for the purpose of instruction in law-schools.

Mr. W. H. Buckler is an American lawyer, who is also a bachelor of laws of Trinity College, Cambridge; his volume on 'The Origin and History of Contract in Roman Law down to the end of the Republican Period' (London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan), was the Yorke prize essay of 1893. Whether his view of the subject is historically correct, we do not pretend to say; but that it shows great research, is very clearly written, possesses great interest, and is marked by decided originality, cannot be questioned. It is in reality a concise reëxamination—in the light of all the evidence—of the leading theories as to the development of contract in Rome. We have been particularly struck with the account given of *nexum*. Compare it with that given in Hunter's 'Roman Law' (second ed., p.459), and the reader will get at a glance a measure of the pains taken by the author to sound the depths of the subject. At the risk of seeming hypercritical, we must suggest a doubt as to the advisability of the unexplained use by writers on Roman Law of the term *unilateral* as applied to such a contract as *nexum*. What is meant is, that the *promise* was on one side; but if there was a transfer of property on the other, the transaction as a whole has obviously two sides. The promise made by the debtor is not the contract itself; if it were, the transaction *per æs et libram* would have been needless.

The American Digest for 1895 (West Publishing Co.) contains 5,447 double-column pages of fine type, and something like 100,000 citations; in all human probability it will be larger next year. Seven years ago the United States Digest (for 1888) contained 759 pages. No doubt the decisions of more courts are now included; but, at this rate of increase, the Digest for 1902 ought to contain some 38,000 pages and 700,000 citations. If the view taken were that this enormous increase in the volume of the law must be ascribed to the fact that "crescit in orbe dolus," the blackest pessimism as to the future would be justifiable. But it is not to *dolus* that the perennial increase is attributable, but to the multiplication of independent jurisdictions and the piling up of unnecessary legislation. Any one who doubts this need only compare this Digest with that which comes out every year in England. The population of the United States is say 70,-

000,000; that of the United Kingdom is perhaps 40,000,000. The general principles of the law of the two countries are the same. Yet the English Annual Digest (1894) is a volume of 370 pages, and some 1,300 citations. There are not, however, in England forty-four independent States, nor in addition a federal system of courts, nor forty-four ignorant legislatures pouring forth annually or biennially volumes of statutes on every conceivable subject.

The Speech of Cicero in Defence of Cluentius. Translated, with an introduction and notes, by W. A. Peterson. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

DR. PETERSON'S translation of Cicero's speech for Cluentius furnishes an excellent account of one of the most famous of the *causes célèbres* of ancient Rome. How the modern reporter would have revelled in the particulars; for, as Mommsen remarks, "the criminal statistics of all times and countries will hardly furnish a parallel to the dreadful picture of crimes—so varied, so horrible, and so unnatural—which this trial unfolds before us." The historian here is referring to the final suit, in which Cicero (though he had previously been on the other side) appeared as the advocate of Cluentius. This was in 66 B.C., but the quarrel itself had dragged along for eight years through various courts. In the final issue, Cluentius was accused, at the instance of his own mother and by his stepbrother, on the charge of poisoning his stepfather Oppianicus. We are apt to think of the empire as the true time of decadence, but the facts in this case are a perfect revelation of the awful state of things that prevailed in the relations of private life, and the utter rottenness of private and public morals in the Ciceronian age. To be sure, in reading Cicero's speech we must remember that he afterwards boasted that in it he had "thrown dust in the eyes of the jury." We have, too, in the speech itself his ingenuous warning that, in his speeches, the hearer is not to think that he is listening to the advocate's own real convictions about the truth of the case before the court. But, when all is weighed, the undeniable facts are a terrible indictment against the society of the day.

What a woman was Cluentius's mother Sassia—*uxor generi, noverca filii, filiae pelex!* She had had three husbands. The first of these (the father of Cluentius) belonged to the *gens* whose mythical ancestor won the boat-race in the 'Aeneid'; the second was her own son-in-law; the third was Oppianicus. This last, the villain of the piece, had had five wives; one he poisoned, two he divorced, one died a natural death, and the fifth was Sassia. He had, according to Cicero, murdered or procured the murder of eleven souls—his first wife, his brother, a brother-in-law, a sister-in-law, two of his own sons, a cousin, his mother-in-law, two unborn children, and a political opponent. He had forged a will, bribed a jury, and attempted to poison Cluentius. The vilest of all motives, *auri sacra fames*, and not mere personal enmity, was at the bottom of all his crimes. Yet he was suffered to live, though banished from the city limits, and, when he died, many of his friends and guest-friends—*homines honesti atque omnibus rebus ornati*, as Cicero calls them, although only a few lines before he had branded Oppianicus as "an outlaw wandering from place to place and everywhere tabooed"—attended a meeting held at Sassia's instigation to inquire into the circumstances of his death. This was the man whom Cluentius was accused of having poisoned; and if only a moiety of the charges against Oppianicus were true, the world was well rid of the wretch, and society might have thanked the hand that had relieved it of his presence. But the gravest doubts attached to the character of Cicero's client himself, and the whole case is to this day *sub judice*.

Dr. Peterson has done his work well; his version is in real English, not "translation English," and the style and language resemble, to a remarkable degree, the pleas which are heard in modern court-rooms. The introduction is thoughtful enough to suit the learned, and not too professional for the general, reader. On two points of interpretation we may venture to differ from the translator. In section 81, he renders *ut ne eripi quidem pecunia posset*, "so that not even bribery could have saved him," thus making *pecunia*, and not *eripi*, the emphatic word. Even accepting the view (set forth in a note) that the tendency to place but one word between *ne* and *quidem* was so strong that sometimes compound phrases are intersected by *quidem*, this is simply begging the question. For it cannot be said that *eripi pecunia* is any more of a compound phrase than *pecunia eripi* would be; so that we are still face to face with the problem why *eripi*, and not *pecunia*, stands first. The answer is that it stands in the emphatic place because it is the important word. The citation of section 107, *ne is quidem absolvit*, is not to the point. Nobody would favor the absurd "not even he acquitted." The words mean "*he* didn't acquit either," or "*he* didn't acquit, not *he!*" and *is* is the emphatic word here also.

But the fact is, that in section 81 Dr. Peterson has not remarked the real difficulty, nor has any other editor, so far as we know. What is the context? It is admitted that a jury has been bribed; the point at issue is, which side did the bribing? The prosecutor gives reasons intended to show that it was not he. In the first place, he says, the gravity of my charges was such that there was no need of my bribing the jury. Secondly, the man whom I accused had been condemned already, *ut ne eripi quidem pecunia posset*. Now, whether these words mean "so that not even bribery could have saved him" (as Dr. Peterson translates), or "so that bribery couldn't have *torn him* from us" (as the reader would naturally take it), it is perfectly clear, in either case, that the words are no argument that the *prosecutor* has not bribed the jury. They rather suggest that even the defendant had no rational grounds for bribing. And yet the sole object of the whole chapter is to prove that the defendant actually did bribe the jury, and the orator gives, just below our passage, the grounds which would have led him to offer the bribe. A learned friend has suggested to us that *pecunia* may be a nominative, and not an ablative, and that the clause means, "So that a bribe couldn't have been *wrung out* of me." In support of this view it might be urged that, in every other passage in Cicero's orations in which *pecunia* is used with *eripio*, the idea is of the forcible abstraction of money from somebody (see Merguet's Lexicon, and cf. *Cluent.* secs. 65, 78). But we are not ready to accept this interpretation unless it should be permitted us to emend the place by inserting *mihi* somewhere—say after *ut* or before *pecunia*. With this suggestion we leave the crux to sharper wits. Perhaps, after all, *eripi* is corrupt.

The other point is a simpler one. In section 32, *per alieni corporis mortem atque cruciatum*, Dr. Peterson is worried by *corporis mortem*, which seems to him "a curious phrase," and he cites in his note Dr. Reid's emendation of *corporis tormenta*. But his anxiety seems wholly unnecessary; *mortem atque cruciatum* is a not uncommon phrase for "a death of agony," and as for *alieni corporis*, what else could the orator have said? Not *alterius* surely. We must have *alieni corporis* here for the contrast with *suo corpori* which has just been used in the foregoing clause. As for Quintilian's *vim atque mortem* (in his quotation of this very place), his memory may have played him a trick due to the occurrence of *vim attulisset* just above.

We cannot account for the curious statement on p. 125 that young Aurius "is spoken of in disparaging terms in section 11." On the contrary, he is praised there, and, throughout, his part was that of the tempted, not the tempter. On p. 11, line 5 from the bottom, "Marcus" is a misprint or a slip for "Numerius." We regret to add that the lack of an index will detract much from the usefulness of the book.

In Unnamed Wisconsin: Studies in the History of the Region between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi. By J. N. Davidson, A.M. To which is appended a Memoir of Mrs. Harriet Wood Wheeler. Milwaukee: Silas Chapman. 1895. Pp. 306.

WISCONSIN, by its census of 1895, shows a population of two millions, wanting a few thousands. Yet within three-score years and ten it was generally believed to be destined to become for ever an Indian reserve. In 1820 Morse, the best of American geographers, visited the country as a Government agent, and in his report said: "Let regulations be made to prohibit the introduction of white settlers within [Wisconsin] limits. Let this territory be reserved exclusively for Indians, for gathering into one body as many of the scattered and other Indians as may choose to settle there, in due time to be admitted to the Union," etc. Calhoun, then Secretary of War, recommended the project except, perhaps, the last clause, for he was as eager to subtract one from the roll of possible free States as he had been to add to the number of slave States by the acquisition of Florida. His views were seconded by all land speculators near Eastern Indians, notably by the Ogden Land Company, who looked upon the acres of the Six Nations as Ahab did on Naboth's vineyard. One friend of Eastern Indians told them "an act of Congress should be obtained to exclude whiskey and white heathen from their new home." Dr. Morse added: "You will never again be disturbed. The white man will never go there. He will never desire those lands. They are too far off." The steamer which brought Morse was the first save one that entered Lake Michigan. Neither of them would have come at all had they not been chartered to carry supplies to a military outpost. The region was declared too far north for successful farming by fur-traders, hundreds of whom infested the country, and their lies were believed till 1832. In 1830 lead mining had scarcely begun, and treaties before that date left the aborigines in possession of a larger area than the largest New England State. In 1836 the census was 11,687. Wisconsin, accordingly, was resorted to as a haven of hope by emigrants from New York tribes, and from others of which the original home had been Massachusetts, or which had been temporary colonists in Indiana.

Shepherds follow sheep, and so pastors who had ministered to these wanderers in their old homes came West with them. 'In Unnamed

Wisconsin' is a work which aims to portray Indian missions in Wisconsin—largely before that region had a name to live as a State in 1848, or even as a Territory in 1836. The antecedents of the immigrants are traced back more than a century — their fates and fortunes in the new home, and those of the older Indian residents. The trials and triumphs of the missionaries are described as no one could describe them without acquaintance with rare books and manuscripts more rare, as well as patient gathering of oral traditions, and, above all, delight in paying honor where honor is due. A representative missionary, and the one of whom most is said, is the Vermonter Wheeler. This man, fifty years ago, put in practice that system of industrial training which has usually passed for a more modern idea. It is a fact, not mentioned in the book but known to the present writer, that Wheeler was a carpenter's apprentice before he went to college. When disabled, after a quarter of a century in harness, he perfected a windmill which he had before taught Indians to make. His patent for it gave him and his a competence in old age and education to his children. As Mr. Davidson sweeps along on his main theme it is wonderful how many lights he flashes on collateral matters. Whether our curiosity concerns topography, or Indian names, or miners, or explorers, or traders, or impostors like the Lost Prince, or dignitaries in embryo like Presidents Taylor, Lincoln, and Davis—we here find what we seek. While missions are the soul of the book, it abounds in limbs and outward flourishes.

Errors for which the proof-reader is to blame are vexatiously numerous. Had the author been aware what large vessels were early dragged round the Sault, he would not have said "those needed on Lake Superior had to be built or put together there" (p. 51). Nor if mindful that Le Caron was on Lake Huron, and Marquette down the Mississippi before any trader, would he have disputed Bancroft so positively (p. 13). Marquette is described as returning in 1674 from his voyage of 1673 (p. 211) as if he had wintered south of Lake Michigan. Sir William Johnson is styled *Governor* of New York, and that more than once (pp. 63, 94). Regarding the westward route of Nicolet, Mr. Davidson is divided against himself. He says (p. 52): "Nicolet came by the broad way of the Great Lakes"; and again, "Nicolet probably went up the Ottawa" (p. 1). The first assertion has no authority, and in the second "certainly" should take the place of "probably," for, says Winsor, "The route by the Ottawa was the only passage which Nicolet knew" ('Cartier to Frontenac,' p. 151). Trifles like these, though they were manifold, could not lessen our thanks to a writer whose work is so good that it runs no risk of being superseded.

Bahama Songs and Stories: A Contribution to Folk-Lore. By Charles L. Edwards, Ph.D., Professor of Biology in the University of Cincinnati. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THIS handsome and eminently satisfactory work is the third volume of the Memoirs of the American Folk-Lore Society, and it will be strange if the libraries of the country do not get the start of the public at large in absorbing the scanty 350 copies of the limited edition. So far as the songs go, this collection will vie with any that has appeared since the 'Slave Songs of the United States.' There are forty of them in all, words and music, and while the majority of the tunes are not as interesting or characteristic as those of this continent, not a few have a kindred value. We should instance "Beautiful Sta'h," "Go down, Moses," "Ev'rybody wants to know," "Death was a little t'ing," "My Jesus led me to the Rock," "Never a Man speak like this Man," and the chorus of "Don't you weep after me." The words are more uniformly equivalent to those of our negro "spirituals," but there are some curious divergences in the pronunciation, into which even a cockney element intrudes. We take an example from the animal stories: "Vw'en the man vwas goin' to dat tree de hashes did drop hout. 'E vwent to his sour-sop tree; 'e heat as much 's 'e vwan'."

There are thirty-eight of these stories, and they are a distinct addition to the store amassed by Harris and Jones and others, though the affiliations are numerous and striking and are duly noted by Prof. Edwards. He has, however, in the case of his amusing version of "B' Rabby an' B' Tar-Baby," overlooked the sliding off of the conclusion into Uncle Remus's "Brother Rabbit Secures a Mansion," which Mr. Harris discovered by means of a variant brought to this country from Demerara. It gives one a little shock to find one of our fairy tales masquerading in "Greo-Grass an' Hop-o'-my-Thumb," and "The Forty Thieves" in "B' Hellibaby an' B' Dawndejane." The narrators have a set formula for beginning, "Once it vwas a time," etc., and for ending,

> "E bo ban, my story 's en',
> If you doan' believe my story's true," etc.

Prof. Edwards was justified in thinking truly African the mysterious syllables "E bo ban"; but, while the book was passing through the press, he learned of an English country "nominie"—

> "Be bow bended, my story's ended,
> If you don't like it, you may mend it," etc.,

and is evidently shaken in his former opinion.

The book opens with a brief but very agreeable introduction on life in the Bahamas, the habits of the black race, particularly in their "settin' up," corresponding to our Sea Island nocturnal "shouts." Strange to say, the folk-tales are handed down principally by the children. "In each community," says our author, "one boy becomes much the best story-teller, and from such a source I took most of the following tales." Prof. Edwards's appendix treats of African music, and concludes with a noticeable bibliography of this subject.

Sketches of Printers and Printing in Colonial New York. By Charles R. Hildeburn. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895. 12mo, pp. xiv, 189.

SIX years ago Mr. Hildeburn issued his tentative 'Check-list' of New York imprints, and now carries his announced 'List of the Issues of the New York Press, 1693–1784' one point nearer completion in the above volume. The author's careful and minute research, already proved in the elaborate 'Issues of the Press of Pennsylvania' and the 'Catalogue of the Tower Collection of Colonial Laws,' is fully sustained in the present work, which is a distinct contribution to our knowledge not merely of printing, but scarcely less so of our early literary annals.

New York occupied a unique position in the colonial period as compared with the only other two centres of printing and literary activity among the provinces. Boston and Philadelphia, while nominally having free presses, were so overpoweringly influenced by a public sentiment colored with Congregationalism or Quakerism that local publications were, for the most part, of merely sectarian interest. Indeed, as the present work shows, writers in both cities opposed to the theocratic majority were in several cases compelled to send their works to tolerant New York in order to get them printed, and Mr. Hildeburn himself is in doubt as to whether the Keithian-Quaker controversy in Philadelphia was not the immediate cause of Bradford's establishing the first press in New York. In still another way this religious influence affected New York's rivals, for the Puritans and Quakers were generally opposed to plays and novels; and thus their influence hung as a dead weight upon any endeavor to produce belles-lettres. To this is due the honor New York has, of having printed the first plays in this country of both American (Hunter's "Androborus," 1714) and European (Addison's "Cato," 1753) production; the first novel (Richardson's 'Pamela,' 1744), and, later, the first edition of 'Robinson Crusoe,' the first volume of fairy tales, and other children's books. Not quite so easy to explain is the appearance here of the first printed protest against slavery (1693), though perhaps accounted for by the fact that New York seems to have never engaged so deeply in the slave trade as either Boston or Philadelphia.

A sketch of each printer is given by Mr. Hildeburn, and his most important books noted, the titles of the more interesting or typical being reproduced in facsimile. In this way thirty-three individuals are recorded who at one time or another composed the printing firms of New York. We can note no omissions from the list, though we should have been glad to see some reference to the printing-press on board Lord Howe's fleet in New York bay in July and August, 1776, on which at least one "Declaration" was struck off. The probabilities are that it was operated by Macdonald and Cameron, for they printed Howe's Declaration of September 19, 1776, and his Proclamation of November 30, and Mr. Hildeburn notes that most of that firm's publications were headed "by authority" or "by permission." This possibly gives a clue to the printers of the "Declaration" of Howe in 1777, which was probably printed on shipboard, being dated "Capes of Delaware," and this surmise corrects the date of the printers' removal to Philadelphia. The perplexity of the bibliography of those years of turmoil is well proved by a fact that Mr. Hildeburn for the first time puts in print:

"One other incident in Gaine's career in connection with his newspaper must be mentioned. It is, I believe, without a parallel in the annals of journalism. At the outbreak of the Revolution, Gaine, after a slight leaning towards the American cause, assumed and maintained a strict neutrality; but when it became likely that the British would occupy New York in September, 1776, he sent one of his presses to Newark, and on the 28th of that month began to issue there a quarto newspaper bearing the name and imprint of 'The New York *Gazette* and the Weekly *Mercury*, Printed by Hugh Gaine, at Newark, in East-New-Jersey,' devoted to the Whig cause, at the same time continuing to issue his neutral paper, of the same name, from his sign of 'The Bible and Crown,' in Hanover Square. The Newark edition was issued two days earlier than the New York one, but, besides bearing the same name, was numbered in sequence with the earliest issued. This was continued until November 2, making duplicate numbers and two papers of different politics from 1301 to 1307. After the battle of Long Island, Gaine concluded the American to be the losing side, withdrew from Newark, and gave his paper a British tone, which it preserved until its termination."

Nor is this the only contribution to the jour-

nalistic history of New York, for the author corrects Thomas's and Hudson's accounts in so many details as to entirely discredit them both. We note with interest that there was a "New York *Evening Post*" in 1744. For another similarity of conditions between the New York of that period and the New York of today, one paper was called the "Lying *Gazette*," while of another it was said that "the line at the top giving the name of the printer and the price of the paper were the only words of truth in it." Moreover, the "Lying *Gazette*" had what was probably the largest circulation of the day, being thirty-six hundred copies, unless the "circulation lie" was of older origin than is commonly supposed.

Like all Mr. Hildeburn's books, the proof-reading of his latest is wonderfully correct, the only noticeable error being the turning of Benjamin Rush into Benjamin Brush (p. 146). Another small point is that the author apparently is not aware that Mecon printed an edition of "Father Abraham's Speech" in 1758, though his statement, as far as it goes, is absolutely correct. Three engraved portraits, one hitherto unknown, and twenty-three facsimiles are very valuable additions. The book as a whole is a beautiful specimen of the De Vinne Press, and the limited edition of 375 copies will make it appeal to the book-fancier as well as to the scholar.

The Natural History of Plants: Their Forms, Growth, Reproduction, and Distribution. From the German of Anton Kerner von Marilaun, Professor in the University of Vienna, by F.W. Oliver, M. A., D.Sc., Quain Professor of Botany in University College, London. Vol. I. in two parts. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1895. Large 8vo, pp. 777.

THIS is the excellent English translation of the well-known 'Pflanzenleben' of the Vienna Professor. After an interesting introduction dealing with the study of plants in ancient and modern times, the author brings the reader at once to the very highest ground in the field, from which he can take a wide outlook. This point of view, it is hardly necessary to state, is the doctrine of the protoplasts. It assumes that the minute differentiated granules of living matter within the vegetable organism are all imbedded in the general mass of protoplasm, and that they are thereby brought into contact with one another and with the outer world. All activities reside within these microscopic organs, and it is only by gaining a knowledge of their work that we can hope to understand how the plant performs its manifold functions. Absorption of the materials for the production of food, the conduction of these crude matters to the points where they are made use of in the sunlight, the conveyance of the prepared food to the places where it is employed in work or treasured for future use, and, finally, the phenomena of propagation, are all made clear when the character of the protoplasts is understood. In some treatises the consideration of these minute granules is left to a much later stage in the development of the subject. The wisdom of Prof. Kerner's method is justified by the result. From first to last the reader goes forward with a distinct understanding of the proportions and perspective of vegetal activities. He is inducted with a certain degree of confidence into the more recent discoveries, because the author seems to feel that each person can measure and weigh evidence for himself. It will not be a surprise, therefore, when it is stated that almost all the newer developments, even those which are not yet accepted universally by botanists, are given with a great degree of fulness.

The translation is uneven, but is for the most part of exceptional excellence. Long German sentences are boldly broken into distinct fragments, after a fashion which suggests French editing. The lucidity of style is remarkable, and renders the reading, not to say the studying, a pleasure. We must add that the illustrations are very numerous and tell ing, and that the treatise is enriched by a series of excellent drawings in color.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Church Almanac and Year Book for 1896. James Pott & Co. 25c.
Baker, T. A Dictionary of Musical Terms. New York: G. Schirmer.
Baldwin, E. F., and Eisenberg, M. Doctor Cavallo. Peoria, Ill.: J. W. Franks & Sons.
Barton, Samuel. The Battle of the Swash. C. T. Dillingham. 50c.
Björnson, B. Über unsere Kraft: Schauspiel in 2 Teilen. Leipzig: Albert Langen.
Brooks, E. S. The Story of Miriam of Magdala. New York: W. S. Perkins & Co.
Burr ett, J. G. Love and Laughter: Being a Legacy of Rhyme. Putnams. $1.25.
Cawein, Madison. The White Snake, and Other Poems. Louisville, Ky.: J. P. Morton & Co.
Dale, Rev. R. W. The Epistle of James, and Other Discourses. Armstrong. $1.75.
Dwight, T. F. The Virginia Campaign of 1862 under General Pope. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Esler, E. R. 'Mid Green Pastures. James Pott & Co. $1.
Evans, M. A. B. Nymphs, Nixies, and Naiads. Putnams. $1.25.
Foster, Roger. Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States. Vol. I. Boston: Boston Book Co.
Flewellyn, Julia C. Hill-Crest. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Freeland, William. Algebra for Schools and Colleges. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.40.
Gilbert, J. H. Dictionary of Burning Words of Brilliant Writers. W. B. Ketcham. $2.
Goodwin, Rev. T. A. Lovers Three Thousand Years Ago. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 50c.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. American Book Co. 35c.
Hudson, T. J. A Scientific Demonstration of the Future Life. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Ideals: Selections from Various Sources. James Pott & Co.
Keller, Prof. I. Bilder aus der Deutschen Litteratur. American Book Co. 75c.
Lawton, W. C. Folia Dispersa: Poems. New York: Corell Press.
Moore, Aimée O. Studies in the Science of Drawing in Art. Boston: Ginn & Co. 10c.
Müller, F. Max. Sacred Books of the Buddhists. Vol. I. London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan.
Oldboy, Felix. Walks in Our Churchyards. Old New York. New York: G. G. Peck.
Pemberton, T. E. John Hare, Comedian. Routledge & Sons. 50c.
Pierce, G. W. My Soundspeed Discovery. 2d ed. Boston: The Author.
Reynolds, Rev. Grindall. Historical and Other Papers. Concord, Mass.; Alice Reynolds Keyes.
Richard, Edouard. Acadia: Missing Links of a Lost Chapter in American History. 2 vols. New York: Home Book Co. $2.
Ross, C. M. Pinks and Cherries. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Scheffel, J. V. von. Ekkehard: Eine Geschichte aus dem Zehnten Jahrhundert. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Scheffel, J. V. von. Ekkehard. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Scotland, Bonnie. The Land of Nada: A Fairy Story. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Scott, Sir W. Ivanhoe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60c.
Scribner's Magazine, 1895. 2 vols. Scribners.
Seidel, Heinrich. Herr Omnia. American Book Co. 25c.
Steiner, B. C. Citizenship and Suffrage in Maryland. Baltimore: Cushing & Co. $2.
Trent, Prof. W. P. Milton's L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Comus and Lycidas. Longmans, Green & Co.
Volkman-Leander, Richard von. Träumereien an Französischen Kaminen. American Book Co. 35c.
Wheelwright, Edith G. Anthony Graeme. London: Bentley & Son; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

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